



ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS;
OR
UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY
OF THE
ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE, &c.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS;
OR
UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF THE
ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE, &c.

INTENDED TO SUPERSEDE
THE USE OF OTHER BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

ILLUSTRATED WITH
THREE HUNDRED AND SEVENTY PLATES AND MAPS.

SECOND EDITION,
IN TWENTY-THREE VOLUMES.

VOLUME XXII.

EDINBURGH:
PRINTED BY JOHN BROWN, ANCHOR CLOSE,
FOR THE PROPRIETORS,
AND SOLD BY ALL THE BOOKSELLERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

1816.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS.

S U R

S U R

(1.) * **SURNAME.** *n. f.* [*surdon*, Fr.] 1. The name of the family; the name which one has over and above the Christian name.—Many which were mere English joined with the Irish against the king, taking on them Irish habits and customs, of which sort be most of the *surnames* that end in *an*, as *Hernan*, *Shinan*, and *Mungan*. *Spenfer*.—He, made heir not only of his brother's kingdom, but of his virtues and haughty thoughts, and of the *surname* also of *Barbarossa*, began to aspire to the empire. *Knolles*.—The epithets of great men, *monfieur Boileau* is of opinion, were in the nature of *surnames*. *Pope*. 2. An appellation added to the original name.—

Witness may

My *surname* *Coriolanus*: the painful service,
The extreme dangers, and the drops of blood
Shed for my thankless country, are required
But with that *surname*. *Shak.*

(2.) **SURNAME** is that which is added to the proper name for distinguishing persons and families. It was originally distinguished from *SIGNAME*, which denotes the name of the *fire* or progenitor; thus *Macdonald* and *Robertson*, are surnames expressing the *son of Donald*, the *son of Robert*. The word *surname*, again from *sur*, Fr. *above* or upon, and *nom*, *name*, signified some name superadded to the proper name to distinguish the individual, as *Artaxerxes Longimanus*, *Harold Harefoot*, *Malcolm Canmore*. From this it is evident, that every *surname* was a *surname*, but every *surname* was not a *surname*. In modern times they are nearly confounded; and as there is now little occasion to preserve the distinction, Dr Johnson has rejected the word *surname* altogether; where-in he certainly did wrong, for he has retained words much more obsolete. See **NAME**. Surnames have been introduced among most nations, but among many not at a very early period. They seem to have been formed at first by adding the name of the father to that of the son. Among the Hebrews,

Caleb is denominated the son of Jephunneh, and Joshua the son of Nun. But it is evident that these were not used as *surnames*. Even so late as our Saviour's time the Jews had no regular family *surnames*. Some had *nicknames*, or personal epithets from accidental or characteristic circumstances, as *Simon Peter*, *Judas Lebbaeus*, *Joseph Barsabas Justus*, *Judas Iscariot*, &c. But none of these were hereditary, as all surnames properly are. *Iscariot* is thought by some commentators to have been a name taken by Judas from his landed property. We admit that in all nations, while men had but one name, it was usual to distinguish them, by mentioning the name of their fathers. That the ancient Greeks, as well as the Jews did so is evident from the very first line of the *Iliad*: *Αχιλλεύς Πηλεΐδης*, "Achilles the son of Peleus." This perhaps gave rise to surnames, which at last became common among most nations. The old Normans used *Fitz*, which signifies *son*; as *Fitzherbert*, *Fitzsimmons*, the *son of Herbert*, the *son of Simon*. The Irish used *O*, or *Oy*, for *grandson*, which is still used in many parts of Scotland; the compiler's maternal great-grandmother boasted that he had 100 eyes: *O'Neal*, *O'Donnel*, &c. therefore signify the *grandson of Neal* and of *Donald*. The Scottish Highlanders employed *Mac*; as *Macdonald*, the *son of Donald*. The Saxons added the word *son* to the end of the father's name, as *Williamson*. The Romans generally had three names, often four or five. The first called *prænomen* answered to our Christian name, and was intended to distinguish the individuals of the family; the 2d called *nomen* corresponded to the word *clan* in Scotland, and was given to all those who were sprung from the same stock; the 3d called *cognomen* expressed the particular branch of the tribe or clan from which an individual was sprung. Thus *Publius Cornelius Scipio*: *Publius* corresponded to our names John, Robert, and William: *Cornelius* was the name of the

VOL. XXII. PART I.

A

the

the clan or tribe, as Campbell was formerly the name of all the duke of Argyle's clients, and Douglas of the retainers of the duke of Hamilton's progenitors: *Scipio* being added, conveyed this information, that *Publius*, who was of the tribe of the *Cornelli*, was of the family of that *Scipio* who led about his aged blind father, and became a *scipio* or *staff* to him. But they had also the *Agnomen*, which was generally *personal*, though sometimes hereditary; and was derived from some particular circumstance or accident happening to individuals. See *AGNOMEN* and *COGNOMEN*. Dr *Cheine* observes, that surnames were unknown in *France* before 987, when the lords began to assume the names of their demesnes. Camden relates, that they were first taken up in England, a little before the conquest, under King Edward the Confessor: but he adds, that they were never fully established among the common people till the time of Edward II. Till then they were varied with the father's name: if the father, e. gr. was called *Richard* or *Reger*, the son was called *Richardson* or *Hodgson*; but from that time they were settled, some say, by act of parliament. The oldest surnames are these we find in Domesday-book, most of them taken from places, with the addition of *de*; as *Gislefridus de Manneville*, *Walterus de Veton*, *Robertus de Oyly*, &c. Others from their fathers, with *filius*; as *Gulielmus filius Osborni*; others from their offices; as *Eudo Dapifer*, *Gulielmus Camerarius*, *Gislebertus Cocus*, &c. But the inferior people are noted simply by their Christian names, without any surnames. Some think they were first introduced into Scotland in the time of William the Conqueror, by the English, who accompanied Edgar Atheling when he fled into that kingdom. These had their proper surnames, as *Maubray*, *Lowly*, *Lisle*, &c. using the particle *de* before them; which makes it probable that these surnames had been derived from the lands which their ancestors or they themselves had possessed. But Scottish historians mention some surnames in Scotland at much earlier periods; and trace the surname of *Macalpine* from a natural son of *King Alpine*, and that of *Macgregor* from another bastard of *King Gregory* the Great, who both reigned in the 9th century. (See SCOTLAND, § 12. and 15.) Some antiquaries date the origin of the surname of *Graham* so early as the 5th century, from one *Graham*, a Scottish hero, who leaped over and demolished part of *Antoniun's* wall, thence called *GRAHAM'S DYKE*. (See SCOTLAND, § 10.) And it is certain that in *Kenneth III's* time, in 800, the great men had begun to call their lands by their own names; and soon after, the various branches of their families took their surnames from their estates. Others, as surnames increased, took their names from their offices, as *Stewarts*; from their business, as *Smith*, *Taylor*, &c.; others from their complexion or stature, as *Black*, *White*, *Red*, *Brown*, *Long*, *Short*, &c. It was long before any surnames were used in *Wales*, except that of son; as *Evan ap Rice*, *Evan* the son of *Rice*; *David ap Howel*, *David* the son of *Howel*: but many of them have at length formed separate surnames, as the English and Scots by leaving out the *a* in *ap*, and joining

the *p* to the father's name: thus *Evan ap Rice* becomes *Evan Price*; *Griffin ap Howel*, *Griffin Powell*.—We are told, surnames were unknown in *Sweden* till 1314, and that the common people of that country use none to this day; and that the same is the case with the vulgar Irish, Poles, and Bohemians. Many surnames were doubtless originally bestowed on account of the qualities of mind, as *Bold*, *Hardy*, *Meek*; some for the qualities of body, as *Strong*, *Low*, *Short*, &c. But the greatest number of surnames were borrowed from the names of places, and not a few from the country at large; as *Scott*, *Scotland*, *English*, *Inglish*, *England*, *Wales*, *Welsh*, *Ireland*, &c. Camden says that there is not a village in *Normandy* but has given its name to some family in *England*. He mentions as examples *Percy*, *Devereux*, *Tanker-ville*, *Mortimer*, *Warren*, &c. They were introduced with *William I.* Several have been derived from places in the Netherlands, as *Gaunt*, *Tournay*, *Grandison*; and many from the names of towns and villages in *England* and *Scotland*, as *Wentworth*, *Markham*, *Murray*, *Aberdeen*. Many have been formed from the names of animals, as *Lion*, *Dog*, *Hog*, *Cock*, *Salmon*, &c.; many from vegetables and minerals, &c. Others are formed from such a variety of accidents that it would be trifling to particularize them. After the revival of learning, when most European authors wrote in Latin, it was a very general practice to Latinize their surnames, either by adding a Latin termination to them, or by a complete translation, which often disguised them entirely. Thus *Francis Holyoak*, author of a Latin dictionary, called himself *Franciscus de Sacra Quercu*; *Kirkwood* and *Ruddiman*, in their Latin grammars, called themselves *Kirkwoodus* and *Ruddimannus*; and even so late as the end of last century, Dr *Brown*, in his *Elementa Medicinæ*, styled himself *Joannes Bruno*; whence the epithet *BRUNONIAN* was applied to his doctrine and his followers. But surnames ought never to be translated; and Christian names always ought, except when borrowed from surnames. See *LOUIS*.

* To SURNAME, *v. a.* [*Surnommé*, Fr. from the noun.] To name by an original appellation added to the name.—Another shall surname himself by the name of *Israel*. *Is.* xlv. 5.—*Pyreicus*, only famous for counterfeiting earthen pitchers, was surnamed *Rupographus*. *Peacham*.—

How he, *surnam'd* of *Africa*, dismiss'd
In his prime youth the fair Iberian maid. *Mil.*
—God commanded man what was good; but the devil surnam'd it evil. *South.*

SUROE, } or SOROE, an island in the North
SUROY, } Sea, on the coast of Norway; 44
miles long and 8 broad. Lon. 40. 0. E. Ferro.
Lat. 70. 34. N.

* To SURPASS, *v. a.* [*surpasser*, French.] To excel; to exceed; to go beyond in excellence.—

The climate's delicate,
Fertile the ille, the temple much surpassing
The common praise it bears. *Shak.*

O, by what name, for thou above all these
Surpass'st far my naming! *Milton.*

—*Achilles* in strength and courage surpass'd the
rest of the Grecian army. *Dryden*.—

A nymph

A nymph of late there was,
Whose heav'nly form her fellows did surpass.

Dryden.

—Under or near the line are mountains which, for bigness and number, surpass those of colder countries, as much as the heat there surpasses that of those countries. *Woodward.*

* **SURPASSABLE.** *adj.* [from *surpass* and *able*.] That may be excelled. *Diſt.*

* **SURPASSING.** *participial adj.* [from *surpass*.] Excellent in an high degree.—

O thou! that, with surpassing glory crown'd,
Look'st from thy sole dominion like the god
Of this new world. *Milton.*

—His miracles proved him to be sent from God, by that surpassing goodness they demonstrated to the world. *Colamy.*

* **SURPASSINGLY.** *adv.* [from *surpassing*.] In a very excellent manner. *Diſt.*

(1.) * **SURPLICE.** *n. f.* [*ſurpelis, ſurplis, Fr. ſuperpellicium, Lat.*] The white garb which the clergy wear in their acts of ministration.—It will wear the surplice of humility over the black gown of a big heart. *Shak.*—The cinctus gabinus is a long garment, not unlike a surplice, which was gathered about the middle with a girdle. *Addison.*

(2.) **SURPLICE.** By Can. 58, every minister saying the public prayers, or ministering the sacrament or other rites of the church, shall wear a decent and comely surplice with sleeves, to be provided at the charge of the parish. But by 1 Eliz. c. 2. and 13 and 14 Car. II. the garb prescribed by act of parliament, in the second year of king Edward VI. is enjoined; and this requires, that in the saying or singing of matins, and even songs, baptizing and burying, the minister in parish churches and chapels shall use a surplice. And in all cathedral churches and colleges, the archdeacon, dean, provosts, masters, prebendaries, and fellows being graduates, may use in the choir, besides their surplices, such hoods as pertain to their several degrees. But in all other places every minister shall be at liberty to use a surplice or not. For the holy communion the rubric appoints a white Alms plain, which differs from the surplice in being close-sleeved, with a vestment or cope. See **ALB**.

* **SURPLUS.** } *n. f.* [*ſur and plus, French.*]
* **SURPLUSAGE.** } A superfluous part;
superplus; what remains when use is satisfied.—

If then thee list my offered grace to use,
Take what thou please of all this surplusage.

Spenser.

That you have vouchsaf'd my poor house to visit,

It is a surplus of your grace. *Shak.*

—When the price of corn falleth, men give over surplus tillage. *Carew.*—We made a substance so disposed to fluidity, that by so small an agitation as only the surplusage of that which the ambient air is wont to have about the middle even of a winter's day, above what it hath in the first part. *Boyle.*—The officers spent all, so as there was no surplusage of treasure. *Davies.*—All that surplusage of affiance is owing not to the love of truth. *Locke.*

* **SURPRISAL.** } *n. f.* [*ſurprise, French; from*
* **SURPRISE.** } the verb.] 1. The act of taking

unawares; the state of being taken unawares.—Parents should mark heedfully the witty excuses of their children, especially at suddains and surprisals. *Wotton.*

This let him know,

Left, wilfully transgressing, he pretend
Surprisal, unadmonish'd, unforwarn'd. *Milton.*
—I set aside the taking of St Jago and St Domingo in Hispaniola, as surprises rather than encounters. *Bacon.*

This strange surprisal put the knight
And wrathful squire into a fright. *Hudibras.*
—There is a vast difference between them, as vast as between surprise and set purpose. *South.*—He whose thoughts are employed in the weighty cares of empire, the laws relieve him against the surprises and machinations of deceitful men. *Davenant.* 2. A dish, I suppose, which has nothing in it.—

Few care for carving trifles in disguise
Of that fantastick dish some call surprise. *King.*
3. Sudden confusion or perplexity.

* **TO SURPRISE.** *v. a.* [*ſurpris, French, from*
surprendre.] 1. To take unawares; to fall upon unexpectedly.—

The cattle of Macduff I will surprise. *Shak.*
Discover who'd the state surprise. *B. Jonson.*

Bid her well beware,
Left, by some fair appearing good surpris'd,
She dictate false. *Milton.*

A weaker may surprise, a stronger take. *Pope.*
Who can speak
The mingled passions that surpris'd his heart!

Thomson.

2. To astonish by something wonderful.—People were not so much frighted as surprised at the bigness of the camel. *L'Estrange.* 3. To confuse or perplex with something sudden.—

Up he starts, discover'd and surpris'd. *Milton.*
* **SURPRISING.** *participial adj.* [from *surprise*.]

Wonderful; raising sudden wonder or concern.—The greatest actions of a celebrated person, however surprising and extraordinary, are no more than what are expected from him. *Spectator.*

* **SURPRISINGLY.** *adv.* [from *surprising*.] To a degree that raises wonder; in a manner that raises wonder.—If out of those ten thousand we should take the men that are employed in publick business, the number of those who remain will be surprisingly little. *Addison.*

* **SURQUEDRY.** *n. s.* [*ſur and cuider, old Fr. to think.*] Overweening pride; insolence. Obsolete.—

Transform'd to fish for their bold surquedry. *Spenser.*

Men may not themselves their own good parts
Extol, without suspect of surquedry. *Donne.*
SURRATTE. See **SHUR**.

* **SURREBUTTER.** *n. s.* [In law.] A second rebutter; answer to a rebutter. A term in the courts.

* **SURREJOINDER.** *n. s.* [*ſurrejoindre, French.* In law.] A second defence of the plaintiff's action, opposite to the rejoinder of the defendant, which the civilians call *triplicatio*. *Bayly.*

(1.) * **SURRENDER.** *SURRENDY.* *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of yielding.—

A 2

Out

Our general mother, with eyes
Of conjugal attraction unprov'd,
And meek *surrender*, half-embracing, lean'd
On our first father. *Milton.*

—Having mustered up all the forces he could, he
prepares for a *surrender*. *Woodward.*
Juba's *surrender*

Would give up Africk into Cæsar's hands.

Addison.
2. The act of resigning or giving up to another.—
If our father carry authority with such disposition
as he bears, this last *surrender* of his will but of-
fend us. *Shak.*—That hope quickly vanished upon
the undoubted intelligence of that *surrender*. *Glanville.*
—We should have made an entire *surrender*
of ourselves to God. *Decay of Piety.*—In passing a
thing away by deed of gift, are required a *surrender*
on the giver's part of all the property he
has in it: and to the making of a thing sacred, this
surrender by its right owner is necessary. *South.*

(2.) *SURRENDER*, in common law, is a deed or
instrument, testifying that the particular tenant of
lands and tenements, for life or years, doth suffi-
ciently consent and agree, that he who has the
next or immediate remainder or reversion thereof
shall have the present estate of the same in posses-
sion; and that he hereby yields and gives up the
same to him, so that the estate for life or years
may merge or drown by mutual agreement of the
parties. Of *surrenders* there are three kinds; a
surrender properly taken at common law; a *surrender*
of copyhold or customary estates; and a
surrender improperly taken, as of a deed, a patent,
&c. The first is the usual *surrender*, and it is
usually divided into that in deed and that in law.

(3.) *SURRENDER*, in deed, is that which is really
made by express words in writing, where the
words of the lessee to the lessor prove a sufficient
assent to *surrender* his estate back again.

(4.) *SURRENDER*, in law, is that wrought by
operation of the law, and which is not actual.—As
if a man have a lease of a farm for life or years,
and during the term he accepts a new lease; this
act is, in law, a *surrender* of the former.

(5.) *SURRENDER* of a bankrupt. See COM-
MISSION OF BANKRUPTCY.

(6.) *SURRENDER OF COPYHOLDS* is the yielding
up of the estate by the tenant into the hands of
the lord, for such purposes as are expressed in the
surrender: as to the use and behoof of A and his
heirs, to the use of his own will, and the like.
This method of conveyance is so essential to the
nature of a copyhold estate, that it cannot pos-
sibly be transferred by any other assurance. No
testament, fine, or recovery (in the king's courts),
hath any operation upon it. If I would exchange
a copyhold with another, I cannot do it by an
ordinary deed of exchange at the common law,
but we must *surrender* to each other's use, and
the lord will admit us accordingly. If I would
devise a copyhold, I must *surrender* it to the use of
my last will and testament; and in my will I must
declare my intentions, and name a devisee, who
will then be entitled to admission.

(7.) *SURRENDER OF LETTERS PATENT AND
OFFICES.* A *surrender* may be made of letters
patent to the king, so that he may grant the estate
to whom he pleases, &c.; and a second patent for

years to the same person for the same thing is a
surrender in law of the first patent. 10 Rep. 66.
If an officer for life accepts of another grant of the
same office, it is in law a *surrender* of the first
grant; but if such an officer takes another grant
of the same office to himself and another, it may
be otherwise.

(1.) * *To SURRENDER. v. a.* [*surrendre*, old Fr.]
1. To yield up; to deliver up.—Solemn dedica-
tion of the churches serves also to *surrender* up
that right which otherwise their founders might
have in them. *Hooker.*—Recal those grants, and
we are ready to *surrender* ours. *Davenant.* 2. To
deliver up to an enemy: sometimes with up em-
phatically.—

Ripe age bade him *surrender* late

His life and long good fortune unto final fate.

Fairfax.
—He, willing to *surrender* up the castle, forbade
his soldiers to have any talk with the enemy.
Kneller.

Surrender up to me thy captive breath. *Hart.*

(2.) * *To SURRENDER. v. n.* To yield; to give
one's self up.—

This mighty Archimedes too *surrenders* now.

Glanville.

* *SURRENDRY.* See *SURRENDER*, § 1.

* *SURREPTION. n. s.* [*surreptus*, Latin.]
Sudden and unperceived invasion or intrusion.—
Sins compatible with a regenerate estate are sins
of a sudden *surreption*. *Hammond.*

(1.) * *SURREPTITIOUS. adj.* [*surreptitius*,
Latin.] Done by stealth; gotten or produced
fraudulently.—Scaliger hath not translated the
first, perhaps supposing it *surreptitious*. *Brown.*
The Maforites numbered not only the felonies
and limes, but even the words and letters of the
Old Testament, the better to secure it from *sur-
reptitious* practices. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—A correct
copy of the Dunciad, the many *surreptitious* ones
have rendered necessary. *Letter to Publ.*

(2.) *SURREPTITIOUS.* See *SURREPTITIOUS.*

* *SURREPTITIOUSLY. adv.* [from *surrepti-
tious*.] By stealth; fraudulently.—Thou hast got
it more *surreptitiously* than he did, and with less
ease. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

SURREY. See *SURRY.*

* *SURROGATE. n. s.* [*surrogatus*, Latin.] A
deputy; a delegate; the deputy of an ecclesiastical
judge.

* *To SURROGATE. v. a.* [*surrogo*, Latin.] To
put in the place of another.

(1.) * *SURROGATION. n. s.* [*surrogatio*, Lat.]
The act of putting in another's place.

(2.) *SURROGATION, in law.* See *SURROGA-
TION.*

* *To SURROUND. v. a.* [*surround*, Fr.] To
environ; to encompass; to enclose on all sides.—

Yelling monsters, that with ceaseless cry
Surround me, as thou wast. *Milton.*

Cloud and ever-during dark

Surround me. *Milton.*

Bad angels seen

'Twixt upper, nether, and *surrounding* fires.

Milton.
—The bodies that *surround* us diversely affect our
organs. *Locke.*

(1.) *SURRY*, a county of England, bounded on the

the W. by Berkshire and Hampshire, on the S. by Suffex, on the E. by Kent, on the N. by Middlesex, from which it is parted by the Thames; whence it had the name of *Subtre* by the Saxons, i. e. the country on the S. side of the river. It is 38 miles long from E. to W. 27 broad from N. to S. and 212 in circumference. It contains 13 hundreds, 140 parishes, of which 35 are vicarages, 13 market towns, 450 villages, and 592,000 acres. It sends 14 members to parliament, of whom two are from each of the following boroughs, viz. Southwark, Blechingley, Ryegate, Guildford, Gatten, Haslemere, and two for the county. The air towards the middle, which consists mostly of hills and heath, is sharp, but pure and wholesome. About the skirts, where it is more level, and the soil richer, the air is milder, and also salubrious. In the middle parts the soil is barren in general; but towards the extremities, and where the country is open and champaign, it is fruitful in grass and corn, particularly on the S. side, in Holmsdale, in which meadows, woods, and corn fields, are agreeably intermixed. The soil is also very fertile along the Thames, especially towards London, where it greatly contributes to maintain plenty in the London markets. It has several rivers, abounding with fish; the chief are the Wye, the Mole, and the Wandie. By the report of the population of England, given in to the house of commons, June 26, 1801, Surry contained, at that period, 45,535 houses, 126,152 males, and 141,136 females; in all, 267,288 souls.

(2.) **SURRY**, a county of N. Carolina, in Salisbury district, bounded on the N. by Virginia, E. by Stokes, SW. by Iredell, and W. by Wilkes counties. It contained 4693 citizens in 1795, and 698 slaves. It has an iron manufacture on the banks of the Yadkin.

(3.) **SURRY**, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the river James and Charles-city county, E. by the Isle of Wight, S. by Southampton, and W. by Prince George's county. It is 40 miles long and 15 broad, and, in 1795, contained 3130 citizens and 3097 slaves.

(4.) **SURRY**, a town of New Hampshire; 72 miles NW. of Boston, and 160 NNE. of New York.

SURSEE, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Lucerne, on lake Sempach; 13 miles NW. of Lucerne, and 26 E. of Solcure.

SURSKOI, a town of Russia, in Archangel; 140 miles ESE. of Archangel.

(1.) * **SURSOLID**. *n. s.* [In algebra.] The fourth multiplication or power of any number whatever taken as the root. *Trevaux*.

(2.) **SURSOLID**, or **SURDESOLID**, in arithmetic, is also styled the *fifth power of a number*.

(3.) * **SURSOLID PROBLEM**. *n. s.* [In mathematics.] That which cannot be resolved but by curves of a higher nature than a conic section. *Harris*.

(1.) **SURSOOTY**, a town of Hindostan, in Delhi; 114 miles NW. of Delhi.

(2.) **SURSOOTY**, a river of Hindostan, in Delhi, which joins the Caggar, 105 miles NW. of Delhi. It is one of the seven *sacred* rivers of the superstitious Hindoos.

(3.) **SURSOOTY**, another river of Hindostan, in Guzerat, which runs into the Indian Ocean, 40 miles SW. of Junagur.

SURSWUTTY, a river of Hindostan, which runs into the Puddar, 26 miles W. of Pattun.

SURTAINVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel; 12 miles SSW. of Cherburg, and 13½ W. of Valognes.

* **SURTOUT**. *n. s.* [French.] A large coat worn over all the rest.

The *surtout*, if abroad you wear,
Repels the rigour of the air. *Prior*.
—Sir Roger was forced to wear a *surtout* of oiled cloth, by which means he came home pretty clean, except where the *surtout* was a little scanty. *Arbutnot*.

* **TO SURVENE**. *v. a.* [*survenir*, French.] To supervene; to come as an addition.—Hippocrates mentions a supputation that *survenes* lethargies. *Harvey*.

* **SURVEY**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. View; prospect.—

Her stars in all their vast *survey*. *Milton*.
Under his proud *survey* the city lies. *Denham*.
O'erlooks the neighbours with a wide *survey*. *Dryden*.

2. Superintendence. 3. Mensuration.

* **TO SURVEY**. *v. a.* [*surveoir*, old French.] 1. To overlook; to have under the view; to view as from a higher place.—

Round her *surveys*, and well might where he
stood,
So high above. *Milton*.
Search not his bottom, but *survey* his shore. *Denham*.

2. To oversee as one in authority. 3. To view as examining.—

The husbandman's self came that way,
Of custom to *survey* his ground. *Spenser*.
Early abroad he did the world *survey*. *Waller*.
All pale and speechless, he *survey'd* me round. *Dryden*.

4. To measure and estimate land or buildings.
SURVEYING, *n. s.* the art of measuring land; that is, of taking the dimensions of any tract of ground, laying down the same in a map or draught, and finding the content or area thereof. See **GEOMETRY**.

(1.) * **SURVEYOR**. *n. s.* [from *survey*.] 1. An overseer; one placed to superintend others.—

Were't not madness then,
To make the fox *surveyor* of the fold? *Shak*.
—Bishop Fox was not only a grave counsellor, but also a good *surveyor* of works. *Bacon*. 2. A measurer of land.—

Question *surveyors*, know our own estate,
How able such a work to undergo. *Shak*.
—Decempea was a measuring rod for taking the dimensions of buildings; from hence came decempeator, for a *surveyor*, used by Cicero. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **SURVEYOR** is also used for a person who has the oversight and care of considerable works, lands, or the like.

(3.) **SURVEYOR** likewise denotes a gauger; also a person who makes maps of lands.

* **SURVEYORSHIP**. *n. s.* [from *surveyor*.] The office of a surveyor.

* **TO SURVIEW**. *v. a.* [*surveoir*, old French.] To

To overlook; to have in view; to survey. Not in use.—

Lifted high above this earthly mass,

Which it *survieu'd*, *Spenser.*

* To SURVIVE. *v. n.* [*super vivo*, Latin; *survivre*, Fr.] 1. To live after the death of another.—

I'll assure her of

Her widowhood, be it that she *survives* me,

In all my lands and leaves whatsoever. *Shak.*

Those that *survive*, let Rome reward with love. *Shak.*

Try pleasure,

Which when no other enemy *survives*,

Still conquers all the conquerors. *Denham.*

2. To live after any thing.—Now that he is dead, his immortal fame *surviveth*. *Spenser.*—

The love of horses, which they had alive,

And care of chariots, after death *survive*. *Dryden.*

—The rhapsodies, called the characteristicks, would never have *survived* the first edition, if they had not discovered to strong a tincture of infidelity. *Watts.* 3. To remain alive.—

No longer now that golden age appears,

When patriarch wits *surviv'd* a thousand years,

Now length of fame, our second life, is lost. *Pope.*

* SURVIVER. *n. f.* [from *survive*.] One who outlives another.—

The *surviver* bound

In filial obligation, for some term,

To do obsequious sorrow. *Shak.*

—Although some died, the number of *survivors* must still be very great. *Brown.*—

From his *survivors* I could nothing learn. *Denham.*

—Her majesty is heir to the *survivor* of the late king. *Swift.*

(1.) * SURVIVERSHIP. *n. f.* [from *surviver*.] The state of outliving another.—Such offices granted in reversion were void, unless where the grant has been by *survivorship*. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) SURVIVORSHIP. See SURVIVORSHIP.

SURVIVOR, *n. f.* in law signifies the longest liver of joint tenants, or of any two persons jointly interested in a thing.

(1.) SURVIVORSHIP, *n. f.* is that branch of mathematics which treats of reversions payable, provided one or more particular persons survive certain others. By reversions are meant payments not to take place till some future period. Survivorship forms one of the most difficult and complicated parts of the doctrine of reversions and LIFE ANNUITIES. It has been very fully treated of by Mr Thomas Simpson in his *Select Exercises*; and brought to a state of perfection by Dr Price and Mr Morgan, who bestowed a great deal of attention on this subject. (See ANNUITIES.) The calculations are founded on the expectation of lives at different ages, deduced from tables formed from bills of mortality, of which see several examples under the article MORTALITY, § 3—7. By the *expectation of life* is meant the mean time that any single or joint lives at a given age is found to continue; that is, the number of years which, taking one with another, they actually enjoy, and may be considered as sure of enjoying; those who sur-

vive that period enjoying as much more time in proportion to their number as those who fall short of it enjoy less. Thus, supposing 46 persons alive all 40 years of age, and that one will die every year till they are all dead in 46 years, half 46 or 23 will be the *expectation* of each of them. If M. de Moivre's hypothesis were true, that men always decrease in an arithmetical progression, the *expectation* of a single life is always half its complement, and the *expectation* of two joint lives one third of their common complement. By the *complement of a life* is meant what it wants of 86, which M. de Moivre makes the boundary of human life. Thus if a man be 30, the complement of his life is 56. Thus, supposing a man 40, his *expectation* would be 23, the half of 46, his complement: the *expectation* of two joint lives, each 40, would be 15 years 4 months, or the third part of 46. The number expressing the *expectation*, multiplied by the number of single or joint lives, (of which it is the *expectation*), added annually to a society, gives the whole number living together, to which such an annual addition would in time grow. Thus, since 19, or the third of 57, is the *expectation* of two joint lives, whose common age is 29, 20 marriages every year between persons of this age would in 57 years grow to 20 times 19, or 380 marriages, always existing together. And since the *expectation* of a single life is always half its complement, in 57 years 20 single persons added annually to a town will increase to 20 times 28.5, or 570; and when arrived at this number, the deaths every year will just equal the accessions, and no farther increase be possible. It appears from hence, that the particular proportion that becomes extinct every year, out of the whole number constantly existing together of single or joint lives, must, wherever this number undergoes no variation, be exactly the same with the *expectation* of those lives, at the time when their existence commenced. Thus, was it found that a 19th part of all the marriages among any bodies of men, whose numbers do not vary, are dissolved every year by the deaths of either the husband or wife, it would appear that 19 was, at the time they were contracted, the *expectation* of these marriages. In like manner, was it found in a society, limited to a fixed number of members, that a 28th part dies annually out of the whole number of members, it would appear that 28 was their common *expectation* of life at the time they entered. So likewise, were it found in any town or district, where the number of births and burials are equal, that a 20th or 30th part of the inhabitants die annually, it would appear that 20 or 30 was the *expectation* of a child just born in that town or district. These *expectations*, therefore, for all single lives, are easily found by a table of observations, showing the number that die annually at all ages out of a given number alive at those ages; and the general rule for this purpose is, to divide the sum of all the living in the table, at the age whose *expectation* is required, and at all greater ages, by the sum of all that die annually at that age and above it; or, which is the same, by the number (in the Table) of the living at that age; and half unity subtracted from the quotient will be the required *expectation*. Thus,

Thus, in Dr. HALLEY'S TABLE, in the article ANNUITIES, *Sec.* II. the sum of all the living at 20 and upwards is 20,744, which, divided by 598, the number living at the age of 20, and half unity subtracted from the quotient, gives 34.15 for the expectation of 20. In calculating the value or expectation of joint lives, M. De Moivre fell into various mistakes, which we need not enumerate; as Dr Price and Mr Morgan have given tables of the value of lives, not founded on any *hypothesis*, but deduced from bills of mortality. Mr Morgan has likewise given rules for calculating values of lives in this manner. Dr Price, in the 3d essay in the first volume of his *Treatise on Reversionary Payments*, has also given proper rules for calculating these values, the most important of which are comprehended in the following paragraphs.

(a.) SURVIVORSHIP, CASES OF. I. Suppose a set of married men to enter into a society in order to provide annuities for their widows, and that it is limited to a certain number of members, and constantly kept up to that number by the admission of new members as the old ones are lost; it is of importance, in the first place, to know the number of annuitants that after some time will come upon the establishment. Now, since every marriage produces either a widow or widower, and since all marriages taken together would produce as many widows as widowers, were every man and his wife of the same age, and the chance equal which shall die first; it is evident, that the number of widows that have ever existed in the world, would in this case be equal to half the number of marriages. And what would take place in the world must also, on the same suppositions, take place in this society. In other words, every other person in such a society leaving a widow, there must arise from it a number of widows equal to half its own number. But this does not determine what number, all living at one and the same time, the society may expect will come to be constantly upon it. It is, therefore, necessary to determine how long the duration of survivorship between persons of equal ages will be compared with the duration of marriage. And the truth is, that, supposing the probabilities of life to decrease uniformly, the former is equal to the latter; and consequently that the number of survivors (or, which is the same, supposing no second marriages), of widows and widowers alive together which will arise from any given set of such marriages constantly kept up, will be equal to the whole number of marriages; or half of them (the number of widows in particular) equal to half the number of marriages. Now it appears that in most towns the decrease in the probabilities of life is in fact nearly uniform. According to the Breslaw Table of Observation, (see ANNUITIES, *Sec.* II.) almost the same numbers die every year from 20 years of age to 77. After this indeed, fewer die, and the rate of decrease in the probabilities of life is retarded. But this deviation from the hypothesis is inconsiderable; and its effect, in the present case, is to render the duration of survivorship longer than it would otherwise be. According to the London Table of Observations, the numbers dying every year begin to grow less at 50 years of age; and from hence to

extreme old age there is a constant retardation in the decrease of the probabilities of life. Upon the whole, therefore, it appears that, according to the Breslaw Table, and supposing no widows to marry, the number inquired after is somewhat greater than half the number of the society; but according to the London Table, a good deal greater. This, however, has been determined on the supposition that the husbands and wives are of equal ages, and that then there is an equal chance who shall die first. But in reality husbands are generally older than wives, and males have been found to die sooner than females, as appears incontrovertibly from several of the tables in Dr Price's *Treatise on Reversions*. It is therefore more than an equal chance that the husband will die before his wife. This will increase considerably the duration of survivorship on the part of the women, and consequently the number which we have been inquiring after. The marriage of widows will diminish this number, but not so much as the other causes will increase it. II. If the society comprehends in it from the first all the married people of all ages in any town, or among any class of people where the numbers always continue the same, the whole collective body of members will be at their greatest age at the time of the establishment of the society; and the number of widows left every year will at a medium be always the same. The number of widows will increase continually on the society, till as many die off every year as are added. This will not be till the whole collective body of widows are at their greatest age, or till there are among them the greatest possible number of the oldest widows; and therefore not till there has been time for an accession to the oldest widows from the youngest part. Let us, for the sake of greater precision, divide the whole medium of widows that come on every year into different classes according to their different ages, and suppose some to be left at 56 years of age, some at 46, some at 36, and some at 26. The widows, constantly in life together, derived from the first class, will come to their greatest age, and to a *maximum*, in 30 years, supposing, with M. de Moivre, 86 to be the utmost extent of life. The same will happen to the second class in 40 years, and to the third in 50 years. But the whole body composed of these classes will not come to a *maximum* till the same happens to the fourth or youngest class; that is, not till the end of 60 years. After this the affairs of the society will become stationary, and the number of annuitants upon it of all ages will keep always nearly the same. III. If a society begins with its complete number of members, but at the same time admits none above a particular age; if, for instance, it begins with 200 members all under 50, and afterwards limits itself to this number, and keeps it up by admitting every year, at all ages between 26 and 50, new members as old ones drop off; in this case, the period necessary to bring the *maximum* of annuitants will be just doubled. To determine the sum that every individual ought to pay in a single present payment, in order to entitle his widow to a certain annuity for her life, let us suppose the annuity 31. *per annum*, and the rate of interest four per cent. It is evident, that the value

value of such an expectation is different, according to the different ages of the purchasers, and the proportion of the age of the wife to that of the husband. Let us then suppose, that every person in such a society is of the same age with his wife, and that, one with another, all the members when they enter may be reckoned 40 years of age, as many entering above this age as below it. It has been demonstrated by M. de Moivre and Mr Simpson, that the value of an annuity on the joint continuance of any two lives, subtracted from the value of an annuity on the life in expectation, gives the true present value of annuity on what may happen to remain of the latter of the two lives after the other. (See ANNUITIES, *Sett. I. Table II. and Sett. II. Tables, III, IV, and V.*) In the present case, the value of the annuity to be enjoyed during the joint continuance of two lives, each 40, is by Table II. 9826, according to the probabilities of life in the Table of Observations, formed by Dr Halley from the bills of mortality of Breslaw in Silesia. The value of a single life 40 years of age, as given by M. de Moivre, agreeably to the same table is 1320; and the former subtracted from the latter, leaves 337, or the true number of years purchase, which ought to be paid for any given annuity, to be enjoyed by a person 40 years of age, provided he survives another person of the same age, interest being reckoned at four per cent *per annum*. The annuity, therefore, being 30l. the present value of it is 30 multiplied by 337, or 1011. 25. IV. If, instead of a single present payment, it is thought preferable to make annual payments during the marriage; what these annual payments ought to be is easily determined by finding what annual payments during two joint lives of given ages are equivalent to the value of the reversionary annuity in present money. Suppose, as before, that the joint lives are each 40, and the reversionary annuity 30l. *per annum*. An annual payment during the continuance of two such lives is worth (according to Table II.) 982 years purchase. The annual payment ought to be such as, being multiplied by 982, will produce 1011. the present value of the annuity in one payment. Divide then 1011 by 982, and 1013 the quotient will be the annual payment. This method of calculation supposes that the first annual payment is not to be made till the end of a year. If it is to be made immediately, the value of the joint lives will be increased one year's purchase; and, therefore, in order to find the annual payments required, the value of a present single payment must be divided by the value of the joint lives increased by unity. If the society prefer paying part of the value in a present single payment on admission, and the rest in annual payments; and if they fix these annual payments at a particular sum, the present single payment paid on admission is found by subtracting the value of the annual payment during the joint lives from the whole present value of the annuity in one payment. Suppose, for instance, the annual payments to be fixed at five guineas, the annuity to be 30l. the rate of interest four per cent, and the joint lives each 40: the value of the annuity in one present single payment is 1011. The value of

five guineas or 5.25 *per annum*, is (5.25 multiplied by 982 the value of the joint lives) 5155; which, subtracted from 1011. gives 495, the answer. V. If a society takes in all the marriages among persons of a particular profession within a given district, and subjects them for perpetuity to a certain equal and common tax or annual payments, in order to provide life annuities for all the widows that shall result from these marriages; since, at the commencement of such an establishment, all the oldest, as well as the youngest, marriages are to be entitled equally to the proposed benefit, a much greater number of annuitants will come immediately upon it than would come upon any similar establishment which limited itself in the admission of members to persons not exceeding a given age. This will check that accumulation of money which should take place at first, in order to produce an income equal to the disbursement at the time when the number of annuitants comes to a *maximum*; and therefore will be a particular burden upon the establishment in its infancy. For this some compensation must be provided; and the equitable method of providing it is, by levying fines at the beginning of the establishment on every member exceeding a given age, proportioned to the number of years which he has lived beyond that age. But if such fines cannot be levied, and, if every payment must be equal and common, whatever disparity there may be in the value of the expectations of different members, the fines must be reduced to one common one, answering as nearly as possible to the disadvantage, and payable by every member at the time when the establishment begins. After this, the establishment will be the same with one that takes upon it all at the time they marry; and the tax or annual payment of every member adequate to its support will be the annual payment during marriage due from persons who marry at the mean age at which, upon an average, all marriages may be considered as commencing. The fines to be paid at first are, for every particular member, the same with the difference between the value of the expectation to him at his present age, and what would have been its value to him had the scheme begun at the time he married. Or, they are, for the whole body of members, the difference between the value of the common expectation, to persons at the mean age of all married persons taken together as they exist in the world, and to persons at that age which is to be deemed their mean age when they marry. VI. Suppose we wish to know the present value of an annuity to be enjoyed by one life, for what may happen to remain of it beyond another life, after a given term; that is, provided both lives continue from the present time to the end of a given term of years; the method of calculating is this; Find the value of the annuity for two lives, greater by the given term of years than the given lives; discount this value for the given term; and then multiply by the probability, that the two given lives shall both continue the given term; and the product will be the answer. Thus, let the two lives be each 30, the term seven years, the annuity 10l. interest for four per cent. The given lives, increased by seven years, become each 37. The value of two joint lives, each 37, is (by

TABLE I. SHOWING THE PRESENT VALUE OF AN ANNUITY OF £1. ON A SINGLE LIFE, according to M. DE MOIVRE'S HYPOTHESIS.

Age	3	4	4½	5	6
8	19731618	16016791	15395145544	13790	
9	8888	269	882	767	839
10	888	269	882	607	839
11	19731618	16791	15395145544	13790	
12	604	049	698	480	741
13	46917137	604	437	412	691
14	331	823	568	356	342
15	192	707	410	273	271
16	050	588	311	189	197
17	18905	467	209	102	133
18	759	344	105	047	419
19	610	220	15909149025	33970	361
20	458	092	891	831	891
21	18305	16964	1578114737	13810	1239
22	148	830	669	641	727
23	17990	696	554	543	642
24	827	559	437	442	555
25	664	419	318	340	46611978
26	497	279	197	235	335
27	327	733	073	128	317
28	354159851	046	018	186	763
29	16979	813	81613907	088	888
30					
31					
32					
33					
34					
35					
36					
37					
38					
39					
40					
41					
42					
43					
44					
45					
46					
47					
48					
49					
50					
51					
52					
53					
54					
55					
56					
57					
58					
59					
60					
61					
62					
63					
64					
65					
66					
67					
68					
69					
70					
71					
72					
73					
74					
75					
76					
77					
78					
79					
80					
81					
82					
83					
84					
85					

TABLE II. SHOWING THE VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES ACCORDING TO M. DE MOIVRE'S HYPOTHESIS.

Age	Value	Value	Value
Of	at 3	at 4	at 5
Yr	per Ctr	per Ctr	per Ctr
Ent			
10	15.206	13.322	11.855
15	14.878	10.93	9.661
20	15.03	12.808	14.30
25	17.4	14.80	18.21
30	13.385	10.208	8.84
35	10.51	11.665	5.37
40	12.381	15.6	12.8
45	11.664	10.564	9.646
50	10.766	9.871	0.74
55	9.822	0.59	8.391
60	8.105	7.752	7.572
65	7.417	6.980	6.585
70	5.936	5.652	5.391
15	14.574	12.680	11.778
20	12.25	5.93	3.66
25	13.822	1.87	0.21
30	13.9	11.91	10.736
35	12.824	5.01	4.02
40	12.07	0.13	0.08
45	11.406	0.140	9.541
50	10.675	9.767	8.985
55	9.725	8.975	3.18
60	8.652	0.41	7.515
65	7.727	6.934	6.545
70	5.942	5.159	4.965
55	7.849	7.332	6.887
60	7.220	6.781	6.371
65	6.579	0.36	5.724
70	5.501	5.03	4.823
60	6.737	6.351	6.000
65	6.043	5.730	5.444
70	5.081	4.858	4.653
65	5.547	5.033	4.703
70	4.773	4.571	4.382
70	4.270	4.104	3.925

TABLE III. SHOWING THE VALUES OF ANNUITIES ON SINGLE LIVES among MALES and FEMALES according to the PROBABILITIES of the DURATION of LIFE in the KINGDOM of SWEDEN.

		MALES			FEMALES			LIVING IN 1960		
		4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	4p.CiSp.Ci	
1	156.5	74.01	16.84	14.371	16.661	14.716	96.06			
2	217.353	7.081	17.719	5.34	17.537					
3	93.5	15.279	18.344	5.71	18.139	14.455				
4	182.28	6.24	7.60	9.51	5.54	7.972	14.55			
5	5.203	7.86	9.77	10.088	7.15	9.777				
6	6.12	9.01	9.945	2.03	8.33	16.032				
7	6.93	9.77	1.31	2.91	9.12	1.84				
8	7.23	16.01	7.02	3.35	9.43	7.18				
9	7.15	9.30	1.51	3.43	9.33	1.86				
10	6.74	1.14	1.09	3.25	8.91	1.69				
11	6.00	15.970	0.21	1.86	8.20					
12	4.91	8.66	8.92	2.19	7.21	6.21				
13	3.78	8.19	8.66	1.53	6.69	15.986				
14	2.46	7.49	7.07	0.59	4.77	8.91				
15	1.88	1.05	6.54	5.68	15.960	3.36				
16	1.79	9.58	5.17	4.24	8.56	1.91	18.66			
17	8.03	4.04	2.95	7.01	0.46	5.83				
18	16.43	2.85	1.51	6.61	15.787	4.73	13.5			
19	1.92	1.15	0.53	3.35	7.52	3.69				
20	3.35	0.59	17.872	4.61	6.05	2.60				
21	1.92	14.925	7.25	3.56	4.45	1.55				
22	0.42	8.46	5.73	2.45	3.07	0.45				
23	16.887	7.22	4.14	1.29	15.014	9.90				
24	7.42	6.57	3.52	0.99	16.997	8.18				
25	7.02	5.15	18.81	14.886	8.30	7.97				
26	4.76	5.03	6.99	0.51	6.49	5.6				
27	8.4	4.3	5.59	4.80	5.16	4.49				
28	8.5	3.71	3.06	5.54	4.76	4.61				
29	8.6	2.81	2.22	5.18	4.65	3.99				
30	8.7	1.54	2.03	4.31	3.65	2.92				
31	8.8	1.953	1.912	2.94	2.16	2.24				
32	8.9	6.98	6.64	1.08	8.59	1.903	1.86			
33	9.0	4.47	3.9	1.873	1.833	6.45	1.61			
34	9.1	1.14	1.36	6.28	3.96	3.91	3.61			
35	9.2	0.815	0.824	3.49	3.35	0.92	0.7			
36	9.3	0.417	0.471	0.71	0.54	0.774	0.71			
37	9.4	0.240	0.218	0.799	0.728	0.519	0.71			
38	9.5	0.004	0.000	0.444	0.317					
39	9.6	0.000	0.000	0.110	0.117					

The head of this leaf to face page 8

TO THE BINDER.

TABLE IV. SHOWING THE VALUE OF ANNUITIES ON TWO JOINT LIVES, ACCORDING TO THE PROBABILITIES OF THE DURA-

[illegible]

TABLE II.) 10'25. The value of a single life at 37 is (by the table under the article ANNUITIES,) 13'67. The former subtracted from the latter is 3'42, or the value of an annuity for the life of a person 37 years of age, after another of the same age, as has been shown above: 3'42 discounted for seven years (that is, multiplied by 0'76 the value of 1l. due at the end of seven years) is 2'6. The probability that a single life at 30 shall continue 7 years is $\frac{1}{2}$. The probability, therefore, that two such lives shall continue 7 years, is $\frac{1}{4}$, or in decimals 0'25; and 2'6 multiplied by 0'25 is 1'989, the number of years purchase which ought to be given for an annuity to be enjoyed by a life now 30 years of age, after a life of the same age, provided both continue seven years. The annuity then being 10l. its present value is 19'89l. Suppose the value is required of an annuity to be enjoyed for what may happen to remain of one life after another, provided the life in expectation continues a given time. 1. Find the present value of the annuity for the remainder of the life in expectation after the given time, which is done in this manner: Multiply the present value of the life at the given time by the present value of 1l. to be received at that time, and multiply the product again by the probability that the life in expectation will continue so long. Let the given time which the life in expectation is to continue be 15 years, and let the person then be arrived at 50 years of age. A life at fifty, according to M. de Moivre's valuation of lives, and reckoning interest at 4 per cent. is worth 11'34 years purchase. The present value of 1l. to be received at the end of 15 years, is 0'553, and the probability that a life at 35 will continue 15 years is $\frac{1}{4}$. These three values multiplied into one another give 4'44l. for the present value of the life in expectation. 2. Find the value of the reversion, provided both lives continue the given time, by the rule given above. 3. Add these values together, and the sum will be the answer in a single present payment. We shall now illustrate this rule by an example. An annuity of 10l. for the life of a person now 30, is to commence at the end of 11 years, if another person now 40 should be then dead; or, if this should not happen at the end of any year beyond 11 years in which the former shall happen to survive the latter: What is the present value of such an annuity, reckoning interest at four per cent. and taking the probabilities of life as they are in Dr Halley's table, given in the article MORTALITY? The value of 10l. *per annum*, for the remainder of the life of a person now 30, after 11 years is 169'43. The probability that a person 40 years of age shall live 11 years, is, by Dr Halley's table, $\frac{1}{4}$. The probability, therefore, that he will die in 11 years, is $\frac{1}{4}$ subtracted from unity $\frac{3}{4}$, or $\frac{3}{4}$; which multiplied by 169'43, gives l. 17'16. — The value of the reversion, provided both live 11 years, is 17l. and this value added to the for-

mer, makes l. 34'16 the value required in a single present payment; which payment, divided by l. 11'43, the value of two joint lives, aged 30 and 40, with unity added, gives 3l.; or the value required in annual payments during the joint lives, the first payment to be made immediately.

(3.) SURVIVORSHIP, TABLES FOR CALCULATING THE VALUE OF ANNUITIES IN. See *Preceded Leaf*.

(4.) SURVIVORSHIP, VALUATION OF LIVES IN.

The values of joint lives in these tables have been computed for only one rate of interest; and of single lives in Table III. for only two rates of interest. The following rules will show, that it would be a needless labour to compute these values (in strict conformity to the observations) for any other rates of interest. ACCOUNT of a method of deducing, from the correct values (according to any observation) of any single or joint lives at one rate of interest, the same values at other rates of interest. PRELIMINARY PROBLEMS. PROB. I. The expectation given of a single life by any table of observations, to find its value, supposing the decrements of life equal, at any given rate of interest. *Solution*. Find the value of an annuity certain for a number of years equal to twice the expectation. Multiply this value by the perpetuity increased by unity, and divide the product by twice the expectation: The quotient subtracted from the perpetuity will be the value required. *Example*. The expectation of a male life aged 10 by the Sweden observations, is 43'94. Twice this expectation is 87'88. The value of an annuity certain for 87'88 years is (reckoning interest at 4 per cent.) 24'200. The product of 24'200 into 26 (the perpetuity increased by unity) is 629'2, which divided by 87'88, gives 7'159. And this quotient subtracted from 25 (the perpetuity) gives 17'84 years purchase, the value of a life aged 10, deduced from the expectation of life at that age according to the Sweden observations. (See the tables in Dr Price on *Reversions*, vol. iii.) PROB. II. Having the expectations given of any two lives by any table of observations, to decide from thence the value of the joint lives at any rate of interest, supposing an equal decrement of life. *Solution*. Find the difference between twice the expectation of the youngest life and twice the expectation of the oldest life increased by unity and twice the perpetuity. Multiply this difference by the value of an annuity certain for a time equal to twice the expectation of the oldest life; and by twice the same expectation divide the product, reserving the quotient. From twice the perpetuity subtract the reserved quotient, and multiply the remainder by the perpetuity increased by unity. This last product, divided by twice the expectation of the youngest life and then subtracted from the perpetuity, will be the required value. When twice the expectation of the youngest life is greater than twice the expectation of the oldest life

increased

VOL. XXII. PART I.

† The probability that a given life shall continue any number of years, or reach a given age, is (as is well known) the fraction, whose numerator is the number of the living in any table of observations opposite to the given age, and denominator, the number opposite to the present age of the given life.

‡ For the difference between unity and the fraction expressing the probability that an event will happen, gives the probability that it will not happen.

created by unity, and twice the perpetuity the reserved quotient, instead of being subtracted from twice the perpetuity, must be added to it, and the sum, not the difference, multiplied by the perpetuity increased by unity. *Example.* Let the joint lives proposed be a female life aged 10, and a male life aged 15; and let the table of observations be the Sweden table for lives in general, and the rate of interest 4 per cent. Twice the expectations of the two lives are 90'14 and 83'28. Twice the expectation of the oldest life, increased by unity, and twice the perpetuity, is 134'28, which lessens by 90'14 (twice the expectation of the youngest life), leaves 44'14 for the reserved remainder. This remainder multiplied by 24'045 (the value of an annuity certain for 83.28 years), and the product divided by 83'28 (twice the expectation of the oldest life), gives 12'744, the quotient to be reserved; which subtracted from double the perpetuity, and the remainder (or 37'555) multiplied by the perpetuity increased by unity (or by 26) gives 968.630, which divided by 90'14 (twice the expectation of the youngest life) and the quotient subtracted from the perpetuity, we have 14'254 for the required value. The value of an annuity certain, when the number of years is a whole number with a fraction added (as will be commonly the case) may be best computed in the following manner. In this example the number of years is 83'28. The value of an annuity certain for 83 years is 24'035. The same value for 84 years is 24'072. The difference between these two values is 0'37; which difference multiplied by '28 (the fractional part of the number of years), and the product (0'103) added to the least of the two values, will give 24'045 the value for 83'28 years. *General Rule.* Call the correct value (supposed to be computed for any rate of interest) the first value. Call the value deduced (by the preceding problems) from the expectations at the same rate of interest, the second value. Call the value deduced from the expectations for any other rate of interest the third value. Then the difference between the first and second values added to or subtracted from the third value, just as the first is greater or less than the second, will be the value at the rate of interest for which the third value has been deduced from the expectations. The following examples will make this perfectly plain. *Example I.* In the two last tables the correct values are given of two joint lives among mankind at large, without distinguishing between males and females, according to the Sweden observations, reckoning the interest at 4 per cent. Let it be required to find from these values the values at 3 per cent. and let the ages of the joint lives be supposed 10 and 10. The correct value, table IV. (reckoning interest at 4 per cent.), is 16'141. The expectation of a life aged 10 is 45'07. The value deduced from this expectation at 4 per cent. by Prob. II. is 14'539. The value deduced by the same problem from the same expectation at 3 per cent. is 16'808. The difference between the first and second values is 1'602, which, added to the third value (the first being greater than the second), makes 18'410, the value required. *Example II.* Let the value be required of a single male life aged 10, at 3 per cent. interest,

from the correct value at 4 per cent. according to the Sweden observations. First, or correct value, at 4 per cent. (by table III.) is 18'674. The expectation of a male life aged 10 is 43'94. The second value (or the value deduced from this expectation by problem I.) is 17'838. The 3d value (or the value deduced from the same expectation at 3 per cent.) is 21'177. The difference between the first and second is '836; which (since the first is greater than the second) must be added to the third; and the sum (that is, 21'113) will be the value required. The third value, at 5 per cent. is 15'286; and the difference added to 15'286 makes 16'112 the value of a male life aged 10 at 5 per cent. according to the Sweden observations. The exact value at 5 per cent. is (by table III.) 16'014. Again: The difference between 16'014 (the correct value at 5 per cent.) and 15'286 (the value at the same interest deduced from the expectation), is '728; which, added (because the first value is greater than the second) to 13'335 (the value deduced at 6 per cent. from the expectation) gives 14'063, the value of the same life, reckoning interest at 6 per cent. These deductions, in the case of single lives particularly, are so easy, and give the true values so nearly, that it will be scarcely ever necessary to calculate the exact values (according to any given observations) for more than one rate of interest. If, for instance, the correct values are computed at 4 per cent. according to the observations, the values at 3, 3½, 4½, 5, 6, 7 or 8 per cent. may be deduced from them by the preceding rules as occasion may require, without much labour or any danger of considerable errors. The values thus deduced will seldom differ from the true values so much as a tenth of a year's purchase. They will not generally differ more than a 20th or 30th of a year's purchase. In joint lives they will differ less than in single lives, and they will come equally near to one another whatever the rates of interest are. The preceding tables furnish the means of determining the exact differences between the values of annuities, as they are made to depend on the survivorship of any male or female lives; which hitherto has been a desideratum of considerable consequence in the doctrine of life-annuities. What has made this of consequence is chiefly the multitude of societies lately established in this and foreign countries for providing annuities for widows. The general rule for calculating from these tables the value of such annuities is the following. *Rule.* "Find in table III. the value of a female life at the age of the wife. From this value subtract the value in table IV. of the joint continuance of two lives at the ages of the husband and wife. The remainder will be the value in a single present payment of an annuity for the life of the wife should she be left a widow. And this last value divided by the value of the joint lives increased by unity, will be the value of the same annuity in annual payments during the joint lives, and to commence immediately." *Example.* Let the age of the wife be 24, and of the husband 30. The value in table III. (reckoning interest at 4 per cent.) of a female life aged 24, is 17'252. The value in table IV. of two joint lives aged 24 and 30, is 13'453; which

which subtracted from 17,252 leaves 3,797, the value in a single present payment of an annuity of £1. for the life of the wife after the husband; that is, for the life of the widow. The annuity, therefore, being supposed 20l. its value in a single payment is 20 multiplied by 3,797, that is, 75,941. And this last value divided by 14,455 (that is, by the value of the joint lives increased by unity), gives 5.25, the value in annual payments beginning immediately, and to be continued during the joint lives of an annuity of 20l. to a wife aged 24 for her life, after her husband aged 30.

SURUNGA, or **SUISJU**, a sea-port town of Japan, in the life of Nippon, and capital of a province so named; 170 miles E. of Meaco.

SURWILISKI, a town of Lithuania, in the late palatinate of Wilna, now annexed to Prussia; 36 miles SSE. of Wilna.

(1.) **SURY**, or **SURY EN VAUX**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cher: 3 miles N. of Sancerre, and 12 NE. of Henrichmont.

(2.) **SURY LE COMTAL**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Rhone and Loire: 6 miles SE. of Montbrison, and 12 NW. of St Etienne. Lon. 21. 51. E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 32. N.

SURYA, the orb of the sun personified and adored by a sect of Hindoos as a god, like the *Phœbus* of Greece and Rome. The sect who pay him particular adoration are called *Sauras*. Their poets and painters describe his car as drawn by seven green horses, preceded by *Arjūn*, or the *Dawn*, who acts as his charioteer, and followed by thousands of genii worshipping him and modulating his praises. He has a multitude of names, and among them 12 epithets or titles, which denote his distinct powers in each of the 12 months; and he is believed to have descended frequently from his car in a human shape, and to have left a race on earth, who are equally renowned in the Indian stories with the *Heliada* of Greece: it is very singular, that his two sons called *Aswinin* and *Aswinimmarau*, in the dual, should be considered as twin-brothers, and painted like *Castor* and *Pollux*; but they have each the character of *JEsculapius* among the gods, and are believed to have been born of a nymph, who, in the form of a mare, was impregnated with sunbeams.

SURZEE, a town of Switzerland in Lucern, near lake Sempach, 3 miles S. of Lucern.

SURZUR, a town of France, in the department of Morbihan; 6 miles SE. of Vannes.

(1.) **SUS**, or **SUZ**, or **Sous**, in geography, a province of Africa, belonging to Morocco; bounded on the N. by mount Atlas; E. by *Gesula*; S. by the sands of Numidia and *Sus*; and W. by the Ocean. It is a level fertile country, abounding in corn, sugar-canes, dates, &c. In the mountains the inhabitants are free and governed by their own chiefs, or *scheiks*. **TAKODANT** is the capital. (*Brookes*.) But the rev. C. Cruttwell makes *Darab* its boundary on the E. and *Nus* on the S. He adds, that *Aguadir*, *TOMA*, *TECENT*, and *MESSA*, are also among its chief towns.

(II) **SUS**, **SUZ**, or **Sous**, a river of Africa, which rises from Mount Atlas, in the empire of Moroc-

co, bounds the above province, to which it gives name, on the S. and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, near Santa Cruz.

(III.) **Sus**, the *Hog*, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the class of *mammalia* and order of *bellua*. There are four cutting teeth in the upper jaw, whose points converge; and, for the most part, six in the lower jaw, which stand forwards. There are two tusks in each jaw, those in the upper jaw being short, while those of the under jaw are long, and extend out of the mouth. The snout is prominent, moveable, and has the appearance of having been cut off, or truncated. The feet are armed with divided or cloven hoofs. There are six species:

1. **SUS ÆTHIOPICUS**, the *Engallo*, or *Ethiopian hog*, has no fore teeth, but small tusks in the lower jaw, very large ones in the upper, in old boars bending towards the forehead in form of a semicircle: nose broad, depressed, and almost of a horny hardness: head very large and broad: beneath each eye a hollow, formed of loose skin, very soft and wrinkled; under these a great lobe or wattle, lying almost horizontal, broad, flat, and rounded at the end, placed so as to intercept the view of any thing below from the animal. Between these and the mouth on each side, there is a hard callous protuberance. The mouth is small: skin dusky: bristles disposed in fasciculi, of about five each; longest between the ears and on the beginning of the back, thinly disposed on the rest of the back. Ears large and sharp pointed, inside lined with long whitish hairs: tail slender and flat, not reaching lower than the thighs, and is covered with hairs disposed in fasciculi. Body longer, and legs shorter, than in the common swine: its whole length 4 feet 9 inches; height before, 2 feet 2 inches: but in a wild state, it grows to an enormous size. These animals inhabit the hottest parts of Africa, from Senegal to Congo, also the island of Madagascar. They are very fierce, active and swift; they will not breed with the domestic sow. They burrow under ground, into which they dig with surprising expedition. Buffon confounds this with the African.

2. **SUS AFRICANUS**, the *African hog*, has only 2 fore teeth in the upper jaw, and 6 in the lower; on each side 6 grinders. The body is covered with very long and fine bristles; the tail reaches to the first joint of the hind leg; is very slender, and ends in a large tuft: the head is long; nose slender; the upper jaw extending far beyond the lower; the ears narrow, erect and pointed, with very long bristles at the end. They inhabit Africa, from Cape Verd to the Cape of Good Hope.

3. **SUS BABYRUSSA**, the *Indian hog*, has 4 cutting teeth in the upper, six in the lower jaw; ten grinders to each jaw; in the lower jaw two tusks pointing towards the eyes, and standing near 8 inches out of their sockets; from two sockets on the outside of the upper jaw two other teeth, 12 inches long, bending like horns, their ends almost touching the forehead: ears small, erect, sharp-pointed; along the back are some weak bristles; on the rest of the body only a sort of wool, such as is on lambs: the tail long, ends in a tuft, and is often twisted: the body plump and square.

square. It inhabits Buero, a small isle near Amboyna; is also found in Celebes, but neither on the continent of Asia or Africa. They are sometimes kept tame in the Indian isles; live in herds; have a very quick scent; feed on herbs and leaves of trees; never ravage gardens like other swine; their flesh well tasted. When pursued and driven to extremities, they rush into the sea, swim very well, and even dive, and pass thus from isle to isle. In the forests they often rest their heads, by hooking their upper tusks on some bough. The tusks, from their form, are useless in fight.

4. *SUS PORCUS, the Guinea hog*, has no bristles; the hinder part of the back is covered with long hairs; the tail is long and naked, and hangs down to the ground; the ears are longish and much pointed; the body is covered with short and shining red hairs. This species inhabits Guinea. There is a variety called the *Siamese hog*. Both are smaller than the common hog.

5. *SUS SCROFA, the common hog*, having the body covered with bristles; two large teeth above and below. There are four varieties:

i. *SUS SCROFA DOMESTICUS, the domestic hog*, has the ears long, sharp-pointed, and slouching; the colour generally white, sometimes mixed with other colours. In a tame state it is universal, except in the frigid zones, and in Kamtschatka, where the cold is very severe. Since its introduction into America by the Europeans, it abounds to excess in the hot and temperate parts. Of all quadrupeds, the hog is the most rude and brutal. All his habits are gross; all his appetites are impure; all his sensations are confined to a furious lust and a brutal gluttony. He devours indiscriminately every thing that comes in his way, even his own progeny the moment after their birth. This voraciousness seems to proceed from the perpetual cravings of his stomach, which is of an immoderate size; and the grossness of his appetites, it is probable, arises from the bluntness of his senses of taste and of feeling. The rudeness of the hair, the hardness of the skin, and the thickness of the fat, render these animals less sensible to blows. Mice have been known to lodge upon a hog's back, and to eat his skin and fat, without his showing any marks of feeling. The other senses of the hog are very good. It is well known to the hunters that the wild boar hears and smells at a great distance; for, to surprise him, they are obliged to watch him in silence during the night, and to place themselves opposite to the wind, that he may not perceive the smell, which never fails to make him turn back. The parts of this animal are finely adapted to its way of life. As its method of feeding is by turning up the earth with its nose for roots of different kinds, so it has a more prone form than other animals: a strong brawny neck; eyes small, and placed high in the head; a long front, nose callous and tough, and a quick sense of smelling to trace out its food. Its intestines have a strong resemblance to those of the human species. Notwithstanding its powers of motion, it is by nature stupid, inactive, and drowsy; much inclined to increase in fat, which is disposed in a different manner from that of other animals, and forms a regular coat over the whole body. It is restless at a change of weather,

and in high winds is so agitated as to run violently, screaming horribly at the same time: it is fond of wallowing in the dirt, either to cool its overheated body, or to destroy the lice, ticks, and other insects with which it is infested. Its diseases generally arise from foul feeding and intemperance; such as measles, imposthumes, and scrophula. These are best prevented by keeping the animals, as the ancients strongly recommended, very clean in their sties; allowing them air, exercise, and a sufficiency of water. Linnaeus observes, that its flesh is wholesome food for athletic constitutions, or those that use much exercise; but bad for such as lead a sedentary life: it is, however, of most universal use, and furnishes numberless materials for epicurism. The boar, or male, is chosen with great care, when intended for propagation; and is thus employed from the age of two to five years, and then either sold or fattened. The males not allotted to this use are castrated, sometimes at the age of six weeks, sometimes six months; and then fed to a great size either for sale or for use. Sows are kept for breed generally from one year old to seven, and are then fattened. They have commonly more grease on their intestines than hogs, these being fattest on their backs. Aristotle says, that hogs in general live 20 years; and adds, that both males and females are fertile till they arrive at 15. They can engender at 9 or 12 months; but it is better to restrain them till they be 18 months or two years. The first litter of the sow is not numerous; and, when only one year old, her pigs are weak, and even imperfect. She may be said to be in season at all times. Though impregnated, she solicits the approach of the male, which is an excess among animals; for almost every other species refuse the male after conception. The ardour of the sow, though almost perpetual, is however marked by paroxysms and immoderate movements, which always terminate by her wallowing in the mire. She, at the same time, emits a thick whitish fluid. She goes four months with young; brings forth in the beginning of the fifth; and soon after solicits the male, is impregnated a second time, and thus brings forth twice a-year. Only 8 or 9 of the litter are kept; the rest are sold. In 15 days, pigs are excellent food. The flesh of all the different species of swine, and at all ages, is a very substantial and agreeable aliment; and in their proper seasons, the different sorts of provisions thus supplied are all of them very saleable. The flesh was much more in favour with our ancestors than with us; though BRAWN has still many admirers, is made in the greatest perfection, and considered as a rarity peculiar to this country. PORK, though it might be wisely prohibited in some warm countries, is found equally nutritive and salutary here. As such it furnishes a very large proportion of that food which is vended in our markets. It takes salt better and keeps longer than the flesh of any other animal; and the consumption of it is prodigious when pickled or salted, more especially in our foreign garrisons and in the sea service. Our bacon is differently cured, so as to render it acceptable to all palates; and our hams are not at all inferior to those of other countries. Fresh pork sells nearly as dear as beef; the lard brings double

bie or triple the price; the blood, the intestines, the feet, and the tongue, are all prepared as food. The fat of the intestines and web, which differs from common lard, is employed for greasing axles of wheels, and for many other purposes. Sives are made of the skin; and brushes, pencils, &c. of the bristles. The dung is reputed next in value to that of sheep. Mr Worlidge proposes that swine should be turned into a close well paled, and planted with greens, pulse, and roots, on which they may feed, and by their trampling and their dung raise a great quantity of excellent soil. Mr Mortimer assures us that some, on poor light shallow land in Staffordshire, sow a small white pea, which they never reap, but turn in so many hogs to eat them as they think they will fat; and there they lie day and night, and their dung will so enrich the land, that it will bring a good sword upon it, and will graze many years afterwards. Our old husbandmen had an ill opinion of this dung, as supposing it bred weeds. In some places they wash with hogs dung for want of soap; which answers tolerably well, if the linen hangs long enough in the air to become thoroughly sweet. The snout of an old boar is the only part that is esteemed; but every part of the castrated and young boar, not exceeding one year fed, makes delicate eating. The pork of the domestic boar is worse than that of the wild boar; and it can only be rendered fit for eating by castration and fattening.

ii. *SUS SCROFA DOM. MONUNGULUS*, the *Single-boofed Hog*, has undivided hoofs on all the feet, and resembles the common kind in every thing else. They inhabit Upsal in Sweden and other places; and are mentioned by the ancients.

iii. *SUS SCROFA DOM. SINENSIS*, the *Chinese Hog*, has the back almost naked and the belly hanging down to the ground; the legs are short, and the tail short and pendulous. They are common in China, the islands in the Indian Ocean, and South Sea, and in New Guinea. They are cultivated in Europe, and are much more cleanly than the common hog; the flesh is whiter and more favoury.

iv. *SUS SCROFA FERUS*, the *Wild Hog*, is of a dark brinded colour, and beneath the bristles is a soft short hair; the ears short and a little rounded. It is found wild in most parts of Europe. In the forests of South America there are vast droves, which derive their origin from the European kind relapsed into a state of nature; and are what Mr Bancroft, in his history of Guiana, describes as a particular species by the name of *Warree*. They cannot bear excessive cold; inhabit wooded countries; and are very swift. In America they are useful by clearing the country of rattlesnakes, which they devour without danger. The external form of its body is very unwieldy: yet, by the strength of its tendons, the wild boar is enabled to fly from the hunters with amazing agility; the back toe on the feet of this animal prevents its slipping while it descends declivities, and must be of singular use when pursued. As to the age of these animals, it is said the life of the wild boar may be extended to 25 or 30 years. The flesh of the wild boar was esteemed a great delicacy by the ancient Romans. The wild sow, which every

way resembles the domestic kind, produces only once a year. This difference in fertility is probably owing to want of nourishment, and the necessity of suckling her pigs much longer than the domestic sow, which is never allowed to nurse her young above 15 days or three weeks. The wild boar was formerly a native of England, as appears from the laws of Hoel Dha, who permitted his grand huntsman to chase that animal from the middle of November to the beginning of December. William I. punished with the loss of their eyes any that were convicted of killing the wild boar, the stag, or the roebuck; and Fitz Stephen tells us, that the vast forest that in his time grew on the N. side of London, was the retreat of stags, fallow-deer, wild boars, and bulls. Charles I. turned out wild boars in the New Forest, Hampshire, but they were destroyed in the civil wars. On the continent the wild boar is hunted with dogs, or killed by surprise during the night, when the moon shines. As he runs slowly, leaves a strong odour behind him, and defends himself against the dogs, and often wounds them dangerously, fine hunting dogs are unnecessary, and would have their nose spoiled, and acquire a habit of moving slowly by hunting him. Mastiffs, with very little training, are sufficient. The oldest, which are known by the tract of their feet, should only be attacked: A young boar of three years old is difficult to hunt down; because he runs very far without stopping. But the older boars do not run far, allow the dogs to run near, and often stop to repel them. During the day, he commonly remains in his soil, which is in the most sequestered part of the woods. He comes out in the night in quest of food. In summer, when the grain is ripe, it is easy to surprize him among the cultivated fields, which he frequents every night. As soon as he is slain, the hunters cut off his testicles, the odour of which is so strong, that in a few hours it would infect the whole flesh. The ancients castrated the young boars which they could carry off from their mothers, and returned them to the woods, where they grew fat, and their pork was much better than that of domestic hogs.

6. *SUS TAJASSUS*, the *TAJASSU, PECARY, or Mexican Hog*, with 4 cutting teeth above, and six below; two tusks in each jaw; those in the upper jaw pointing down, and little apparent when the mouth is shut; the others hid: length from nose to the end of the rump about three feet: head not so taper as in common swine: ears short and erect: body covered with bristles, stronger than those of the European kind, and more like those of a hedge hog; they are dusky, surrounded with rings of white; those on the top of the neck and back are near 5 inches long; shorter on the sides; the belly almost naked; from the shoulders to the breast is a band of white: no tail: on the lower part of the back is a gland, open at the top, discharging a fetid ichorous liquor; this has been by mistake called a *navel*.—Inhabits the hottest parts of South America, and some of the Antilles; lives in the forests on the mountains: is not fond of mire or marshy places: less fat than the common hog. These animals go in great droves. They are very fierce, and will fight stoutly with the beasts of prey: the jaguar, or American leopard, is their

mort; 1

mortal enemy; often the body of that animal is found with several of these hogs slain in combat. Dogs will scarce attack this animal; if wounded, it will turn on the hunters. They feed on fruits and roots; also on toads and all manner of serpents, which they hold with their fore-feet, and skin with great dexterity. The flesh is reckoned very good food; but all writers agree that the dorsal gland must be cut out as soon as the animal is killed, or the flesh will become so infected as not to be eatable. The Indian name of this species is *paquiras*, whence is derived that of *pecary*.

(1.) **SUSA**, or **SHUSHAN**, the ancient royal residence of the kings of Persia, built by Darius Hytaspis, according to Piny; though he probably only restored it, being a very ancient city, founded by **TITHONUS**, the father of Memnon. It was in compass 120 stadia, of an oblong quadrangular form, with a citadel called *Memnonium*. In Scripture it is called **SHUSHAN**, the royal citadel, from the great number of lilies growing in that district (*Athenus*); situate on the river U-lai or Euleus (*Daniel*): Sufa was the winter, as Eubatana was the summer residence of the kings of Persia. (*Xenophon, Strabo, Plutarch.*) Here the kings kept their treasure; and Alexander found immense riches in it. (*Herodotus.*) It is now called **SUSTER**.

(2.) **SUSA**, in modern geography, a strong town of the French empire, in the department of Doria, and late marquise of Sufa, with a fort, seated on the Doria, and called the *key of Italy*, as being the chief passage out of France into Italy. It has a triumphal arch, erected in honour of Augustus. It was taken by the French in 1690, but restored in 1696, again in 1704, but restored to the D. of Savoy in 1707. It was taken by the French republicans, on the 22d May, 1800. (See **SUZA**, N° 3.) It is 30 miles NW. of Turin, and 25 NE. of Brancion. Lon. 7. 24. E. Lat. 45. 20. N.

(3.) **SUSA**, a co-devant marquise of Piedmont, now included in the French empire, and department of Doria. **SUSA** was the capital. See **SUZA**, N° 2.

(4.) **SUSA**, or **SUZA**. See **SUZA**.

(5.) **SUSA**, a town of Persia, in Chorasán, 60 miles NNW. of Herat.

***SUSCEPTIBILITY**. *n. s.* [from *susceptible*] Quality of admitting; tendency to admit.—The *susceptibility* of those influences, is the general providential law whereby other physical beings are governed. *Hale*.

***SUSCEPTIBLE**. *adj.* [*susceptible*, Fr. *Prior* has accented this improperly on the first syllable.] Capable of admitting; disposed to admit.—He moulded him platonically to his own idea, because he found him *susceptible* of good form. *Wotton*.—In their tender years they are more *susceptible* of virtuous impressions than afterwards. *L'Estrange*.—Children's minds are narrow, and usually *susceptible* but of one thought at once. *Locke*.

Blow with empty words the *susceptible* flame.

***SUSCEPTION**. *n. s.* [*susceptus*, Latin.] Act of taking.—A canon, promoted to holy orders, before he is of a lawful age for the *susception* of orders, shall have a voice in the chapter. *Ayliffe*.

***SUSCEPTIVE**. *adj.* [from *susceptus*, Lat.] This word is more analogical, though less used than *susceptible*.] Capable to admit.—Since nature is *susceptive* of errors on all sides, it fit we should have notices given us how far other persons may become the causes of false judgment. *Watts*.

SUSCHANABAD, a town of Persia, in Mazanderan, 60 miles S. of Ferabad.

***SUSCIPENCY**. *n. s.* [from *suscipiens*.] Reception; admission.

***SUSCIPIENT**. *n. s.* [*suscipiens*, Lat.] One who takes; one that admits or receives.

***To SUSCITATE**. *v. n.* [*susciter*, French *suscito*, Lat.] To rouse; to excite.—It concurs but unto predisposed effects, and only *suscitate* those forms whose determinations are seminal. *Brown*.

***SUSCITATION**. *n. s.* [*suscitation*, Fr. from *suscitate*.] The act of rousing or exciting.

SUSDAL, a town of Russia, in Volodimir, capital of a duchy so named, with an archbishop's see; seated on the Khafma, 90 miles NE. of Moscow. Lon. 40. 25. E. Lat. 56. 26. N.

SUSELL, a town of Holstein; 8 miles ESE. of Euryu.

SUSIANA, or **CHUSISTAN**. See **CHUSISTAN**.

(1.) ***SUSPECT**. *part. adj.* [*suspect*, Fr.] Doubtful.—Sordid interests are not like to render your reports *suspect* or partial. *Glanville*.

***SUSPECT**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Suspicion; imagination without proof. *Obsolete*.—

Nefancy mine, no other wrong *suspect*. *Sidney*.

The fate of offices and towns in France, If they were known, as the *suspect* is great,

Would make thee quickly hop without a head. *Shak.*

My most worthy master, in whose breast Doubt and *suspect*, alas! are plac'd too late, You should have fear'd false times. *Shak.*—There be to many false prints of praise, that a man may justly hold a *suspect*. *Bacon*.—Nothing more jealous than a favourite towards the waining time and *suspect* of satiety. *Wotton*.—

They might hold sure intelligence Among themselves, without *suspect*. *Daniel*.—If the king ends the differences, and takes away the *suspect*. *Suckling*.

(1.) ***To SUSPECT**. *v. a.* [*suspicio*, *suspectrum*, Lat.] To imagine with a degree of fear and jealousy what is not known.—Nothing makes a man *suspect* much, more than to know little. *Baron*.

Let us not then *suspect* our happy state.

2. To imagine guilty without proof.—Many poets may *suspect* themselves for the partiality of parents to their youngest children. *Dryden*.—Some would persuade us that body and extension are the same thing, which change the signification of words, which I would not *suspect* them of. *Locke*. 3. To hold uncertain; to doubt.—I have no manner of reason to *suspect* the truth. *Addison*.

(2.) ***To SUSPECT**. *v. n.* To imagine guilt.—If I *suspect* what cause, let me be your jail. *Shak.* **SUSPENCE**. See **SUSPENSE**.

***To SUSPEND**. *v. a.* [*suspendre*, French; *suspendo*, Lat.] 1. To hang; to make to hang by any thing.—

*Twist

'Twixt two equal armies fate

4

Suspends uncertain victory.

Donne.

—It is reported by Ruffinus, that in the temple of Serapis there was an iron chariot *suspended* by loadstones; which stones removed, the chariot fell and was dashed to pieces. *Brown*. 2. To make to depend upon.—God hath in the scripture *suspended* the promise of eternal life upon this condition, obedience and holiness of life. *Tillotson*. 3. To interrupt; to make to stop for a time.—

The harmony

Suspended hell, and took with ravishment

The thronging audience.

The guard nor fights nor flies; their fate so near,

At once *suspends* their courage and their fear.

Denham.

Our love *suspended*, we neglect the fair

For whom we burn'd.

Granville.

4. To delay; to hinder from proceeding.—*Suspend* your indignation against my brother. *Shak.*—

Godfrey wisely did his grant *suspend*. *Fairfax*.

I *suspend* their doom.

Milton.

—The reasons for *suspending* the play were ill founded. *Dryden*.—This is the hinge on which turns the liberty of intellectual beings, that they can *suspend* this prosecution in particular cases. *Locke*. 5. To keep undetermined.—A man may *suspend* his choice from being determined for or against the thing proposed. *Locke*. 6. To debar for a time from the execution of an office or enjoyment of a revenue.—Good men should not be *suspended* from the exercise of their ministry. *Santerian*.—The bishop of London was summoned for not *suspending* Dr Sharp. *Swift*.

(1.) *SUSPENDED*, *part. adj.* [from *suspend*.] in medicine, stopt; interrupted: chiefly used of the vital functions.

(2.) *SUSPENDED ANIMATION*, that state of an animal in which all the functions of life are so completely stopt and interrupted, that it is hardly possible to discover any sign of life, or difference from a state of death; while yet the principle of life remains and is recoverable, if proper means be used. That swallows, marmots, and many other animals, fall into this torpid state naturally and annually, is a fact well known in natural history. (See *HIRUNDO*, N° 2. and 16; *MUS*, § III. N° 5—15; and *SWALLOW*.) The artificial *REVIVISCENCY* of three flies, too, by the celebrated Dr FRANKLIN, by exposing them to the rays of the sun, 17 months after they had been drowned in wine in France, is a fact equally well known. In the human species also there have occurred frequent cases of suspended animation, some of whom have been timeously recovered before interment; but many more, it is to be feared, have been allowed to perish, from the hurry and precipitation with which funerals are generally conducted in most countries. The discernible differences between the end of a weak life and the commencement of death are so small, and the uncertainty of the signs of the latter are so great, in all cases of syncope and suspended animation, as is acknowledged by the best medical writers ancient and modern, that too much caution cannot be observed in all such emergencies, nor too much

time spent in waiting for the *chance* of recovery, at least till the most indubitable signs of mortification appear on the corpse. But the best physicians say, that all the usual signs of death, except absolute *mortification*, are very uncertain. Coldness, stiffness, heaviness of the body, even a livid colour, or yellowness of the visage, does not assure dissolution. See *INTERMENT*, § 4—7.

(1.) * *SUSPENSE*. *adj.* [*suspensus*, Lat.] 1. Held from proceeding.—

Suspense in heav'n

Held by thy voice.

Milton.

2. Held in doubt; held in expectation.—The self-same orders allowed, but yet established in more wary and *suspense* manner. *Hooker*.—

This said, he sat: and expectation held

His looks *suspense*.

Milton.

(2.) * *SUSPENSE*. *n. s.* [*suspens*, Fr. *suspensus*, Lat.] 1. Uncertainty; delay of certainty or determination; indetermination.—Their good affection towards the church is acceptable; but the way they prescribe us to preserve it by must rest in *suspense*. *Hooker*.—

Such true joy's *suspense*

What dream can I pretend to recompense?

Waller.

Ten days the prophet in *suspense* remain'd.

Denham.

2. Act of withholding the judgment.—In propositions where there are proofs as considerable on the contrary side, *suspense* or dissent are often voluntary. *Locke*.—Whatever necessity determines to the pursuit of real bliss, the same necessity establishes *suspense*, deliberation, and scrutiny. *Locke*. 3. Stop in the midst of two opposites.—

A cool *suspense* from pleasure or from pain.

Pope.

(3.) *SUSPENSE*, in music. See *SUSPENSION*, § 3.

(1.) * *SUSPENSION*. *n. s.* [*suspension*, French; from *suspend*.] 1. Act of making to hang on any thing. 2. Act of making to depend on any thing. 3. Act of delaying.—

With thousand vows and tears we should have fought

That sad decree *suspension* to have wrought.

4. Act of withholding or balancing the judgment.—In his Indian relations, wherein are contained incredible accounts, he is surely to be read with *suspension*. *Brown*.—The mode of the will, which answers to dubitation, may be called *suspension*. *Grew*. 5. Interruption; temporary cessation.—Nor was any thing done for the better adjusting things in the time of that *suspension*. *Clarendon*. 6. Temporary privation of an office; as, the clerk incurred *suspension*.

(2.) *SUSPENSION*, in Scots law. See *LAW*, Part III. Ch. III. Sect. III. § 5.

(3.) *SUSPENSION*, or *SUSPENSE*, in music, is produced by *Supposition*, and is nearly the same. (See *SUPPOSITION*, § 2.) It consists in retaining as many as possible of the sounds in a preceding chord that they may be heard in that which succeeds.

(1.) * *SUSPENSORY*. *adj.* [*suspensoire*, Fr. *suspensus*, Lat.] That by which a thing hangs.—There are several parts peculiar to brutes which are

are wanting in man, as the seventh or *suspensory* muscle of the eye. *Roy.*

(2.) SUSPENSORY BAG. See SURGERY, *Index.*

* SUSPICION. *n. s.* [*suspicion*, Fr. *suspicio*, Lat.] The act of suspecting; imagination of something ill without proof.—This *suspicion* Miso for the hoggish shrewdness of her brain, and Mopsa for a very unlikely envy, stumbled upon. *Sidney.*—*Suspicious* amongst thoughts are like bats amongst birds, they ever fly by twilight. *Bacon.*—*Suspicion* all our lives shall be stuck full of eyes. *Shak.*

Though wisdom wake, *suspicion* sleeps

At wisdom's gate. *Milton.*

* SUSPICIOUS. *adj.* [*suspiciosus*, Lat.] 1. Inclined to suspect; inclined to imagine ill without proof.—Nature itself, after it has done an injury, will for ever be *suspicious*. *South.* 2. Indicating suspicion or fear.—A wife man will find us to be rogues by our faces; we have a *suspicious*, fearful, constrained countenance. *Swift.* 3. Liable to suspicion; giving reason to imagine ill.—They were exceeding forward to traduce him as an author of *suspicious* innovations. *Hooker.*

I spy a black *suspicious* threat'ning cloud.

Shak.

—Authors are *suspicious*, nor greedily to be swallowed, who pretend to deliver antipathies, sympathies, and the occult abstrusities of things. *Brown.*

Private, unactive, calm, contemplative,

Little *suspicious* to any king. *Milton.*

—Many mischievous insects are daily at work, to make people of merit *suspicious* of each other. *Pope.*

* SUSPICIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *suspicious*.] 1. With suspicion. 2. So as to raise suspicion.—His guard entering the place, found Plangus with his sword in his hand, but not naked, but standing *suspiciously* enough. *Sidney.*

* SUSPICIOUSNESS. *n. s.* [from *suspicious*.] Tendency to suspicion.—To make my estate known seemed impossible, by reason of the *suspiciousness* of Miso. *Sidney.*

* SUSPIRATION. *n. s.* [*suspiratio*, from *suspiro*, Lat.] Sigh; act of fetching the breath deep.—

Not customary suits of solemn black,

Nor windy *suspiration* of forc'd breath. *Shak.*

—In deep *suspirations* we take more large gulps of air to cool our heart, overcharged with love or sorrow. *More.*

* To SUSPIRE. *v. v.* [*suspiro*, Latin.] 1. To sigh; to fetch the breath deep. 2. It seems in *Shakespeare* to mean only to begin to breathe; perhaps mistaken for *respire*.—

Since the birth of Cain, the first male child,

To him that did but yesterday *suspire*,

There was not such a gracious creature born.

Shak.

SUSQUEHANNAH, the largest river of Pennsylvania, formed by the junction of the E. and W. branches of Lake Osego. It is navigable for five miles above its mouth, by vessels of 200 tons. It crosses the line of division between New York and Pennsylvania three times in a S. by W. course; then at the W. end of Peter's Mountain turns S. by E. into Maryland; and after dividing York and Lancaster counties, falls into Chesapeake Bay by a mouth $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles wide. It receives the Swatara,

and is connected with the SCHUYLKILL by a canal 80 miles long. See SWATARA.

SUSSAC, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Vienne; 15 miles SE. of Limoges.

SUSSETH, a town of Germany, in Croatia seated on the Sultz.

(1.) SUSSEX, a county of England, so named from its situation in respect of the other Saxons and called *Suffex*, i. e. the country of the South Saxons. It is bounded by Hampshire on the W. the British channel on the S. Surry on the N. and Kent on the E. It is 65 miles long, 30 broad, and 170 in circumference. It is divided into 6 *rapes*, and these into 65 hundreds, in which are 342 parishes of which 123 are vicarages, one city, 16 market towns, 1,140,000 acres, and about 120,000 souls. No return was made to parliament of its population in 1801; but the cattle were enumerated and amounted to 60,885 black cattle, and 549,997 sheep, deer, goats, and pigs. It has few good ports, though it lies along the channel for 6 miles, which is its greatest length, the coast being encumbered in many places with rocks; and where it is more open, such quantities of sand are thrown upon it by the south-west winds, and the harbours so choked up, that they will not admit vessels of any great draught or burden. The county is well watered by the rivers Arun, Adur, Ouse, Rother, Lavant, Cuckmere, Alburn, and Alton, which all rise and fall into the sea within the county, and by which it is well supplied with fish, as well as from the sea. Hence different places of the county are famed for different sort of fish; as the Arun for mullets, which enter it from the sea in summer in shoals, and by feeding upon a particular kind of herb become extremely delicious; Chichester for lobsters, Selsey for cockles, Amberley for trouts, Pulborough for eels, Rye for herrings, and the county in general for carp. The air, as well as the soil, is various in different parts of the county. Upon the coast the air is agreeable, upon the hills and downs pleasant and wholesome; but somewhat moist and foggy in the valleys, the soil being deep and rich, and the vegetation in summer very vigorous. The down in some places are very fertile in corn and grass; in others they feed great flocks of sheep, whose flesh and wool are very fine; but of the latter great quantity is clandestinely exported to France. In the Weald and the valleys the roads are very deep. In the north quarter are many woods, and some forests in other places; whence the king's yards are supplied with the largest and best timber in England, besides what is made into charcoal and consumed in the iron-works; for on the east side is plenty of iron ore, with furnaces, forges, and mills for manufacturing it. The gunpowder of this county excels that of any other. *Wheat* bred in this shire are no bigger than a lark, but almost an entire lump of fat. That part now called the *Wild* or *Weald* of Suffex was anciently a mere desert for hogs and deer, of great extent, taken in a part of Kent and Surry; and was called *Anderra Siroa*, *Coid Andred*, and *Andrafooth* from *Anderra*, an adjoining city. This county in the home circuit and diocese of Chichester, and sends 28 members to parliament, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Chichester, and two

each for Horsham, Lewes, Bramber, East Grinstead, Midhurst, Shoreham, Staining, Arundel, Hastings, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford; of which the four last are cinqueports.

(2.) SUSSEX, an extensive maritime county of the United States, in Delaware; bounded on the N. by Kent county, NE. by Delaware Bay, E. by the Atlantic; S. and W. by Maryland. It is nearly square, being 44 miles long, and 43 broad. In 1795, it contained 16,463, citizens, and 4025 slaves. The lands are mostly low, sandy and barren. GEORGETOWN is the capital.

(3.) SUSSEX, a large and mountainous county of New Jersey, 61 miles long, and 21 broad. It is bounded on the NE. by New York; SE. by Morris and Hunterdon counties; W. and N. by the Delaware, which separates it from Northampton county in Pennsylvania. It is divided into 11 townships; named Greenwich, Oxford, Mansfield, Knowlton, Sandyston, Wantage, Hardyston, Montague, Wallach, Newton, Independence, and Hardwicke. The population, in 1795, was 19,061 citizens, and 439 slaves. It abounds with mines of iron ore, and manufactures of pig and bar iron are carried on in it. Newton is the capital.

(4.) SUSSEX, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by Prince George's county, NE. by Surry, S. by Southampton, SW. by Dinwiddie, and W. by Greenville counties. It is 25 miles long, and 15 broad. In 1795, the total population was 10,554; consisting of 5167 citizens, and 5387 slaves. It has a court house, where the county meetings are held the 1st Thurs. of every month.

* TO SUSTAIN. *v. a.* [*soustenir*, Fr. *sustineo*, Lat.] 1. To bear; to prop; to hold up.—The largeness and lightness of her wings and tail *sustain* her without lassitude. *Morgan*.

Vain is the force of man,

To crush the pillars that the pile *sustain*. *Dryd.*
2. To support; to keep from sinking under evil.—The singular excellency of this design will *sustain* the patience and animate the industry of him who shall undertake it. *Holder*.—If he have no comfortable expectations of another life to *sustain* him under the evils in this world, he is of all creatures the most miserable. *Tillotson*. 3. To maintain; to keep.—

What food

Will he convey up thither to *sustain*

Himself and army?

Milton.

She the body doth *sustain* and cherish. *Davies*.

My labour will *sustain* me. *Milton*.

4. To help; to relieve: to assist.—They charged neither to entreat for him nor any way *sustain* him. *Shak.*

His sons who seek the tyrant to *sustain*,

He dooms to death.

Dryden's Æneid.

5. To bear; to endure.—

Can Cryx then *sustain* to leave his wife? *Dryd.*

Shall Turnus then such endless toil *sustain*.

Dryden.

—The mind stands collected within herself, and *sustains* the flock. *Addison*. 6. To bear without yielding.—

Such a liquor as no brain

That is mortal can *sustain*—

Waller.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

7. To suffer; to bear as inflicted.—

You shall *sustain* more new disgraces. *Shak.*

Were it I thought death menac'd would ensue

This my attempt, I would *sustain* alone

The worst, and not persuade thee. *Milton*.

* SUSTAINABLE. *adj.* [*sustainable*, Fr. from *sustain*.] That may be sustained.

* SUSTAINER, *n. f.* [from *sustain*.] 1. One that props; one that supports. 2. One that suffers; a sufferer.—

Thyself hast a *sustainer* been

Of much affliction in my cause. *Chapman*.

* SUSTENANCE. *n. f.* [*sustenance*, French.]

1. Support; maintenance.—Scarcely allowing himself fit *sustenance* of life. *Sidney*.—There are unto one endundry means; as for the *sustenance* of our bodies many kinds of food. *Hooker*.—Is then the honour of your daughter of greater moment to her, than to my daughter hers, whose *sustenance* it was? *Addison*. 2. Necessaries of life; victuals.—The experiment cost him his life for want of *sustenance*. *L'Estrange*.—The ancients were inventors of all arts necessary to life and *sustenance*. *Temple*.

* SUSTENTATION. *n. f.* [*sustentation*, Fr. from *sustento*, Lat.] 2. Support; preservation from falling.—These streams once raised above the earth, have their ascent and *sustentation* aloft promoted by the air. *Boyle*. 2. Use of victuals.—A very abstemious animal, by reason of its frigidity and latency in the winter, will long subsist without a visible *sustentation*. *Brown*. 3. Maintenance; support of life.—When there be great shoals of people, which go on to populate, without foreseeing means of life and *sustentation*; it is of necessity that once in an age they discharge a portion of their people upon other nations. *Bacon*.

SUSTER, an ancient city of Persia, the capital of Chusistan, anciently called *Susa*. (See *Susa*, N° 1.) It has manufactures of silks, stuffs, and rich cloths. It lies 105 miles SW. of Ispahan, or 22 Cruttwell says 150, and 100 N. of Bassora. Lon. 51. 19. E. Lat. 31. 15. N.

SUSTEREN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Roer, and late duchy of Juliers: 2 miles from the Maefe, and 12 S. of Ruremond. Lon. 5. 50. E. Lat. 50. 16. N.

SUSTERS, an island in the North Sea, on the coast of Norway; 12 miles SE. of Tonberg.

* SUSURRATION. *n. f.* [from *susurro*, Lat.] Whisper; soft murmur.

SUTAMOR. See SUTEMA.

SUTCLIFF, Matthew, an English divine, who flourished in the end of the 16th century. He became Dean of Exeter, and published several controversial Tracts; the chief of which is, *A Treatise on Ecclesiastical Discipline*. Lond. 1591; 4to.

* SUTE. *n. f.* [for *sute*.] Sort. I believe only misprinted.—This we conceive that they are not of one *sute*. *Hooker*.

SUTEMA, or SUTAMOR, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tomano.

SUTERRA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara; 6 miles NNE. of Girgenti.

SUTHAUSEN, a town of Osnaburg; 2 miles SSW. of Osnaburg.

(1.) SUTHERLAND, one of the most northerly counties

C

counties of Scotland. Including STRATHNAVERN, (which fee) it borders on Caithness on the N. and NE. is bounded by the ocean on the N. the county of Aylsh on the W. Ross on the S. and by the German sea on the E. and SE. It stretches about 70 miles in length, and 40 in breadth; is generally hilly, though in many parts arable; well watered by small rivers replete with fish, and by 66 lakes, the habitation of various fish, swans, ducks, geese, &c. One of the largest of these is *Loch Shin*. (See LOCHSWIN.) Some of them are interperfed with small verdant iflands, which in fummer yield a very agreeable prospect. On the coast are many commodious harbours; all the bays swarm with fish; and the mufcles produce fome valuable pearls. Sutherland affords iron-ftone, free-ftone, and flate in abundance; alfo quarries of marble, and mines of coal, though the people ufe turf and peat for fuel. Lead ore, impregnated with filver, and even fome gold, have been found, with cryftals and pebbles, &c. The air is fo temperate, and the foil fo good, that faffron has been brought to perfection. Many parts of the country are remarkably fruitful in corn, and the paffurage is excellent everywhere. Befides 3 great forefts, there are many fmaller woods in Sutherland, abounding with deer and other game. On the hills are fed numerous flocks of fheep and black cattle; fmall, yet fweet and juicy. There is one bird peculiar to this fhire, called *knag*, which refembles a parrot, and digs its neft with its beak in the trunks of oaks. The N. part, called *Strathnavern*, and feparated from the reft by a ridge of mountains, is bounded on the N. by the Deucalionian fea, on the W. by the channel called the *Minch*, on the E. by Caithness, and on the S. by Aylsh. The length of it, from E. to W. amounts to 34 miles; but the breadth from N. to S. does not exceed 12 in fome places. It is very hilly; and the mountains are fo high, that the fnow remains on the tops of them till mid-fummer. It is watered by NAVERN, whence its name. Here are feveral woods, frequented by deer and other game, which are hunted. Iron mines have been worked in fome places, but to no great advantage. Strathnavern has many frefh water lakes; the chief of which are Loch Naver and Loch Uyl: there are feveral iflands on the N. coast; and in the country are monuments of victories obtained over the Danes or other foreign invaders. Sutherland boasts of fome towns, and a great number of villages. The people are numerous, hardy, bold, and enterprifing; courteous to ftrangers, cheerful, open, frugal, and induftrious. They, as well as their neighbours of Caithness, fpeak the language, and wear the garb, ufed in the Lowlands of Scotland. They carry on a confiderable falmon-fifhery. They drive a traffic with their black cattle, fheep, and horfes, at the neighbouring fairs; but export their corn, barley, falt, coal, falmon, falted beef, butter, cheefe, wool, fkins, hides, and tallow. Here are provifions of all forts in plenty; and fo cheap through all this county, that a gentleman may keep houfe and live much more fumptuoufly for 200l. a year than for three times the money in the fouth of England.

(2.) SUTHERLAND POINT, the S. point of the entrance into Botany Bay; fo named from Forby Sutherland, one of Captain Cook's men, buried there in 1770.

SUTHERLANDSHIRE. See SUTHERLAND, N° 1.

SUTLER. *n. f.* [*foetler*, Dutch; *fudler*, German.] A man that fells provifions and liquer in a camp.—

I fhall *sutler* be

Unto the camp.

Send to the *sutler's*.

Shak.

Dryden.

SUTORS OF CROMARTY, two rocky promontories of Scotland, one on each fide of the opening of the Frith of CROMARTY.

SUTRI, a town of Italy, in Patrimonio, with a bifhop's fee; on the Puzzolo, furrrounded with rocks; 24 miles NW. of Rome. Lon. 12. 15. E. Lat. 42. 10. N. It was anciently called

SUTRIUM, a famous city, and an ancient colony of the Romans, the key of Etruria; founded about 7 years after the taking of Rome by the Gauls. (*Felleius*.)

SUTTEE, in Indian theology, the fixth and higheft heaven; the refidence of BRAMA. See GENTOOS.

SUTTICO, or SETRICO, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Woolly.

(1.) SUTTON, Thomas, Esq; founder of the Charter-houfe, was born at Knaith in Lincolnfhire, in 1532, of an ancient and genteel family. He was educated at Eton, and Cambridge, and ftudied the law in Lincoln's Inn; but preferred travelling, and during his abfence, his father died, and left him a large fortune. On his return, he became fecretary to the earl of Warwick, and his brother the earl of Leicester. By the former, in 1569, he was appointed mafter of the ordnance at Berwick; and diftinguifhing himfelf greatly on the rebellion which broke out in the north, he obtained a patent for that office for life. He was one of the chiefs of thofe 1500 men who marched into Scotland, by order of Q. Elizabeth, to affift the regent, Morton, in 1573. He purchafed the manors of Gatehead and Wickham; which, producing coal mines, became to him a fource of extraordinary wealth. Soon after this, he married a rich widow, who brought him a confiderable eftate; and commencing merchant, riches flowed in to him. He was likewise a commiffioner for prizes, and took a Spanifh fhip worth 20,000l. His whole fortune, at his death, was, in land 5000l. a year; in money above 60,000l.; the greateft eftate then in the poffeffion of any private gentleman. He lived with great munificence and hofpitality; but lofing his lady in 1602, he retired from the world, and having no ifue, he purchafed of the Early of Suffolk *Howard Houfe*, or the *Charter-houfe*, near Smithfield, for 15,000l. where he founded the prefent hofpital, in 1612, for the relief of poor men and children. He died Dec. 11, 1611, at Hackney, aged 79. His body was conveyed to Chrift-church, and there depofited, till 1614, when it was removed to the charter-houfe, and interred in the chapel under a magnificent tomb.

(2.) SUTTON, Samuel, was born at Alfreton in Derbyfhire, and going into the army ferved under

under the duke of Marlborough in Queen Anne's wars with great credit. He afterwards came to London, commenced brewer, and kept a coffee-house in Aldergate-street, which was well frequented by the learned men of that time, by which Mr Sutton was much respected as a man of strong natural parts and cultivated genius. About 1740 he schemed a very simple and natural method for extracting the foul air from the wells of ships, by pipes communicating with the fire-places of the coppers; which operated as long as any fire was kept burning for the ship's use. He took out a patent in 1744, to secure the profits of his invention; and died 1752.

(3.) SUTTON, a town of England, in Cambridgeshire, SW. of Ely, and 14 miles from Cambridge, where antiquities have been found.

(4.) SUTTON, a township of Massachusetts, in Worcester county, 33 miles SW. of Boston; containing 2642 citizens in 1795.

(5.) SUTTON COLEFIELD, a town of England, in Warwickshire, with a market on Monday, 7 miles N. of Birmingham, 24 NW. of Warwick, and 111 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 52. 39. N.

SUTTON'S AIR-PIPES. See AIR-PIPES.

(1.) * SUTURE. *n. s.* [*sutura*, Lat.] 1. A manner of sewing or stitching, particularly of stitching wounds.—Wounds, if held in close contact for some time, reunite by inoculation; to maintain this situation, several sorts of sutures have been invented; those now chiefly described are the interrupted, the glovers, the quill'd, the twisted, and the dry sutures, but the interrupted and twisted are almost the only useful ones. *Sharp*. 2. Suture is a particular articulation: the bones of the cranium are joined to one another by four sutures. *Quincy*.—The sutures of the skin are abolished in old age. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) SUTURE, in anatomy. See ANATOMY, Index.

(3.) SUTURE, in surgery. See SURGERY, Index.

SUVARROF, } Alexander, Count RY-
SUVOROF, } MINSKI, a late eminent ge-
SUWARROW, or } neral in the Russian ser-
SUWOROW, } vice. His family was an-
cient and respectable; but being far from affluent, and their property lying at the very extremity of the empire, the subject of this memoir was the first of the family that ever was at court. He was born in 1730. His father had destined him for the law, but his inclination led him to the profession of a soldier; and in 1752 he was enrolled as a fusilier in the guards of Seimonow. He was afterwards a corporal, than a serjeant, and in 1754, he quitted the guards with the brevet of Lieutenant in the army. He made his first campaign in the 7 years war against the Prussians, in 1759, entering upon actual service under Prince Wolgouiski. In 1761, he was ordered on service in the light troops under Gen. Berg; and with the rank of a Lieutenant Colonel he performed prodigies of valour. At the peace of 1762, he received from the empress a colonel's commission, written with her own hand; and being advanced, in 1768, to the rank of brigadier, he was, in November, ordered to repair to the frontiers of Poland. The

object of the empress, at this time, was to subdue the Polish confederates, and to possess herself of certain provinces of that ill-fated kingdom. How completely she and her two allies, the Emperor of Germany and the King of Prussia, succeeded in their enterprise, has been related under POLAND, § 23—26. Here we need only observe, that the successes of the Russians were chiefly owing to the military skill of Suworow. In 1770, he had been promoted to the rank of Major general; and for his exploits in the Polish war, the Empress conferred upon him, at different times, the orders of St Anne, St George, and Alexander Newsky. After performing some important services on the frontiers of Sweden, Suworow was ordered in 1773, to join the army in Moldavia, under Field-marshal Romanow; and there he began that successful career, which soon made his name a terror to the Turks. His first exploit was the taking of TURKUSKY. During the remainder of the war, which was short, Suworow was constantly engaged, and constantly successful. Early in 1774, he was promoted to the rank of Lieut. Gen. and on the 11th June, he defeated the Turks in a great battle. Soon after this victory, peace was concluded, and Suworow was called to Moscow to quell the rebellion of the *Cossack Pugatscheff*. For several years after this, Suworow was employed in the Crimea, on the Cuban, and against the Nogay Tartars, in a service, which, though it was of the utmost importance to the Empress, and required all his address, furnished no opportunities for that wonderful promptitude and resource which had characterized his more active campaigns. In the end of 1786, Suworow was promoted to the rank of General in Chief; and, at the breaking out of the war with the Turks in 1787, he made a most masterly defence of *Kinburn*; a place of little strength, but great importance, as it is situated at the mouth of the Dnieper, opposite to Oczakow. For his zeal and abilities on this occasion, the Empress honoured him with the order of St Andrew. At the siege of Oczakow, Suworow, who commanded the left wing of the army under Prince Potemkin, received a dangerous wound in the neck, which was followed by so smart a fever, that, for some time his life was despaired of; but, preferring regimen to medicine, his health was gradually re-established. In 1789, he was appointed to command the army which was to co-operate with the Prince of Saxe-Cobourg in Wallachia; and, by marches of inconceivable rapidity, he twice, in 2 months, preferred the army of that Prince from destruction. Putting himself at the head of 8000 Russians, and literally running to the aid of his ally, he came up with the Turks in time to change the fate of the day at the battle of *Forhani*, which was fought on the 1st of July; and again at *Rymnik*, which, with 7000 men, he had reached with equal celerity, he gained, on the 22d Sept. in conjunction with the Prince, one of the greatest victories that have ever been achieved. No quarter was given to the Turks; and on this account the Russian General has been charged with savage ferocity. The taking of *Bender* and *Belgrade* were the immediate consequences of the victory of Rymnik; and to sensi-

He was the emperor Joseph II. how much the military skill of Suworow had contributed to that victory, that he created him a Count of the Roman empire, and accompanied the diploma with a very flattering letter. Similar honours were conferred upon him by Catherine II. who sent him the diploma of Count of the empire of Russia, with the title of *Rymnikski*, and the order of St Andrew. In autumn 1790, he took Ilimailow, after being defended by the Turks at an expence of 33,000 men killed or dangerously wounded; 10,000 taken prisoners; besides 6000 women and children, and 2000 Christians of Moldavia, who fell in one general massacre. Peace being concluded with the Turks in Dec. 1791, no events occurred from that period to call forth the talents of Suworow till 1794; when mutinies having broken out among the Polish troops in the service of Russia, and the Empress with her two allies having resolved on the second partition of Poland, Suworow received orders, in May, to proceed into Red Russia, with a corps of 15,000 men, and to disarm all the Polish troops in that province. This service he soon performed, disarming, in less than a fortnight, 8000 men, dispersed over a country of 130 miles in circuit. Soon afterwards he was ordered to march into Poland; the King of Prussia having raised the siege of Warsaw, and the Empress perceiving that more vigorous measures were necessary to accomplish her design. Under the article POLAND § 25, 26, we have given a detailed account of his route to Warsaw. Suffice it to add, that he in the course of a very few months, overturned the kingdom and republic of Poland. For this service Catherine promoted him to the rank of Field-marshal General, loading him with jewels, and presenting him with an estate of 7000 peasants in the district of Kubin, which had been the scene of his first battle in the campaign. From the subjugation of Poland we hear little more of Suworow till he entered upon his great career in Italy. Of his exploits there, where, to use his own words, he destroyed armies and overturned states, we have given a full account under the article REVOLUTION, N^o VI. § 38—40; 42—44. Paul rewarded him by creating him a Prince by the title of *Prince Suworow Italiski*; but he gave him a very different reception when he returned into the Russian dominions at the head of his veteran and victorious bands. He would not see him, and positively forbade his appearance at court. To the messenger who brought the order, he gave a purse of money, turned his carriage another way, and drove to a wooden house at a distance from the court, and from his former friends, where the conqueror of the Turks, the Poles, and the French republicans, died, almost unattended, on the 18th of May 1800. The sovereign, who thus disgraced him at the end of his life, gave him a magnificent funeral! In his person Suworow was tall, considerably exceeding six feet, and full chested. His countenance was stern; but among his friends, his manners were pleasant, and his dispositions were kind. His temper was naturally violent; but that violence he laboured much to moderate, though he was never able completely to extinguish it. He was a scholar, a man of science, and a poet. In 1774, he married a daughter

of the General Prince John Proskotowski, by whom he had two children, now living: Natalia, married to General Count Nicolas Zubow; and Arcadius Count Suworow, a youth of promising abilities, who accompanied his father in his march from Italy into Switzerland.

SUYATYN, a town of the ci-devant Poland, in the new Austrian province of Galicia, formerly Red Russia; 44 miles SE. of Iahetz.

SUZ, or SUS. See SUS, N^o 1. and II.

(1.) SUZA, SUSA, or SOUSE, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis, near the east coast; remarkable for its antiquities, relics of ancient edifices, granite pillars, subterranean houses, baths, &c. It is supposed to have been one of those cities which submitted to Caesar in his march to Rufina. It is still the chief mart of Tunis for linens, oil, and other goods; and is of consequence one of the richest towns in the kingdom. It lies 24 miles E. of Cairuan, and 54 S. of Tunis.

(2.) SUZA, or SUSA, a ci-devant marquisate of Italy, in the late Piedmontese, now annexed to the French empire, and included in the department of Doria. It is 30 miles long, 10 broad, and is watered by the Doria and the Ciniella. The chief towns are SUSA (N^o 3.) Glavenna, or Javenna, Avigliana, and Novale.

(3.) SUZA, or SUSA, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Doria, and late capital of the marquisate. See SUSA, N^o 2. To the account there given, we have to add, that it was anciently called SEGUSIO, or *Segusium*, or *Segusina*; (See SEGUSIO,) and the people SEGUSIANI. It was the capital of the kingdom of Cottius, and his chief place of residence. Being seated on the frontiers of ancient Gaul or old France, and ci-devant Savoy, it has been often plundered. It was sacked by the Gauls under Brennus; by the Carthaginians under Hannibal; by the Romans under Flavius Valens, the friend of Vitellius; by the soldiers of Constantine the Great, after the defeat of Maxentius; and afterwards successively by the Vandals, Goths, Lombards and Saracens; and last of all, it was plundered, burnt, and razed by the bloody Frederick Barbarossa. It was held as a marquisate by the descendants of Charlemagne, and fell to the house of Savoy, by the marriage of the duke with Adelaide, daughter and heiress of the late marquis. It has a citadel, three churches, and a triumphal arch, erected in honour of Augustus. It is seated on the Doria, at the foot of the Alps.

SUZANNE, ST, a town of France, in the department of Maine, and ci-devant province so named. It has a considerable paper manufactory, and lies 24 miles W. of Mans.

SUZAO, a town of Portugal, in Beira; 22 miles NE. of New Braganza.

SUZARA, a town of the new kingdom of Italy, in the department of the Mincio, district and late duchy of Mantua; 14 miles S. of Mantua.

SUZAVIN, a town of Persia, in the province of Irac; 90 miles E. of Amadas.

SUZAY, a town of France, in the department of the Eure; 4½ miles ENE. of Grand Andelys.

SUZDAL, a town of Russia, in Volodimir, 24 miles NNE. of Volodimir. It seems to be the same with SUSDAL. Peter the Great, after divorcing

vorcing his empress Eudoxia, confined her in the Convent of St Basil in this town.

(1.) SUZE, Henriette De COLIGNI, Countess of, daughter of the celebrated Marshal De COLIGNI, a French lady, eminent for her poetical abilities. She married first Thomas Hamilton, a Scottish nobleman, and after his death the Count La Suze, who was also of an illustrious family. But this second marriage proved unhappy, and ended in a separation. She wrote a great number of *Poems*, which were much admired; and were collected and printed with those of PELLISSON and Madam SCUDERY, at Trevois, in 1725, 12mo. She died in 1673.

(1.) SUZE, a river of Switzerland, which runs into Lake Bienné, about a mile below the town of Bienné.

(3.) SUZE, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe; 9 miles SW. of Mans, and 12 N. of Fleche.

(4.) SUZE LA ROUSSE, a town of France, in the department of the Drome; 13 miles S. of Montelimart.

* SWAB. *n. s.* [*swabbish*, Swedish.] A kind of mop to clean floors.

* To SWAB. *v. a.* [*swabban*, Saxon.] To clean with a mop. It is now used chiefly at sea.—

He made him *swab* the deck. *Shavetock.*

* SWABBER. *n. s.* [*swabbër*, Dutch.] A sweeper of the deck.—

The master, the *swabber*, the boatswain and I, Lov'd Mall, Meg, and Marrian, and Margery. *Shak.*

—Was any thing wanting to the extravagance of this degenerate age, but the making a tarpawlin and a *swabber* the hero of a tragedy? *Dennis.*

SWABIA. See SUABIA.

* SWADDLE. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Cloaths bound round the body.—I begged them to uncase me: no, no, say they; and upon that carried me to one of their houses, and put me to bed in all my *swaddles*. *Addison.*

* To SWADDLE. *v. a.* [*swedan*, Saxon.] 1. To swathe; to bind in clothes, generally used of binding newborn children.—

Swaddled as new-born in fable shrouds. *Sandys.*

Cloths are taken from a chest of sweets,

To *swaddle* infants. *Herbert.*

—They *swaddled* me up in my night-gown with long pieces of linen. *Addison.* 2. To beat; to cudgel. A low ludicrous word.—

Great on the bench, great in the saddle.

That could as well bind o'er as *swaddle*. *Hudib.*

* SWADDLINGBAND. } *n. s.* [from *swad-*

* SWADDLINGCLOTH. } *dle.* Cloth wrap-

* SWADDLINGCLOUT. } ped round a new

born child.—

From thence a fairy thee unwetting rest,

There as thou slept'st in tender *swaddlingband*. *Spenser.*

—That great baby you see there is not yet out of his *swaddlingcloths*. *Shak.*—The *swaddlingbands* were purple, wrought with gold. *Dryden.*

SWADLINGBAR, a town of Ireland, in Cavan, Ulster; 74 miles from Dublin. It has a celebrated mineral spring within half a mile.

SWADLINGCOTE, a town of England, in Derbyshire, SE. of Burton upon Trent.

SWAFFHAM, a town of England, in Norfolk, one of the best in the county, with 300 houses, seated on a hill, with a market on Saturday; 15 miles SE. of Lynn, 34 NNE. of Newmarket, and 94 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 46. E. Lat. 52. 42. N.

* To SWAG. *v. n.* [*sigan*, Saxon; *swaigid*, Islandick.] To sink down by its weight; to hang heavy.—They are more apt, in *swagging* down, to pierce with their points. *Walton.*—He hath a long fin upon his back, and another answering to it on his belly; by which he is the better kept upright, or from *swagging* on his sides. *Grew.*

* To SWAGE. *v. a.* [from *assuage*.] To ease; to soften; to mitigate.—

Apt words have pow'r to *swage*

The tumors of a troubled mind. *Milton.*

Nor wanting pow'r to mitigate and *swage*, Anguish, and doubt, and fear. *Milton.*

I'd find some intervals, when my poor heart Should *swage* itself. *Osway.*

* To SWAGGER. *v. n.* [*swadder*, Dutch, to make a noise; *swegan*, Saxon.] To bluster; to bully; to be turbulently and tumultuously proud and insolent.—Drunk? squabble? *swagger*? and discourse sustain with one's own shadow! *Shak.*—A rascal that *swagger'd* with me last night. *Shak.*—The leiser size of mortals love to *swagger* for opinions. *Glanville.*—Many such asses in the world huff, look big, stare, dress, cock, and *swagger* at the same noisy rate. *L'Estrange.*—

He chuck'd,

But *swagger'd* like a lord. *Dryden.*

—The ignorant think there is something more than ordinary in a *swaggering* man. *Tillotson.*—To be great, is not to be flattered, and formal and supercilious; to *swagger* at our footmen, and browbeat our inferiors. *Collier on Pride.*—What a pleasure is it to be victorious in a cause? to *swagger* at the bar? *Arbutnot.*

* SWAGGERER. *n. s.* [from *swagger*.] A blusterer; a bully; a turbulent noisy fellow.—He's no *swaggerer*, hoists; a tame cheater; you may stroke him as gently as a puppy greyhound. *Shak.*

* SWAGGY. *adj.* [from *swag*.] Dependent by its weight.—The beaver is called animal ventricosum, from his *swaggy* and prominent belly. *Brown.*

* SWAIN. *n. s.* [*swain*, Saxon and Runick.] 1. A young man.—

Whose fellowship seem'd far unfit for war-like *swain*. *Spenser.*

2. A country servant employed in husbandry.—

It were a happy life

To be no better than a homely *swain*. *Shak.*

3. A pastoral youth.—

Blest *swains*! whose nymphs in ev'ry grace excel;

Blest nymphs! whose *swains* those graces sing so well. *Pope.*

Leave the meer country to meer country *swains*. *Harte.*

(1.) * SWAINMOTE. *n. s.* [*swainmote*, law Lat.] A court touching matters of the forest, kept by the charter of the forest, thrice in the year.

year. This court of *swainmote* is as incident to a forest, as the court of piepowder is to a fair. The *swainmote* is a court of freeholders within the forest. *Cowley*.

(a.) **SWAINMOTE.** See **FOREST COURTS.**

(1.) **SWALE**, a river of England, in Yorkshire, which rises on the confines of Westmoreland, and running SE. passes Richmond and Thirsk, and falls into the Ouse near Borrow-bridge.

(2.) **SWALE, EAST**, a river of England, in Kent, the E. branch of the **MEDWAY**, which branches off to the right, and runs south of the island of Sheppey, and joins the Thames below **SHELLNESS**.

(3.) **SWALE, WEST**, another river of Kent, the main stream of the **Medway**, which runs due N. and falls into the Thames at **SHEERNESS**. See **MEDWAY**.

* **To SWALE.** *To SWEAL.* v. a. [*swelan*, Sax; to kindle.] To waite or blaze away; to melt; as the candle swales.

* **SWALLET.** n. s. Among the tin-miners, water breaking in upon the miners at work. *Bailey*.

(1.) * **SWALLOW.** n. s. [*swalewe*, Sax. *birundo*.] A small bird of passage; or, as some say, a bird that lies hid and sleeps in the winter.—The swallow follows not summer more willingly than we your lordship. *Shak.*

Daffodils,

That come before the swallow dares. *Shak.*
—The swallows make of celandine, and the linnet of euphrasia. *Morr.*

Swallows fleet far high and sport in air. *Gay.*

(2.) **SWALLOW**, in ornithology. See **HIRUNDO**. Concerning these birds, a question has oft been discussed, What becomes of them in winter? Upon this subject there are three opinions. Some say that they migrate to a warmer climate; some that they retire to hollow trees and caverns, where they lie in a torpid state; and others affirm that they lie in the same state in the bottom of lakes and under the ice. The first opinion is supported by Marfigli, Ray, Willoughby, Catesby, Reamar, Adanson, Buffon, &c. The first and 2d opinions are both adopted by Pennant and White. The 3d is sanctioned by Schæffer, Hevelius, Derham, Klein, Ellis, Linnæus, Kalm: and the 2d and 3d have been strongly defended by the Hon. Daines Barrington. Those who assert that swallows migrate to a warmer country in winter, argue, That many birds migrate, is a fact fully proved by the observations of natural historians. (See **MIGRATION**, § 2.) Is it not more probable, therefore, that swallows, which disappear regularly every season, retire to some other country, than that they lie in a state of torpor in caverns or lakes? But this opinion is founded on facts. We often see them collected in great flocks on churches, rocks, and trees, about the time when they annually disappear. The direction of their flight has been observed to be to the southward. Mr White, the ingenious historian of Selborne, travelling near the coast of the British Channel one morning early, saw a flock of swallows take their departure, with an easy and placid flight towards the sea. Mr Laskey of Exeter observed the direction which a flock of swallows took in autumn 1793. On the 22d Sept. about 7 A. M. the wind

being easterly, accompanied with a cold drizzling rain, Mr Laskey's house was entirely covered with house swallows. At intervals large flocks arrived and joined the main body, and at their arrival an unusual chirping commenced. The appearance of the whole company was so lethargic, that he found it an easy matter to catch a considerable number of them, which he kept in a room all that day. By heating the room they all revived: he opened four of them, and found their stomachs quite full. The main body occupied the house top all day, except for two hours. About half an hour after 9 A. M. the 23d, there was a great commotion, with very loud chirping, and within a few minutes after, the whole multitude took their flight, in a SE. direction, having ascended to a great height in the atmosphere. He let go the birds which he had caught, at certain intervals till four o'clock, and they all fled toward the same quarter. They have also been found on their passage at a great distance from land. Mr Adanson informs us, that about 50 leagues from the coast of Senegal 4 swallows settled upon the ship on the 6th October; that these birds were taken; and that he knew them to be European swallows, which, he conjectures, were returning to the coast of Africa. Sir Charles Wager says, "Returning home, in spring, as I came into soundings in our channel, a great flock of swallows came and settled on all my rigging; every rope was covered, they hung on one another like a swarm of bees; the decks and carving were filled with them. They seemed almost famished and spent, and were only feathers and bones; but, being recruited with a night's rest, took their flight in the morning." This vast fatigue proves that their journey must have been very great, considering their amazing swiftness, in all probability they had crossed the Atlantic ocean, and were returning from the shores of Senegal, or other parts of Africa; so that this account from that most able and honest seaman, confirms the latter information of Mr Adanson. Mr Bruce also mentions in his travels, that in Abyssinia, there is a great variety of swallows; but "those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. We saw the greatest part of them in the island of Masuah, where they lighted and tarried two days, and then proceeded with moon light to the SW." Mr Kalm acknowledges, that in crossing the Atlantic from Europe, a swallow lighted on the ship on the 2d Sept. when it had passed only two 3ds of the ocean. Since, therefore, swallows have been seen assembled in great flocks in autumn flying off in company towards southern climes, since they have been found both in their passage from Europe and returning again, can there be any doubt of their annual migration? (See **MIGRATION**, § 2.) The 2d notion (says Mr Pennant) has great antiquity on its side. Aristotle and Pliny say, that swallows do not remove very far from their summer habitation, but winter in the hollows of rocks, and during that time lose their feathers. Of late several proofs have been brought of some species having been discovered in a torpid state. Mr Collinson mentions three gentlemen, eye-witnesses to numbers of land martins being

drawn

drawn out of a cliff on the Rhine, in March 1762. And the Hon. Daines Barrington communicated the following fact, on the authority of the late Lord Belhaven, That numbers of swallows have been found in old dry walls and in sand hills near his Lordship's seat in East Lothian; from year to year; and that when they were exposed to the warmth of a fire they revived. We have heard of the same annual discoveries near Morpeth, in Northumberland. Others prove the residence of those birds in a torpid state during winter. First, in the chalky cliffs of Suffex; as was seen on the fall of a great fragment some years ago. 2. In a decayed hollow tree that was cut down, near Dolgelli, in Merionethshire. 3. In a cliff, near Whitby, Yorkshire; where, on digging out a fox whole bustles of swallows were found in a torpid condition. 4. The rev. Mr Conway of Sychton, Flintshire, a few years ago, on looking down an old lead mine in that county, observed numbers of swallows clinging to the timbers of the shaft, seemingly asleep; and on flinging some gravel on them they just moved, but never attempted to fly: this was between All Saints and Christmas. From all these facts, we must conclude, that one part of the swallow tribe migrate, and that others have their winter quarters near home. The 3d opinion is that of Mr Kalm, who pleads for their immersion in water; and mentions the following facts: "Dr Wallerius, the celebrated Swedish chemist, informs us, That he has seen, more than once, swallows assembling on a reed till they were all immersed and went to the bottom; this being preceded by a dirge of a quarter of an hour's length. He had seen a swallow caught during winter out of a lake with a net, drawn as is common in northern countries, under the ice; this bird was brought into a warm room, revived, fluttered about, and soon after died. Mr Klein, applied to many farmers general of the king of Prussia's domains, who had great lakes in their districts, the fishery in them being a part of the revenue. All the people that were questioned made affidavits upon oath before the magistrates. 1. The mother of the countess of Lehndorf said, that she had seen a bundle of swallows brought from the Frische-Hoff (a lake communicating with the Baltic at Pilsau), which, when brought into a moderately warm room, revived and fluttered about. 2. Count Schileben gave an instrument on stamped paper, importing, that by fishing on the lake belonging to his estate of Gerdauden in winter, he saw several swallows caught in the net, one of which he took up in his hand, brought it into a warm room, where it lay about an hour, when it began to stir, and half an hour after it flew about in the room." Mr Kalm mentions similar affidavits made by four farmers; and at last adds, "7thly, I can reckon myself (says our author) among the eye witnesses of this paradox of natural history. In 1735, being a boy, I saw several swallows brought in winter by the fishermen from the Viskula to my father's house; where two of them were brought into a warm room, revived and flew about. I saw them several times settling on the warm stove, and I recollect well, that the same forenoon they died, and I had them, when dead, in my hand. In Jan. 1754, being

covered with ice, I ordered the fishermen to fish therein, and in my presence several swallows were taken, which the fishermen threw in again; but one I took up myself, brought it home, five miles from thence, and it revived, but died about an hour after. These are facts attested by people of the highest quality. It is therefore incontestably true, that swallows retire in the northern countries, during winter, into the water, and stay there in a torpid state till the return of warmth revives them again in spring. The swallows in Spain, Italy, France, and perhaps some from England, remove to warmer climates; some English ones, and some in Germany and other mild countries retire into clefts and holes in rocks, and remain there in a torpid state. In the colder northern counties the swallows immerse in the sea, in lakes, and rivers; and remain in a torpid state, under ice, during winter. It is objected, Why do not rapacious fish, and aquatic quadrupeds and birds, devour these swallows? The answer is obvious; swallows choose only such places in the water for their winter retreat as are near reeds and rushes; so that sinking down there between them and their roots they are secured against their enemies. As to the argument taken from their being so long under water without corruption, there is a real difference between animals suffocated in water and animals being torpid therein. Natural history ought to be studied as a collection of facts. There are five species of swallows which visit Britain during summer; the common swallow, the martin, sand martin, swift, and goat-sucker. 1. The common swallow frequents almost every part of the old continent; being known (says Dr Latham) from Norway to the Cape of Good Hope on the one side, and from Kamtschatka to India and Japan on the other. It is also found in all parts of N. America, and in several West Indian islands. In Europe it disappears during winter. It appears generally a little after the vernal equinox; but rather earlier in the southern, and later in the northern latitudes. It adheres to the usual seasons with much regularity. In the warm spring of 1774 they appeared no earlier than usual. They remain in some warm countries the whole year. Kolben assures us that this is the case at the Cape of Good Hope. Some birds of this species live, during winter, even in Europe; e. g. on the coast of Genoa. 2. The martins are also widely diffused through the old continent. 3. The sand martins are found in every part of Europe, and often spend the winter in Malta. 4. The swift visits the whole continent of Europe; has also been observed at the Cape of Good Hope, and in Carolina in North America. 5. The goat suckers are not very common, yet are found in every country between Sweden and Africa: also in India Mr Markwick of Catsfield, near Battle in Suffex, has drawn up an accurate table, expressing the day of the month on which the migratory birds appeared in spring, and disappeared in autumn, for 16 years, from 1766 to 1783, at Catsfield. Were tables of the same kind made in every different country, particularly within the torrid zone, it would be easy to determine the question which we have been considering. To many, perhaps, it may not appear of so much importance as to be worth

worth the labour. But the inquiry must be highly gratifying to every mind that admires the wisdom of the Great Architect of nature. The instinct of the swallow is indeed wonderful: it appears among us just at the time when insects become numerous; and it continues with us during the hot weather, to prevent them from multiplying too much. It disappears when these insects are no longer troublesome. It is never found in solitude; it is the friend of man, and always takes up its residence with us, to protect us from being annoyed with swarms of insects.

(3.) * SWALLOW. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The throat; voracity.—Had this man of merit and mortification been called to account for his ungodly *swallow*, in gorging down the estates of helpless widows and orphans, he would have told them that it was all for charitable uses. *South.*

(4.) SWALLOW, in geography, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, discovered by Roggewins in 1722. Lon. 162. 30. E. of Paris. Lat. 10. 0. S.

(5.) SWALLOW BAY, a bay on the N. coast of Egmont Island, between Hanway's Point and SWALLOW POINT, N° 7.

(6.) SWALLOW ISLAND, one of QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLANDS in the South Sea; about 18 miles long. Lon. 164. 58. E. Lat. 10. 8. S.

(7.) SWALLOW POINT, a cape on the N. coast of Egmont Island in the S. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 164. 46. E. Lat. 10. 42. S.

* To SWALLOW. *v. a.* [*swelgan*, Sax. *swelgen*, Dutch.] 1. To take down the throat.—

Capital crimes chew'd, *swallow'd*, and digested,

Appear before us?

—Men must *swallow* down opinions, as silly people do empiricks pills. *Locke.* 2. To receive without examination.—Judge of it as a matter of reason, and not *swallow* it as a matter of faith. *Locke.* 3. To engross; to appropriate; often with *up* emphatical.—Far be it from me, that I should *swallow up* or destroy. 2. *Sam.*—Homer has *swallowed up* the honour of those who succeeded him. *Pope.* 4. To absorb; to take in; to sink in any abyss; to engulf: with *up*.—

The yesty waves

Confound and *swallow* navigation *up.* *Shak.*

I may be pluck'd into the *swallowing* womb

Of this deep pit, poor Bassianus' grave. *Shak.*

—Death is *swallow'd up* in victory. 1 *Cor.* xv. 54.

—If the earth open her mouth and *swallow* them *up*, ye shall understand that these men have provoked the Lord. *Numb.* xvi.—

In bogs *swallow'd up* and lost. *Milton.*

—He had many things from us, not that they would *swallow up* our understanding, but divert our attention from what is more important. *Deceay of Piety.*—

Nature would abhor

To be forced back again upon herself,

And like a whirlpool *swallow* her own streams. *Dryden.*

Should not the sad occasion *swallow up*

My other cares and draw them all into it?

Addison.

5. To occupy.—The necessary provision for life *swallows* the greatest part of their time. 6. To freeze and waste.—

Corruption *swallow'd* what the liberal hand
Of bounty scatter'd. *Thomson.*

7. To engross; to engage completely.—The priest and the prophet are *swallowed up* of wine. *Isa.*

8. *Swallow* implies, in all its figurative senses some nauseous or contemptuous ideas, something of grossness or of folly.

SWALLOW'S TAIL, in fortification, is a single

tenaille, which is narrower towards the place than

toward the country.

(1.) * SWALLOWTAIL. *n. f.* A species of willow.—The thinning willow they call *swallowtail* *Bacon.*

(2.) SWALLOWTAIL is a species of *SALIX.*

(1.) * SWALLOWWORT. *n. f.* [*asclepias.*] A plant.

(2.) SWALLOW-WORT, in botany. See *ASCLEPIAS.*

SWALLY, a town of Hindostan, in the Deccan, and province of Cambaya, with a good harbour; 12 or 15 miles NW. of Surat. Lon. 72. 15 E. Lat. 21. 18. N.

SWALM, a town of France, in the dep. of the Roer, and cidevant province of Guelderland; 4 miles N. of Ruremond.

(1.) * SWAM. The preterite of *swim.*

(2.) SWAM, in geography, a fort at the mouth of the Medway, near Sheerness. See *MEDWAY* N° 1.

SWAMMERDAM, John, a celebrated natural philosopher, was the son of John James Swammerdam, an apothecary and famous naturalist of Amsterdam, and born in 1637. His father intended him for the church, and with this view had him instructed in Latin and Greek; but he preferred physic. Being kept at home till he should engage in that study, he was often employed in cleaning his father's curiosities, and putting every thing in order. This inspired him with an early taste for natural history; so that he soon began to make a collection of his own. When grown up, he attended to his anatomical and medical studies; but spent part of the day and the night in discovering, catching, and examining the flying insects of Holland, Guelderland, and Utrecht. Thus initiated in natural history, he went to the university of Leyden in 1651; and in 1663 was admitted a candidate of physic. While studying anatomy, he considered how the parts of the body, prepared by dissection, could be preserved for anatomical demonstration; and he succeeded as he had done before in his nice contrivances for dissecting the minutest insects. He then went to France, where he spent some time at Saumur, and became acquainted with several learned men. In 1667 he returned to Leyden, and took his degree of M. D. In 1668, the grand duke of Tuscany being in Holland, came to view the museum of our author and his father; and Swammerdam made some anatomical dissections of insects in his presence. He was struck with admiration at his great skill in managing them; and proving that the future butterfly lay with all its parts neatly folded up in a caterpillar, by removing the integuments, and exhibiting all its parts, however minute, with incredible ingenuity, by instruments of inconceivable fineness. The duke offered him 12,000 florins for

for his collection, on condition of his removing them into Tuscany, and residing at the court of Florence; but Swammerdam declined. In 1663, he published a *General History of Insects*. About this time his father, offended at his neglecting the practice of physic, would neither supply him with money nor clothes. This reduced him to some difficulties. In 1675, he published his *History of the Ephemeras*; and his father dying in 1676, left him a fortune; but he died in 1682, aged only 45. Gubius translated all his works from the Dutch into Latin, from which they were translated into English, in folio, in 1748. See *ANATOMY, Index*. Boerhaave wrote his life.

(1.) * **SWAMP**, *n. f.* [*swamms*, Goth. *swam*, Saxon; *swamm*, Islandick; *swamme*, Dutch; *swamp*, Danish; *swamp*, Swedish.] A marsh; a bog; a fen.

(2, 3.) **SWAMP**, in geography. See **DISMAL**, N° 2, 3.

(4.) **SWAMP**, **GREAT DISMAL**. See **DISMAL**, N° 4.

* **SWAMPY**, *adj.* [from *swamp*.] Boggy; fenny.—

Swampy fens brave destructive myrinds.

Thomson.

SWAMSCOT, or **EYETER**, or *Great River*, a river of New Hampshire, which rises in Chester county, and after running through Sandown, Poplin, Brentwood, and great part of Exeter townships, during which course it turns many mills, falls over a cataract 30 rods high, and joins the tide from **PISCATAQUA** harbour, in the centre of the township of Exeter. A small river falls into it, a little above Exeter.

(1.) * **SWAN**, *n. f.* [*swan*, Sax. *swan*, Danish; *swaan*, Dutch; *cygnus*, Latin.] The *swan* is a large water-fowl, that has a long neck, and is very white, excepting when it is young. Its legs and feet are black, as is its bill, which is like that of a goose, but something rounder, and a little hooked at the lower end of it; the two sides below its eyes are black and shining like ebony. *Swans* use wings like sails, which catch the wind, so that they are driven along in the water. They feed upon herbs and some sorts of grain like a goose, and some are said to have lived 300 years. There is a species of swans with the feathers of their heads, towards the breast, marked at the ends with a gold colour inclining to red. The swan is reckoned by Moses among the unclean creatures; but it was consecrated to Apollo the god of music, because it was said to sing melodiously when it was near expiring; a tradition generally received, but fabulous. *Calmet*.—

Compare her face with some that I shall show.

And I will make thee think thy *swan* a crow.

Shak.

Let musick sound, while he doth make his choice;

Then if he lose, he makes a *swan*-like end.

Shak.

A jarring sound results, and mingles in the sky,

Like that of *swans* remurm'ring to the floods.

Dryden.

VOL. XXII. PART .

—The idea, which an Englishman signifies by the name *swan*, is a white colour, long neck, black beak, black legs, and whole feet, and all these of a certain size, with a power of swimming in the water, and making a certain kind of noise. *Locke*.

(2.) **SWAN**. See **ANAS**, § 15, N° 1. and 2. It is now ascertained, beyond the possibility of doubt, that there are *black swans*, of equal size and the same habitudes with the common white swans of this island. These fowls have been seen chiefly in New Holland; and Captain Vancouver, when there, saw several of them in very stately attitudes swimming on the water, and, when flying, discovering the under part of their wings and breasts to be white. Black swans were likewise seen in New Holland by Gov. Philips, Capt. White, and by a Dutch navigator, so long ago as in 1697; Gov. Philips describes the black swan as a very noble bird, larger than the common swan and equally beautiful in form. Mr White indeed says, that its size is not quite equal to that of the European swan; but both agree with Capt. Vancouver in mentioning some white feathers in its wings.

(3—5.) **SWAN**, **SWEYN**, **SUENO**, or **SWENO**, I, II. and III. 3 kings of Denmark. See **DENMARK**, § 5; **ENGLAND**, § 16—18, and **SWENO**.

(6.) **SWAN ISLAND**, an island of the United States, in Maine, in the Kennebeck, much frequented by swans; 4 miles S. of Pownallburg.

(7.) **SWAN ISLAND**, an island of Ireland, in Lough Strangford, Down county, near Down Patrick.

(8.) **SWAN LAKE**, a lake of Canada; 171 miles NNW. of Quebec.

SWANAGE BAY, a bay of the English Channel, on the coast of Dorchester, S. of Studland Bay.

SWANEMOTE, *n. f.* See **FOREST-COURTS**, and **SWAINMOTE**.

SWANNANO, a river of Tennessee, the head-water of French Broad River.

SWANPAN, or Chinese **ABACUS**, an instrument for performing arithmetical operations, described by Du Halde in his History of China. It is composed of a small board, crossed with 10 or 12 parallel rods or wires, each strung with ivory balls, which are so divided by a partition in the middle, that two are on one side of it, and five on the other. The two on the upper part stand each for five units, and each of the five in the lower part for one. "In joining and separating these balls, they reckon much as we do with counters; but, according to our author, more expeditiously than Europeans do even with figures." This is hardly credible; but if all the Chinese weights and measures be decimally divided, it is easy to conceive how computation may be made by this instrument very expeditiously. See **BLIND**, § 15—18.

SWANSBOROUGH, a city of N. Carolina, the capital of Wilmington district, and of Onslow county. It has a court-house, and a court is held in it, the 1st Monday in Jan. April, July, and Oct.

SWANSCOMB, a small town of England, in Kent, 4 miles W. by S. of Gravesend; memorable for being the place where the Kentish patriots,

D

with

with boughs in their hands like a moving wood, surprised William the Conqueror, and, throwing down their boughs, threatened to give him battle, if he did not agree to secure them in all their ancient customs, rights, and franchises; to which William immediately consented: in consequence of which they still retain gavel-kind and other ancient privileges enjoyed by the Saxons. (See GAVEL-KIND.) There are relics of Danish camps and forts near it.

(1.) **SWANSEA**, or **SWANSEY**, a populous trading town of S. Wales, in Glamorgan-shire, on a bay so named (N^o 3), with a good harbour at the mouth of the Tawy, whence it is also named *Aber Towy*. It has a great trade in coals, pottery, copper, and lead, which are smelted from the ores, and sent to Ireland, Bristol, and the S. of England, to which ships are constantly sailing. In 1768, 694 vessels sailed from this port; tonnage 30,631: in 1792, the number of ships was 1677, containing 74,926 tons: in September 1799, the ships had increased to 2600, and the tonnage to 124,264 tons. It has markets on Wednesday and Saturday, and is famed for ship-building. It has an ancient castle and two churches; and joins with Cowbridge and other towns in sending a member to parliament. It is governed by a portreeve, a chief, 12 aldermen, 2 chancellors, and 66 councillors. It is 2½ miles WNW. of Cowbridge, 8½ E. of Haverford West, and 205 W. of London. Lon. 4. 0. W. Lat. 51. 38. N.

(2.) **SWANSEA**, a town of Massachusetts, on the Taunton; 36 miles S. of Boston.

(3.) **SWANSEA BAY**, a bay of S. Wales, on the Bristol Channel, at the mouth of the Tawy, on the coast of **SWANSEA**, N^o 1.

SWANSEY. See **SWANSEA**, N^o 1.

SWANSHALES, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 23 miles WSW. of Linköping.

* **SWANSKIN**. *n. s.* [*swan* and *skin*.] A kind of soft flannel, imitating for warmth the down of a swan.

SWANWICH, a town of Dorsetshire, in Purbeck isle; 2 miles from London.

* **SWAP**. *adv.* [*ad swipa*, to do at a snatch, Islandick.] Hastily; with hasty violence: as, he did it *swap*. It seems to be of the same original with *swarp*. A low word.

* **TO SWAP**. *v. a.* To exchange. See **TO SWOP**.

* **SWARD**. *n. s.* [*sward*, Swedish.] 1. The skin of bacon. 2. The surface of the ground; whence *green sward*, or *green sward*.—Water, kept too long, loosens and softens the *sward*. *Note on Tusser*.

The noon of night was past, and then the foe
Came dreadful o'er the level *sward*. *A. Phillips*.
—To plant a vineyard in July, when the earth is very dry and combustible, plow up the *swarthy*, and burn it. *Mortimer*.

* **SWARE**. The preterite of *swear*.

SWARKSTON, a town of England, in Derbyshire, on the road from Derby to Ahby de la Zouch; which has a bridge over the Trent, with 39 arches, supposed to be the longest in Europe, except that of Eszek, in Hungary. (See **ESZEK**.) It extends across the meadows about a mile; but the battlements are low.

SWARLAN, a river of Sweden, in Nericia, which runs into Lake Hielmas, near Orebro.

* **SWARM**. *n. s.* [*swarm*, Saxon; *swarm*, Dutch.] 1. A great body or number of bees, or other small animals, particularly those of bees that migrate from the hive.—

A *swarm* of bees that cut the liquid fly.

Dryden

2. A multitude; a crowd.—

From this *swarm* of fair advantages

You grip'd the general sway.

Shak.

—If we could number up those prodigious *swarms* that had settled themselves in every part of it, they would amount to more than can be found.

Addison.—

This *swarm* of themes that settles on my pen,
Which I, like summer flies, shake off again,
Let others sing.

Young.

* **TO SWARM**. *v. a.* [*swearman*, Saxon; *swermen*, Dutch.] 1. To rise as bees in a body, and quit the hive.—

Some found the trumpet for the rest to
swarm.

Dryden.

Swarm'd on a rotten stick the bees I spy'd.

Gay.

—When bees hang in *swarming* time, they will presently rise. *Mortimer*. 2. To appear in multitudes; to crowd; to throng.—

The merciless Macdonel,

The multiplying villanies of nature

Do *swarm* upon.

Shak.

Our superfluous lacqueys, and our peasants,

Who in unnecessary action *swarm*

About our squares of battle.

Shak.

What a multitude of thoughts at once

Awaken'd in me *swarm*!

Milton.

In crowds around the *swarming* people join.

Dryden.

3. To be crowded; to be over-run; to be thronged.—Throughout all Ireland, every place *swarms* with soldiers. *Spenser*.—Her lower region *swarms* with all sorts of fowl. *Hoswel*.—Those days *swarmed* with fables. *Brown*.—

Life *swarms* with ills, the boldest are afraid;
Where then is safety for a tender maid? *Young*.

4. To breed multitudes.—

Not so thick *swarmed* once the foil

Bedropp'd with blood of Gorgon.

Milton.

5. It is used in conversation for climbing a tree, by embracing it with the arms and legs.

* **SWART**. **SWARTH**. *adj.* [*swarts*, Gothic; *swarti*, Saxon; *swart*, Dutch.] 1. Black; darkly brown; tawney.—

A nation strange, with visage *swart*. *Spenser*.

A man

Of *swarth* complexion.

Spenser.

I was black and *swart* before.

Shak.

No goblin, or *swart* fairy of the mine,

Hath hurtful power o'er true virginity. *Milton*.

4. In *Milton* it seems to signify gloomy; malignant.—

Ye valleys low,

On whose fresh lap the *swart* star sparsely looks.

Milton.

* **TO SWART**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To blacken; to dusk.—The heat of the sun may *swart* a living part. *Bacon*.

SWARTA.

SWARTA, a town of Sweden, in Sudermanland; 4 miles NE. of Nykiöping.

SWART-BEGGER, a mountain of Sweden, in Dalecarlia, abounding with iron ore. See **IRON**, § 9.

SWARTEBERG, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 18 miles NW. of Uddevalla.

* **SWARTH**. See **SWART**.

* **SWARTHILY**. *adv.* [from *swarthy*.] Blackly; duskyly; tawnily.

* **SWARTHINESS**. *n. s.* [from *swarthy*.] Darkness of complexion; tawiness.

* **SWARTHY**. *adj.* [See **SWART**.] Dark of complexion; black; dusky; tawney.—

The *swarthy* Africans complain. *Roscommon*.
—In the torrid climates the common colour is black or *swarthy*. *Hale*.—

Here *swarthy* Charles appears. *Addison*.

Their *swarthy* hosts would darken all our plains. *Addison*.

SWARTOW, a river of Germany, in Holstein, which joins the Trave, 3 miles N. of Lubeck.

SWARTSLUYS, a town and fort of Holland, in the dep. of Yssel, and late prov. of Overysseck on the Vecht, in a marshy country; defended by five bastions. It is 18 miles W. of Covorden, and 33 N. of Zutphen.

(1.) * **SWASH**. *n. s.* [A cant word.] A figure whose circumference is not round, but oval; and whose moldings lie not at right angles, but oblique to the axis of the work. *Moxon*.

(2.) * **SWASH**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Impulse of water flowing with violence. *Diss*.

* **To SWASH**. *v. n.* To make a great clatter or noise; whence *swashbuckler*. Not in use.—

We'll have a *swashing* and a martial outside. *Shak*.

—Gregory, remember thy *swashing* blow. *Shak*.

SWASH-BUCKLER. *n. s.* [*swash* and *buckler*.] A vain-glorious sword-player; a vapouring fellow. *Ash*.

* **SWASHER**. *n. s.* [from *swash*.] One who makes a flow of valour or force of arms. Obsolete.—I have observed these three *swashers*; three such antics do not amount to a man. *Shak*.

(1.) **SWATARA**, or **SWETARA**, a navigable river of Pennsylvania, which rises in Broad Mountain, Berks county; thence running S. by W. passes through the Blue Mountain, and receives the **LITTLE SWATARA**, (N^o 2.); thence turning SW. by S. receives the *Quitapahilla*, a navigable river; and passing by Humeltown, falls into the **SUSQUEHANNAH** below Middletown. A canal was begun in 1793, and since finished, which connects this river with the **SCHUYLKILL** and the **TULPEHOCKEN**, a distance of near 80 miles.

(2.) **SWATARA**, **LITTLE**, a small river of Pennsylvania, which runs into the **SWATARA** at Jonestown.

* **SWATCH**. *n. s.* A *swathe*. Not in use.—

Barlie in *swatches* may fill it thereby. *Tusser*.

* **SWATH**. *n. s.* [*swade*, Dutch.] 1. A line of grass cut down by the mower.—

Grass, lately in *swathes*, is meat for an ox. *Tusser*.

The *straw* Greeks, ripe for his edge,
Fall down before him, like the mower's *swath*. *Shak*.

—If it lie thick in the *swath*, neither air nor fun can pass freely through it. *Mortimer*. 2. A continued quantity.—An affection'd ass, that cons state without book, and utters it by great *swaths*. *Shak*.

3. [*Spedan*, to bind, Saxon.] A band; a fillet.—An Indian comb, adorned with fine straws laid along the sides, and lapped round about it in several distinct *swaths*. *Grew*.—Long pieces of linen they folded about me, till they had wrapped me in above 100 yards of *swath*. *Spekator*.

* **To SWATHE**. *v. n.* [*swedan*, Saxon.] To bind as a child with bands and rollers.—

He had two sons; the eldest three years old, I th' *swathing* cloaths the other. *Shak*.

—Their children are never *swathed*. *Abbot*.—

Swath'd in her lap the bold nurse bore him out. *Dryden*.

Master's feet are *swath'd* no longer. *Prior*.

SWATKA, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim; 8 miles W. of Politzka.

SWATTERAGH, a town of Ireland, in the county of Derry, and province of Ulster.

SWAVESEY, a small town of England, in Cambridgeshire, SE. of St Ives.

* **SWAY**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. The swing or sweep of a weapon.—

To strike with huge two-handed *sway*. *Milton*.

2. Any thing moving with bulk and power.—

Are not you mov'd, when all the *sway* of earth
Shakes like a thing unfirm? *Shak*.

3. Weight; preponderation; cast of the balance.—

When to advance, or stand, or turn the *sway*
Of battle. *Milton*.

4. Power; rule; dominion.—This was but to please the minds of the people, to the end they might think their own *sway* somewhat. *Hooker*.—

The *sway*, revenue, execution of th' heft,
Beloved sons, be yours. *Shak*.

Her father counts it dangerous
That she should give her sorrow so much *sway*. *Shak*.

Each thinks a world too little for his *sway*. *Dryden*.

When vice prevails, and impious men bear *sway*,
The post of honour is a private station. *Addis*.

5. Influence; direction; weight on one side.—

In the end, very few excepted, all became subject to the *sway* of time. *Hook*.—An evil mind in authority doth not only follow the *sway* of the desires already within it, but frames to itself new desires. *Sidney*.—

The branches bend before their sweepy *sway*. *Dryden*.

(1.) * **To SWAY**. *v. a.* [*schweben*, German, to move.] 1. To wave in the hand; to move or wield any thing massy: as, to *sway* the sceptre.—

Heavy hammers on the wedge are *sway'd*. *Spenser*.

2. To bias; to direct to either side.—

Heav'n forgive them, that so much have *sway'd*
Your majesty's good thoughts away from me. *Shak*.

I took your hands; but was, indeed,
Sway'd from the point. *Shak*.

Sway'd from the point. *Bowie*.

Bowls run true by being made

On purpose false, and to be *sway'd*. *Hudibras*.
—Let not temporal and little advantages *sway*
you against a more durable interest. *Tillotson*.
3. To govern; to rule; to overpower; to influ-
ence.—

The lady's mad: yet if 'twere so,

She could not *sway* her house. *Shak.*

The will of man is by his reason *sway'd*. *Sh.*

On Europe thence, and where Rome was to
sway

The world. *Milton.*

A gentle nymph, not far from hence,
That with moist curb *sways* the smooth Severn
Acren;

Sabrina is her name. *Milton.*

Take heed lest passion *sway*

Thy judgment. *Milton.*

—The judgment is *swayed* by passion. *Glanv.*

This was the race

To *sway* the world. *Dryden.*

Yet those I *sway'd*

With powerful speech. *Dryden.*

—All is *sway'd* by particular malice. *Dowdant.*

(2.) * To *SWAY*. *v. n.* 1. To hang heavy; to
be drawn by weight.—The balance *sways* on our
part. *Bacon*. 2. To have weight; to have influ-
ence.—The example of sundry churches doth
sway much. *Hooker*. 3. To bear rule; to go-
vern.—

The mind I *sway* by, and the heart I bear. *Sh.*

Had'st thou *sway'd* as kings should do,

They never then had sprung. *Shak.*

—Aged tyranny *sways* not as it hath power, but
as it is suffered. *Shak.*

There let him still victor *sway*. *Milton.*

* To *SWEAL*. See To *SWALE*.

(1.) * To *SWEAR*. *v. n.* preter. *swore* or
sware; part. pass. *sworn*. [*savaran*, Gothick;
sawerian, Saxon; *swerecen*, Dutch.] 1. To ob-
test some superior power; to utter an oath.—If
a man *swear* an oath to bind his soul, he shall not
break his word. *Numbers*.—

Savage Indians *swear* by Anna's name. *Tickel.*

2. To declare or promise upon oath.—

—We shall have old *swearing*. *Shak.*

I gave my love a ring and made him *swear*
Never to part with it. *Shak.*

—When I *swear*, it is irrevocable. *Shak.*—Jacob
said, *swear* to me; and he *swore* unto him. *Gen.*—
He *swore* he had rather lose all his father's images
than that table. *Peacham*. 3. To give evidence
upon oath.—

Corrupt minds procure knaves as corrupt

To *swear* against you? *Shak.*

4. To obtest the great name profanely.—Because
of *swearing* the land mourneth. *Jer.*

Swear not. *Shak.*

—None so nearly disposed to scoffing at religion,
as those who have accustomed themselves to
swear on trifling occasions. *Tillotson*—

Teach the neighbouring echoes how to *swear*.

(2.) * To *SWEAR*. *v. a.* 1. To put to an oath;
to bind by an oath administered.—Moses had
bravely *sworn* the children of Israel. *Ex. xiii. 19.*—
I can swim like a duck, I'll be *sworn*. *Shak.*

Let me *swear* you all to secrecy. *Dryden*

2. To declare upon oath; as, *be sworn treason a-*
gainst his friend. 3. To obtest by an oath.—

King, thou *swarest* by thy gods in vain. *Shak.*

* *SWEARER*. *n. s.* [from *swear*.] A wretch
who obtests the great name wantonly and pro-
fanely.—

—Who must hang them?

—Why the honest men!

—Then the liars and *swearers* are fools; for there
are liars and *swearers* enow to beat the honest men
and hang them up. *Shak.*—

The cheap *swearer* through his open sluice
Lets his soul run for nought. *Herbert.*

—Of all men a philosopher should be no *swearer*.
Brown.—It is the opinion of our most refined
swearers, that the same oath cannot, consistently
with true politeness, be repeated above nine
times in the same company. *Swift.*

SWEARING, part. *n. s.* See *OATH*.

(1.) * *SWEAT*. *n. s.* [*sweat*, Saxon; *sweet*,
Dutch.] 1. The matter evacuated at the pores by
heat or labour.—*Sweat* is salt in taste; for that
part of the nourishment which is fresh and sweet,
turneth into blood and flesh; and the *sweat* is
that part which is excreed. *Bacon*.—Some in-
sensible effluvia, exhaling out of the stone,
comes to be checked and condensed by the air,
as it happens to *sweat* on the skins of animals.
Boyle.—

Soft on the flow'ry herb I found me laid
In balmy *sweat*. *Milton.*

A cold *sweat* stands in drops on ev'ry part.
Dryden.

—*Sweat* is produced by changing the balance be-
tween the fluids and solids, in which health con-
sists. *Arbuthnot*. 2. Labour; toil; drudgery.—
This painful labour of abridging was not easy, but
a matter of *sweat* and watching. *2 Mac. ii. 26.*—

The field
To labour calls us, now with *sweat* impos'd.

What from Johnson's oil and *sweat* did flow.
Derham.

3. Evaporation of moisture.—Those that are to
be kept are not to be thrashed 'till Much, that
they may have had a thorough *sweat* in the mow.
Mortimer.—

(2.) *SWEAT*. See *ANATOMY*, *Index*, and *PER-*
SPIRATION, § 2. The excess of sweat dries and
weakens the body, deprives the humours of their
watery parts, and induces the blood to an inflam-
matory and atrabiliary disposition. A sudden
suppression of it will hurt as well as a suppres-
sion of perspiration. In cases of excessive sweat-
ing, from hard labour, many people ruin their
health for life, and sometimes even bring on sudden
death, by too suddenly exposing themselves to cold
air, taking cold drinks, &c. In all cases of exces-
sive perspiration, the most speedy and effectual an-
tidote against all dangerous consequences is a glass
of spirits, and keeping moderately warm till the
perspiration wear gradually off. All persons ex-
posed by their daily labour to excessive sweating,
should wear flannel next their skin.

(1.) * To *SWEAT*. *v. n.* preterite *swet*, *sweated*;
particip. pass. *swatzen*, [from the noun.] 1. To
be moist on the body with heat or labour.—

Why *sweat* they under burthens? *Shak.*

—Mistress

—Mistress Page at the door, *sewating* and blowing, and looking wildly. *Shak.*—

With such an agony, he *sewated* exceedingly. *Shak.*

—There reigned in the city a disease then new; which, of the accidents and manner thereof, they called the *sewating* sickness. *Bacon.*—

Sweating beneath a shield's unruly weight. *Cowley.*

2. To toil; to labour; to drudge.—

How the drudging goblin *sewats*! *Milton.*

To please you, he'd have the poets *sewate*. *Waller.*

3. To emit moisture.—Wainfcoats will *sewate* fo that they run with water. *Bacon.*—In cold evenings there will be a moisture or *sewating* upon the stool. *Mortimer.*

(1.) * *To SWEAT. v. a. 1.* To emit as sweat.—

Grease that's *sewaten*

From the murderer's gibbet. *Shak.*

For him the rich Arabia *sewats* her gum. *Dryd.*

2. To make to sweat.

* *SWEATER. n. f.* [from *sweat*.] One who sweats.

(1.) *SWEATING. part. n. f.* See *SWEAT*, § 2.

(2.) *SWEATING SICKNESS*, a disorder which appeared in England about 1481, and was by foreigners called the *English sweat*. It returned again in 1485; then in 1505; afterwards in 1517. It appeared again in 1528 or 1529, at which time alone it spread itself to the Netherlands and Germany; a circumstance which shows the impropriety of calling it the *English sweat*, in Latin, *sudor Anglicanus*: besides, Sennertus takes notice, that it spread as far as Denmark, Norway, and France. It raged again in 1548. And the last return of it in London was in 1551, when it was so violent as in one day to take off 120 of the inhabitants of Westminster. Some were seized abroad and cut off in the road, others at home; some when awake, others when fast asleep. Some died in a moment, and others in one, two, three, four, or more hours after they began to sweat.

* *SWEATY. adj.* [from *sweat*.] 1. Covered with sweat; moist with sweat.—The rabblement houted and clasp'd their chop'd hands, and threw up their *sweaty* night-caps. *Shak.*—

A *sweaty* reaper from his tillage brought First-fruits. *Milton.*

2. Consisting of sweat.—

No noisome whiffs, or *sweaty* steams. *Swift.*

3. Laborious; toilsome.—

Those who labour

The *sweaty* forge. *Prior.*

SWEDE. n. f. A native of SWEDEN.

(1.) *SWEDEN*, one of the most northerly kingdoms of Europe, lying between Lat. 55° 20' and 69° 30' N. and between Lon. 12° and 32° E. of London. On the S. it is bounded by the Baltic, on the N. by Danish Lapland, on the E. by Muscovy, and on the W. by the mountains of Norway; being 800 miles in length, and 350 in breadth. *Stockholm* is the capital.

(2.) *SWEDEN*, ANCIENT HISTORY OF. The early history of Sweden is no less involved in fables than that of most other nations. *Affredius* gives a chronological list of 149 monarchs of Sweden, from *MACOG*, the son of *Japhet*, and

grandson of Noah, who, he says, began to reign in Sweden and Gothland, A. M. 1745, 83 years after the flood, to Q. *Christina*; in 1633: Others affirm, that ancient SCANDINAVIA was first governed by judges elected for a certain time by the voice of the people. Among these temporary princes the country was divided, until A. M. 2054, when Eric I. was raised to the supreme power, with the prerogatives of all the temporary magistrates united in his person for life. From this very early period till 1366 of the Christian era, the histories of Sweden present us with nothing but what is common to all nations in their early periods, viz. the endless combats and massacres of barbarians, tending to no other purpose than the effusion of blood, and the temporary acquisition of a little territory. At this time, however, Albert of Mecklenburg, having concluded a peace between Sweden and Denmark, which had been at violent war for some time before, was proclaimed king of Sweden.

(3.) *SWEDEN*, CLIMATE OF. See § 60.

(4.) *SWEDEN*, HISTORY OF, FROM ALBERT'S ACCESSION TILL THE DEATH OF Q. MARGARET. The peace above mentioned (§ 2.), was of short duration, being broken in 1368; on which Albert entered into an offensive and defensive league with the earl of Holstein, the Jutland nobility, the dukes of Sleswick, Mecklenburg, and the Hanse Towns, against the kings of Denmark and Norway. Albert proved very successful against Waldemar king of Denmark at that time, driving him entirely out of his dominions; but he himself was defeated by the king of Norway, who laid siege to his capital. Soon after this, a new treaty of peace was concluded, by which Albert was allowed to enjoy the crown of Sweden in peace. However, having formed a design of rendering himself absolute, he fell under the displeasure of his subjects, and Margaret of Norway was proclaimed queen of Sweden by the malecontents. A war immediately ensued, in which Albert was defeated and taken prisoner; but as the princes of Mecklenburg, the earls of Holstein, and the Hanse Towns, entered into a league in his favour, the war was so far from being extinguished by this event, that it raged with more fury than ever. At length, in 1394, the contending parties came to an accommodation. Albert was set at liberty, on condition that he should in three years surrender to Margaret all pretensions to the city of Stockholm; and the Hanse Towns engaged to pay 60,000 marks of silver in case of Albert's breach of faith. Not long after this, Eric the son of Albert died; and he, having no other child, did not think it worth his while to contend for the kingdom of Sweden: he therefore acquiesced in the pretensions of Margaret, and passed the remainder of his days at Mecklenburg. Margaret died in 1414 or 1415. See DENMARK, § 5, 6; and MARGARET, N° 4.

(5.) *SWEDEN*, HISTORY OF, FROM ERIC XIII. TILL THE DEATH OF CHARLES VIII. Margaret was succeeded by Eric XIII. of Pomerania. This prince's reign was cruel and oppressive to the last degree. The people were ruined by taxes; and the Danes being everywhere preferred to the offices of power, committed the greatest cruelties. The consequence of this was a revolt; and Charles

Charles Canutson, grand marshal of Sweden and governor of Finland, having joined the malecontents, was declared commander in chief of their army. Eric was now formally deposed, and commenced pirate: Canutson was chosen regent: but beginning to oppress the people, and aspiring openly at the crown, the Swedes and Danes revolted; in consequence of which a revolution took place, and Christopher duke of Bavaria, nephew to Eric, was chosen king of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, in 1442. On the accession of the new prince, complaints against Canutson were brought from all quarters; but, through the interest of his friends, he escaped punishment; and in 1448, Christopher having died after a tyrannical reign of five years, he was raised to the throne by the name of Charles VIII. However, the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway refused to own allegiance to him; upon which a war immediately commenced. In 1454 peace was concluded, and Denmark for the present freed from the Swedish yoke. Neither did Charles VIII. long enjoy the crown of Sweden. Having quarrelled with the archbishop of Upsal, the latter formed such a strong party that the king could not resist him. Christian I. king of Denmark was called to the throne of Sweden; and, in 1459, once more united the three kingdoms. But having begun to oppress his subjects in an arbitrary manner, he was soon after obliged to retire to Denmark in 1463. Katil bishop of Linköping, who had driven out the king, took upon himself the office of regent. Next year Christian returned with a powerful army, but was defeated. The people then recalled Charles; but he, on his accession, having offended bishop Katil, was by him defeated, and obliged to renounce his right to the crown. After this the kingdom was rent into factions, between whom the most cruel civil wars took place, until 1476, when Charles was again recalled, and enjoyed the kingdom, though not without opposition, till his death, in 1470.

(6.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLES VIII. TILL THE ELECTION OF CHRISTIAN II. AND THE MASSACRE OF THE NOBILITY. The confusion in which the Swedish affairs had been so long involved did not cease on the death of Charles. Christian again invaded Sweden; but was defeated by Steno Sture, nephew of the late king. After this the kingdom remained in peace till 1487, when the Russians invaded Carelia, committing every where the greatest ravages. These were soon driven out: but in 1497, a rupture happening between Sture and the senate, an offer was made of the Swedish crown to John king of Denmark, who readily accepted the offer, and was crowned accordingly; but no sooner was he seated on the throne than he became odious to the Swedes, from his partiality to the Danes. In a short time he set out for Denmark, leaving his queen with a strong garrison in the citadel of Stockholm. He was no sooner gone than the capital was invested; and though the queen made a noble defence, she was obliged to capitulate, on condition of being allowed to pass into Denmark. All the garrison were made prisoners of war, and the queen was confined in a monastery till 1498. The Swedish

affairs continued to be involved in the same dreadful confusion until 1520, when a great revolution was effected by GUSTAVUS VASA, the son of Eric Vasa, a nobleman of the first rank, who restored the kingdom to its liberty, and laid the foundation of its future grandeur. The occasion of this great revolution was as follows: In 1518, Christian II. king of Denmark invaded Sweden, with a design to subdue the whole country; but being defeated with great loss by young STENO STURE, then regent, he set sail for Denmark. But meeting with contrary winds, he made several descents on the Swedish coast, which he ravaged with all the fury of an incensed barbarian. The inhabitants, however, bravely defended themselves, and Christian was reduced to the utmost distress; one half of his forces having perished with hunger, and the other being in the most imminent danger by the approach of a rigorous winter. He then thought of a stratagem, which had almost proved fatal to the regent; for having invited him to a conference, at which he designed either to assassinate or take him prisoner, Sture was about to comply, had not the senate, who suspected the plot, interposed and prevented him. Christian then offered to go in person to Stockholm to confer with Sture, upon condition that six hostages should be sent in his room. This was accordingly done; but the wind happening then to prove favourable, he set sail for Denmark with the hostages. Next year he returned; and having drawn Sture into an ambush, the regent received a wound of which he died soon after. The kingdom being thus left without a head, matters soon came to the most desperate crisis. The army disbanded itself; and the senate, instead of taking proper measures to oppose the enemy, spent their time in idle debates. Christian, in the mean time, advanced into the heart of the kingdom, destroying every thing with fire and sword; but on his arrival at Strängnäs, he granted a suspension of arms, to give the people time to deliberate on their situation, and to reflect that they might easily get rid of their troubles by electing him king. This they accordingly did; and Christian proved one of the most bloody tyrants that ever sat on the throne of any kingdom. Immediately after his coronation, he gave grand entertainments for three days; during which time he projected the diabolical design of extirpating at once all the Swedish nobility, and actually executed above 60 people of the first rank. Innumerable other cruelties were committed. At last he departed for Denmark, ordering gibbets to be erected, and causing the peasants to be hanged on them for the slightest offences, as he passed along; and at Jönköping he caused two boys to be whipped to death.

(7.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE DANES BY GUSTAVUS VASA. This monstrous cruelty, instead of securing him on the throne, exasperated the whole nation against him. GUSTAVUS VASA was among the hostages whom Christian had perfidiously carried to Denmark in 1519. Large promises had been made to reconcile him to Christian, and threats had been used for the same purpose, but all in vain. Banner, a Danish nobleman, prevailed on the king to put him into his hands, to try whether

he

he could prevail upon him to change his sentiments. The king, however, told Banner, that he must pay 6000 crowns in case the prisoner should make his escape. Banner generously assented; and having brought the noble prisoner to his fortress of Calo in Jutland, soon allowed him all the liberty he could desire, and otherwise heaped favours upon him. All this, however, could not extinguish his remembrance of the cruelties of Christian, and the desire he had of being serviceable to his country. He therefore determined to make his escape. With much difficulty, and under various disguises, he effected his escape, which Banner was no sooner acquainted with, than he set out after him, and found him at Lubec. He reproached him as ungrateful and treacherous; but he was soon appeased by the arguments urged by Gustavus, and by the promise he made of indemnifying him for the loss of his ransom. Upon this Banner returned, giving out that he could not find his prisoner. Christian, enraged at his escape, ordered Otho his general to do his utmost to arrest him. Gustavus applied to the regency for a ship to convey him to Sweden, but the captain steered a different course, and put him on shore near Calmar; a city hitherto garrisoned by the troops of Christiana, widow of the regent. When Gustavus arrived, he made himself known to the governor and the principal officers of the garrison, who were mostly Germans, and his fellow-soldiers in the late administrator's army. He flattered himself that his birth, his merit, and his connections, would immediately procure him the command. But they seeing him without troops and without attendants, threatened to kill or betray him, if he did not instantly quit the city. Thus disappointed, Gustavus departed with great expedition; and his arrival being known, he was again forced to have recourse to disguise to conceal himself from the Danish emissaries who were in search of him. In a waggon loaded with hay, he passed through every quarter of the Danish army, and at last repaired to an old family castle in Sudermania. From hence he wrote to his friends, notifying his return to Sweden, and beseeching them to assemble all their forces to break through the enemy's army into Stockholm, at that time besieged; but they, too, refused to embark in so hazardous and desperate an attempt. He next applied to the peasants; but they also refused to engage. At length, after several vain attempts to throw himself into Stockholm, and disappointed in all his hopes, he determined to apply to the Dalecarlians. Attended by a peasant, to whom he was known, he travelled in disguise through Sudermania, Nericia, and Westermania, and, after a laborious and painful journey, arrived in the mountains of Dalecarlia. Scarce had he finished his journey, when he found himself deserted by his companion and guide, who carried off with him all the money he had provided for his subsistence. Thus forlorn, destitute, half starved, he entered among the miners, and wrought like a slave under ground; here he continued until he was discovered accidentally by a gentleman, his acquaintance, in the neighbourhood, who offered him an asylum in his house. This he joyfully accepted; but finding it impos-

sible to make him take arms in his behalf, he fled to the house of one Peterfon with whom he had formerly served. This last proved a traitor to his friend, and Gustavus would have been delivered to the Danes, had he not received timely warning from the wife of his host. By her advice he took refuge with a clergyman, who shut him up in an apartment adjoining to the church, and counselled him to apply at once to the peasants at an approaching annual festival. They listened to him with enthusiasm, and he instantly led them against the governor's castle; which he took by assault, and put the garrison to the sword. This inconsiderable enterprise was attended with the most happy consequences. Great numbers of the peasants flocked to his standard; some of the gentry openly espoused his cause, and others supplied him with money. Christian was soon acquainted with what had passed; but despising such an inconsiderable enemy, he sent only a slender detachment under the command of one Soren Norby, to assist his adherents in Dalecarlia. Gustavus advanced with about 5000 men, and defeated a body of Danes commanded by one Melcen; but he was strenuously opposed by the archbishop of Upsal, who raised numerous forces for king Christian. The fortune of Gustavus, however, still prevailed, and the archbishop was defeated with great loss.

(8.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE ELECTION OF GUSTAVUS I. KING. Gustavus then laid siege to Stockholm; but his force being too inconsiderable for such an undertaking, he was forced to abandon it with loss. This check did not prove in any considerable degree detrimental to the affairs of Gustavus; the peasants from all parts of the kingdom flocked to his camp, and he was joined by a reinforcement from Lubec. Christian, unable to suppress the revolt, wreaked his vengeance on the mother and sisters of Gustavus, whom he put to death with the most excruciating torments. Several other Swedish ladies he caused to be thrown into the sea, after having imposed on them the inhuman task of making the sacks into which they were to be inclosed. His barbarities served only to make his enemies more resolute. Gustavus having assembled the states at Wadstena, he was unanimously chosen regent, the diet taking an oath of fidelity to him, and promising to assist him to the utmost. Having thus obtained the sanction of legal authority, he pursued his advantages against the Danes. A body of troops appointed to throw succours into Stockholm were totally cut in pieces; and the regent sending some troops into Finland, struck the Danes there with such terror, that the archbishop of Upsal, together with Slaborg and Baldenacker the Danish governors, fled to Denmark. He then sent express orders to all his governors and officers in Finland and Sweden to massacre the Swedish gentry without distinction. The Swedes made reprisals by massacring all the Danes they could find; so that the whole country was filled with bloodshed and slaughter. In the mean time Gustavus had laid siege to the towns of Calmar, Abo, and Stockholm; but Norby obliged him to raise all of them with loss. Gustavus, in revenge, laid siege to the capital a third time, and petitioned the

the regency of Lubeck for a squadron of ships and other succours for carrying on the siege. This was complied with, but on very hard conditions, viz. that Gustavus should oblige himself, in the name of the states, to pay 60,000 marks of silver as the expence of the armament; that, until the kingdom should be in a condition to pay that sum, the Lubeck merchants trading to Sweden should be exempted from all duties on imports or exports; that all other nations should be prohibited from trading with Sweden, and that such traffic should be deemed illicit; that Gustavus should neither conclude a peace, nor even agree to a truce with Denmark, without the concurrence of the regency of Lubeck; and that in case the republic should be attacked by Christian, he should enter Denmark at the head of 20,000 men. Upon these hard terms did Gustavus obtain assistance from the regency of Lubeck; nor did his dear bought allies prove very faithful. They did not indeed go over to the enemy; but in a sea-fight, where the Danes were entirely in the power of their enemies, they suffered them to escape, when their whole force might have been entirely destroyed. This treachery had well nigh ruined the affairs of Gustavus; for Norby was now making preparations effectually to relieve Stockholm: in which he probably would have succeeded; but at this critical period news arrived that the Danes had unanimously revolted, and driven Christian from the throne; and that the king had retired into Germany, in hopes of being restored by the arms of his brother-in-law, the emperor. On hearing this news, Norby retired with his whole fleet to the island of Gothland, leaving but a slender garrison in Calmar. Gustavus did not fail to improve this opportunity to his own advantage, and quickly made himself master of Calmar. Mean time Stockholm continued closely invested; but Gustavus protracted the siege until he should get himself elected king. Having, for this purpose called a general diet, the first step was to fill up the vacancy in the senate occasioned by the massacres of Christian. Gustavus had the address to get such nominated as were in his interest; and of consequence the assembly was no sooner met, than a speech was made, containing the highest encomiums on Gustavus, setting forth in the strongest light the many eminent services he had done for his country, and concluding that the states would show themselves equally ungrateful and blind to their own interest, if they did not immediately elect him king. This proposal was acceded to by such tumultuous acclamations that it was impossible to collect the votes; so that Gustavus himself acknowledged, that their affection exceeded his merit, and was more agreeable to him than the effects of their gratitude.

(9.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF GUSTAVUS I. Gustavus on his election was urged to have the ceremony of his coronation immediately performed; but the king having some designs on the clergy, did not think proper to comply with their request, as he would have been obliged to take an oath to preserve them in their rights and privileges. Indeed he had not been long seated on the throne before he incurred the displeasure of that body; for having large ar-

rears due to the army, with other incumbrances, Gustavus found it necessary to raise large contributions on the clergy. On this he was accused of avarice and hereby before the pope's nuncio. Gustavus defended himself against these accusations; and soon after showed a great partiality for the doctrines of Luther, which by this time had been preached and received by many people in Sweden. This embroiled him more than ever with the clergy; and it soon appeared, that either Gustavus must resign his throne, or the clergy some part of the power they had assumed. Matters were driven to extremities by the king's allowing the scriptures to be translated into the Swedish language. In 1526, the king, finding them entering into a combination against the reformists, went to Upsal, and publicly declared his resolution of reducing the number of oppressive and idle monks and priests, who, under the pretence of religion, fattened on the spoils of the industrious people. At last, taking advantage of the war between the pope and Charles V. of Spain, he declared himself to be of the reformed religion, and established it throughout his dominions; and at the same time, to humble the arrogance of the ecclesiastics, he gave the senators the precedence of them, and in many other respects degraded them from the dignities they formerly enjoyed. For some time the states hesitated at supporting the king in his work of reformation; inasmuch, that at last he threatened to resign the kingdom, which he said, was doomed to perpetual slavery either to its temporal or spiritual tyrants. On this the states came into his measures, and retrenched the privileges of the ecclesiastics in the manner he proposed. Several disturbances however ensued. An impostor, who pretended to be of the family of Sture, the former regent having claimed the throne, the Dalecarlians revolted in his favour; but on the approach of a powerful army sent by Gustavus, they submitted. Soon after Lutheran professors were established in every diocese; upon which a new rebellion ensued. At the head of this was Thure Johanesson, who had married the king's sister. Several of the nobility joined him; and the king of Denmark acceded to their cause, thinking, by means of these disturbances, to reunite the three kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, as formerly. But Gustavus prevailed, and the rebels were obliged to take refuge in Denmark. A fresh accident, however, had like to have embroiled matters worse than before. The subsidy granted to the regency of Lubeck was still due; and for the payment of it the states granted to the king all the useless bells of the churches and monasteries. The people were shocked at the sacrilege; and the Dalecarlians again betook themselves to arms. Intimidated, however, by the courage and vigorous conduct of the king, they again submitted, and were taken into favour. But tranquillity was not yet restored. Christian having established a powerful interest in Norway, once more made an attempt to recover his kingdoms, and was joined by the Dalecarlians; but being defeated by the Swedish forces, he was forced to return to Norway, where, being obliged to capitulate with the Danish generals, he was

hapt

kept prisoner all his life. In 1542, Gustavus having happily extricated himself out of all his troubles, prevailed on the states to make the crown hereditary in his family; after which he applied himself to the encouragement of learning and commerce. A treaty was set on foot for a marriage between his eldest son Eric and Elizabeth queen of England. The prince's brother, duke John, went over to England, and resided for some time at the court of London with great splendour. He returned full of expectations of success; but bringing with him no sort of proofs in writing, his father soon perceived that he had been the dupe of Elizabeth's superior policy. However, at last he allowed Prince Eric to go in person to England; but before he could embark, the death of Gustavus, in 1569, made him lay aside all thoughts of the voyage and marriage.

(10.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEPOSITION OF ERIC XIV. Gustavus Vasa was succeeded by his son Eric XIV. The new king was a man possessed of all the exterior ornaments which give an air of dignity to the person; but he had neither the prudence nor the penetration of his father. He created the first nobility that were ever known in Sweden; which he had no sooner done than he quarrelled with them, by passing some acts which they thought derogatory to their honour and dignity. The whole course of his reign was disturbed by wars with Denmark, and disputes with his own subjects. In the former he was unfortunate, and towards the latter he behaved with the greatest cruelty. At last, by the torments of his own conscience, it is said, he run mad. He afterwards recovered his senses, but was dethroned by his brothers; of whom Duke John, who had been hitherto kept prisoner by Eric, succeeded him in the kingdom.

(11.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEPOSITION OF SIGISMUND, AND DEATH OF CHARLES IX. This revolution took place in 1568, but with no great advantage to Sweden. Disputes about religion between the king and his brother, and wars with Muscovy, threw matters into the utmost confusion. At last prince Sigismund, the king's son, was chosen king of Poland, which proved the source of much trouble to the kingdom. (See POLAND, § 19.) In 1590 king John died: and as Sigismund was at a distance, every thing fell into the utmost confusion: the treasury was plundered, and the wardrobe quite spoiled, before even duke Charles could come to Stockholm to take the administration into his hands, until king Sigismund should return. This, however, was far from being the greatest disaster which befel the nation at this time. It was known that the king had embraced the Popish religion, and it was with good reason suspected that he would attempt to restore it upon his arrival in Sweden. Sigismund also was obliged, on leaving Poland, to promise that he would stay no longer in Sweden than was necessary to regulate his affairs. These circumstances served to alienate the minds of the Swedes from their sovereign even before they saw him; and the universal dissatisfaction was increased, by seeing him attended, on his arrival in Sweden, in 1593, by Malaspina the pope's nuncio, to whom he made a present of

30,000 ducats to defray the expences of his journey to Sweden. What the people had foreseen was too well verified: the king refused to confirm the Protestants in their religious privileges, and showed such partiality on all occasions to the Papists, that a party was formed against him; at the head of which was duke Charles his uncle. Remonstrances, accompanied with threats, took place on both sides; and at an interview between the king and Charles, the dispute would have ended in blows, had they not been parted by some of the nobility. This, however, made such an impression upon Sigismund, that he was apparently reconciled to his brother, and promised to comply with the inclinations of the people in every respect, though without any inclination to perform what he promised. The agreement, indeed, was scarce made, before Sigismund, conceived the horrid design of murdering his uncle at the Italian comedy acted the night after his coronation. The duke, however, having notice of the plot, avoided it. This enraged the king so much, that he resolved to accomplish his design by force; and therefore commanded a Polish army to march towards the frontiers of Sweden, where they committed all the ravages that could be expected from an enraged and cruel enemy. Complaints were made by the Protestant clergy to the senate: but no other reply was made them, than that they should abstain from these bitter invectives and reproaches which had provoked the Catholics until the king's departure; at which time they would be at more liberty. In 1595 Sigismund set sail for Dantzic, leaving the administration in the hands of duke Charles. The consequence of this was, that the dissensions which had already taken place being continually increased by the obstinacy of the king, duke Charles assumed the sovereign power; and in 1604 Sigismund was formally deposed, and his uncle Charles IX. raised to the throne. He proved a wife and brave prince, restoring the tranquillity of the kingdom, and carrying on a war with vigour against Poland and Denmark. He died in 1611, leaving the kingdom to his son, the celebrated GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

(12.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE CAPTURE OF RIGA, BY GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS. Though Charles IX. by his wife and vigorous conduct had in a great measure retrieved the affairs of Sweden, they were still in a very disagreeable situation. The finances of the kingdom were entirely drained by a series of wars and revolutions; powerful armies were preparing in Denmark, Poland, and Russia, while the Swedish troops were not only inferior in number to their enemies, but the government was destitute of resources for their payment. Though the Swedish law required that the prince should have attained his 18th year before he was of age, yet such striking marks of the great qualities of Gustavus appeared, that he was allowed by the states to take upon him the administration even before this early period. His first act was to resume all the crown grants, that he might be the better able to carry on the wars in which he was unavoidably engaged; and to fill all places, both civil and military, with persons of merit. At the head of do-

metic and foreign affairs was placed chancellor Oxenstiern, a person every way equal to the important trust, and the choosing of whom impressed marked with the highest opinion of the young monarch's penetration and capacity. Soon after his accession, Gustavus received an embassy from James I. of Britain, exhorting him to make peace with his neighbours. This was seconded by another from Holland. But as the king perceived that the Danish monarch intended to take every opportunity of crushing him, he resolved to act with such vigour, as might convince him that he was not easily to be overcome. Accordingly he broke into Denmark with three different armies at once; and though the enemy's superiority at sea gave them great advantages, and the number of the king's enemies distracted his attention, he carried on the war with such spirit, that in 1613 a peace was concluded upon good terms. This war being finished, the king applied himself to civil polity, and made some reformation in the laws of Sweden. In 1615, hostilities were commenced against Russia, on account of the refusal of that court to restore some money which had been formerly lent them. The king entered Ingria, took Kexholm by storm, and was laying siege to Pleskow, when, by the mediation of James I. peace was concluded, on condition of the Russians repaying the money, and yielding to Sweden some part of their territory. In this and the former war, notwithstanding the shortness of their duration, Gustavus learned the rudiments of the military art for which he soon became so famous. In one campaign, he not only learned, but improved, all the military maxims of La Gardie, a celebrated general, brought the Swedish army in general to a more steady and regular discipline than formerly had been exercised, and formed and seasoned an invincible body of Finlanders, who had afterwards a very considerable share in the victories of the Swedes. Peace was no sooner concluded with Russia, than Gustavus was crowned with great solemnity at Upsal. Soon after this, Gustavus ordered his general La Gardie to acquaint the Polish commander Ciolekowitz, that as the truce between the two kingdoms, which had been concluded for two years, was now expired, he desired to be certainly informed whether he was to expect peace or war from his master. In the mean time, having borrowed money of the Dutch for the redemption of a town from Denmark, he had an interview on the frontiers with Christian IV. At this interview, the two monarchs conceived the utmost esteem and friendship for each other; and Gustavus obtained a promise, that Christian would not assist Sigismund in any designs he might have against Sweden. In the mean time, receiving no satisfactory answer from Poland, Gustavus began to prepare for war. Sigismund entered into a negotiation, and made some pretended concessions, with a view to seize Gustavus by treachery; but the latter having intimation of his design, the whole negotiation was changed into reproaches and threats on the part of Gustavus. Immediately after this, Gustavus made a tour in disguise through Germany, and married Eleonora the daughter of the Elector of Brandenburg. He

then resolved to enter heartily into a war with Poland; and with this view set for Riga, with a great fleet, which carried 20,000 men. The place was well fortified, and defended by a body of veterans enthusiastically attached to Sigismund; but it was carried after a siege of six weeks, accompanied by much desperate fighting.

(13) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE POLES AND GERMANS BY GUSTAVUS. After the reduction of Riga, the Swedish monarch entered Courland, where he reduced Mitau; but ceded it again on the conclusion of a truce for one year. Sigismund, however, no sooner had time to recover himself, than he began to form new enterprises against the Swedes in Prussia; but Gustavus setting sail with his whole fleet for Dantzick, where the king of Poland then resided, so broke his measures, that he was obliged to prolong the truce for another year. Sigismund, however, was not yet apprised of the danger he was in, and refused to listen to any terms of accommodation; upon which Gustavus entering Livonia, defeated the Polish general, and took Dorpat, Hockenhausen, and several other places of less importance; after which, entering Lithuania, he took the city of Brien. Notwithstanding this success, Gustavus proposed peace on the same equitable terms as before; but Sigismund was still insatuated with the hopes that, by means of the emperor of Germany, he should be able to conquer Sweden. Gustavus finding him inflexible, resolved to push his good fortune. His general Horn and Thurn defeated the Poles in Semigalia. Gustavus himself with 150 ships set sail for Prussia, where he landed at Pulaw. This place was immediately delivered up to him: as were also Bransberg, Frauenberg, Elbing, Marienburg, Mew, Dirschau, Stum, Christburg, &c. Sigismund, alarmed at the great successes of Gustavus, sent a body of forces to oppose him, and to prevent Dantzick from falling into his hands. In this he was attended with as bad success as before. His troops were defeated before Marienburg, Mew, and Dirschau; and in May 1627, Gustavus arrived with fresh forces before Dantzick, which he would probably have carried, had he not been wounded in the belly by a cannon-shot. The Poles in the mean time recovered Mew; and the States of Holland sent ambassadors to mediate a peace between the two crowns. Sigismund, however, depending upon the assistance of the emperor of Germany and king of Spain, determined to hearken to no terms, and resolved to make a winter campaign; but Gustavus was so well intrenched, and all his forts were so strongly garrisoned, that the utmost efforts of the Poles were to no purpose. Dantzick in the mean time made such a desperate resistance as greatly irritated Gustavus. In a sea engagement the Swedish fleet defeated that of the enemy; after which Gustavus, having blocked up the harbour with his fleet, pushed his advances on the land side with incredible vigour. He made a surprising march over a morass 12 miles broad, assisted by bridges of a peculiar construction, over which he carried a species of light cannon invented by himself. By this unexpected manoeuvre he got the command of the city in such a manner, that the garrison

garrison were on the point of surrendering, when, by a sudden swell of the Vistula, the Swedish works were ruined, and the king was obliged to raise the siege. In other respects, however, the affairs of Gustavus went on with their usual good fortune. His general Wrangel defeated the Poles before Brodantz; and at Stum the king gained another and more considerable victory in person. In addition to these misfortunes of the Poles, a famine and plague raged in their camp, so that they were at last obliged to consent to a truce for six years, to June 1635. Gustavus restored some places, but kept the port and citadel of Memel, the harbour of Pillau, the town of Elbing, Branfb-rg, and all that he had conquered in Livonia.

(14.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF COUNT TILLY BY GUSTAVUS. Gustavus having thus brought the war with Poland to an honourable conclusion, began to think of relenting the conduct of the emperor in assisting his enemies and oppressing the Protestant states. Before embarking in such an important undertaking, it was necessary that he should consult the diet. In this the propensity of engaging in a war with Germany was warmly debated; but after much altercation, Gustavus in a very noble speech determined the matter, and set forth in such strong terms the virtuous motives by which he was actuated, that the whole assembly wept, and every thing was granted which he could require. It was not difficult for Gustavus to begin his expedition. His troops amounted to 60,000 men, hardened by a succession of severe campaigns in Russia, Finland, Livonia, and Prussia. His fleet exceeded 70 sail, carrying from 20 to 40 guns, and manned with 6000 mariners. Embarking his troops, he landed at Uedum on the 24th of June 1730, the Imperialists having evacuated all the fortresses they possessed there; and the isle of Rugen had been before reduced by general Lally, in order to secure a retreat if fortune should prove unfavourable. Passing the strait, Gustavus stormed Wolgast and another strong fortress in the neighbourhood, leaving general Banner with a garrison for the defence of these conquests. He then proceeded to Stettin; which was no sooner invested than it consented to receive a Swedish garrison, and the king persuaded the duke of Pomerania to enter into an alliance with him. In consequence of this the Swedish troops were received into several towns of Pomerania; and the most bitter enmity took place between the Imperialists and Pomeranians, each refusing the other quarter. These successes of Gustavus struck the empire with consternation; for being already overwhelmed with civil dissensions, they were in no condition to resist so impetuous an enemy. At this time also the Imperialists were without a general; but at last count Tilly was fixed upon, and invested with the dignity of Field Marshal. In the mean time the king being reinforced by a considerable body of troops in Finland and Livonia under Gustavus Horn, defeated the Imperialists before Grifenhagen; taken the place soon after by assault. By this and some other conquests he opened a passage into Lusatia and Silesia; but in the mean time count Tilly cut off 2000 Swedes at New Brandenburg, owing to the obstinacy of their com-

mander Kniphausen, who had orders to evacuate the place and join the main army. This advantage, however, was soon overbalanced by the conquest of Frankfort on the Oder, which Gustavus took by assault, making the whole garrison prisoners. Thus he commanded the rivers Elbe and Oder on both sides, and had a fair passage not only to these countries, but also to Saxony and the dominions of the house of Austria. Soon after this, Gustavus laid siege to Landsberg, which he took by assault; though the number of soldiers he had with him was so inconsiderable, that he had thoughts of sending to the main army for a reinforcement before the prisoners should march out, being apprehensive that they might give him battle in the open field, though they could not defend themselves behind walls. About this time the Protestant princes held a diet at Leipzig; to which Gustavus sent deputies, and conducted his negotiations with such address as tended greatly to promote his interests. Immediately after this he reduced Griptwald, and with it all Pomerania. Then marching to Custrów, he restored the dukes of Mecklenburg to their dominions. Here the Imperialists had tyrannized in such a manner that Gustavus was received as the deliverer of the people; and the ceremony of the duke's inauguration was performed with great solemnity. All this time count Tilly was employed in the siege of Magdeburg; but now, being alarmed at the repeated successes of the Swedes, he left Pappenheim with part of the army before that city, while he marched with the rest into Thuringia, to attack the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel and the elector of Saxony. After a most obstinate defence, Magdeburg fell into the hands of Pappenheim, where he committed all imaginable cruelties. Gustavus formed a plan of recovering the city; but relinquishing it, he ordered Banner to attack Havelsburg; which was done with such resolution, that the place was forced in a few hours, and all the garrison made prisoners. Werben was next obliged to submit after an obstinate conflict, in which many fell on both sides. These successes obliged count Tilly to attempt in person to check the progress of the Swedes. He detached the vanguard of his army, composed of the flower of the imperial cavalry, within a few miles of the Swedish camp. An action ensued, in which Bernstein the imperial general was defeated and killed, with 1500 of his men. Gustavus, after this advantage, placed himself in a situation so much superior to his enemies, that count Tilly was fired with indignation, and marched up to the Swedish lines to give him battle. Gustavus kept within his works, and Tilly attacked his camp, though almost impreguably fortified, keeping up a most terrible fire from a battery of 32 pieces of cannon; which, however, produced no other effect, than obliging the Swedish monarch to draw up his army behind the walls of Werben. Tilly had placed his chief hopes in being able to nail up the enemy's cannon, or set fire to their camp in divers quarters; after which he proposed making his grand attack. With this view he bribed some prisoners; but they betrayed him, and told his design to Gustavus. The king ordered fires to be lighted in different part of his camp, and his sol-

diers to imitate the noise of a tumultuous disorderly rabble. This had the desired effect. The count led his army to the breach made by the cannon; where he was received with such a volley of grape-shot as cut off the first line, and put the whole body in disorder, so that they could never be brought back to the charge. In this confusion the imperial army was attacked by Banditzzen, and, after an obstinate conflict, obliged to quit the field.

(15) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE IMPERIALISTS AT LEIPZIG. Soon after this action the queen arrived at the camp with a reinforcement of 8000 men; at the same time a treaty was concluded with Charles I. of England, by which that monarch allowed the marquis of Hamilton to raise 6000 men for the service of Gustavus. These auxiliaries were to be conducted to the main army by a body of 4000 Swedes; and were in every thing to obey the king while he was personally present, but in his absence were to be subject to the orders of the marquis. With these troops the king had resolved to make a diversion in Bremen: but the marquis finding it impossible for him to effect a junction with the Swedish army, resolved, without debarking his troops, to steer his course for the Oder, and land at Uledom. Gustavus was very much displeased at finding his project thus disconcerted; however, making the best of the existing circumstances, he commanded the British troops to act on the Oder instead of the Weser. The number of this little army was magnified exceedingly by report, inasmuch that count Tilly had some thoughts of marching against them with his whole force; but on the departure of the marquis for Silesia, he reinforced the army in that country with a large detachment, which was thought to contribute not a little to the defeat he soon after received. Ever since the late action, Gustavus had kept within his intrenchments, where his army was well provided with every thing. Tilly made several attempts to surprise or draw him to an engagement; but finding all his endeavours fruitless, he marched into Saxony and laid siege to Leipzig. This precipitate measure proved highly advantageous to the Swedish monarch; as thus the elector who had been wavering in his resolutions, was now obliged to have recourse to the Swedes, to preserve himself from utter destruction. A treaty offensive and defensive was immediately concluded with Gustavus; and the elector willingly promised every thing that was required of him; and among the rest, that not only the prince his son, but he himself should reside in the Swedish camp, and engage his life and fortune in the common cause. Tilly, in the mean time carried fire and sword into the unhappy electorate. At the head of an army of 44,000 veterans, he summoned Leipzig to surrender; denouncing the same vengeance against it as had been executed on Magdeburg, in case of a refusal. By this the governor was so much intimidated, that he instantly submitted; and also surrendered the castle of Passenbourg, which was in a condition to have stood out till the arrival of the Swedish army. The elector, enraged at the loss of these valuable places, ordered his army to join the Swedes with all expedition, and pressed

the king so warmly to engage, that at last he yielded to his desire. On the 7th Sept. 1631, Gustavus gained the celebrated battle of Leipzig, in which 7000 Imperialists lay dead on the field of battle; 4000 were taken prisoners; a fine train of artillery was lost, and upwards of 100 standards, ensigns, and other military trophies. On this occasion, the Scots regiment in the Swedish service first practised the method of firing in platoons; to which some ascribe the astonishment and confusion that appeared in the Imperial army.

(16) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS. Gustavus next penetrated into Franconia, where he reduced the fort of WORKBURG and other places. Tilly having collected his scattered troops, which formed an army still superior to that of Gustavus, marched to the relief of this place; but came too late. He then directed his march towards Rottenberg, where four regiments were cut in pieces by a Swedish detachment. After this the king reduced Hanau, Frankfort on the Maine, and Mentz; destroying a body of Spaniards, who had thrown themselves in the way to obstruct his passage. The court of Vienna was now thrown into the utmost confusion; and sent everywhere begging assistance, and soliciting the Catholic princes to arm in defence of their religion. The emperor was most embarrassed in finding out a general capable of opposing Gustavus in the field; for the late misfortunes of count Tilly had entirely sunk his reputation. Wallenstein, an old experienced officer, was made choice of; but as he had formerly been disgraced, it was apprehended that he would not accept of the command; yet he not only accepted, but, at his own expense, augmented the army to 40,000 men. During the whole winter the Swedish army kept the field; and before the approach of summer had reduced Crantzach, Ebennaufen, Kirchberg, Magdeburg, Goxlar, Northeim, Göttingen, and Dunderstadt; while the landgrave William made great progress in Westphalia. Gustavus Horn was repulsed before Bamberg; but soon had his revenge, by entirely destroying two regiments of imperialists. The king now resolved to give battle to Tilly, who was marching into Bavaria to prevent the Swedes from gaining a footing in that electorate. He pursued the imperial general thro' a vast tract of country, defeated his rear-guard, and, having reduced many towns and fortresses on the Danube, penetrated as far as Ulm. Advancing to the river Leck, count Tilly posted himself in a wood on the opposite side, to dispute his passage. Gustavus endeavoured to dislodge him by a regular fire from 30 pieces of cannon. The slaughter was dreadful; and Tilly himself, being wounded by a cannon-ball in the knee, died a few days before he was to have been superseded by Wallenstein. The following night the imperial army evacuated the post; part retiring to Ingoldstadt, and others to Newburg. Gustavus immediately crossed the river, and seized the towns of Rain and Newburg, which the enemy had abandoned. Augsburg next submitted; and from the inhabitants of this place Gustavus exacted an oath of fidelity, not only to himself but to the crown of Sweden. This measure

ture gave the greatest offence to many of the Germanic body, and made them imagine that the king of Sweden had other views than the defence of the Protestant cause. From Augsburg the Swedes advanced towards Ratibon; but were disappointed in their design of getting possession of that city, by the Bavarians having thrown a very numerous garrison into the place. In the mean time, ambassadors arrived from Denmark, offering the mediation of that crown for obtaining a lasting peace. Gustavus, however, replied, that no such peace could take place till the Catholic princes thought proper to grant the Protestants full and ample security for their enjoyment of true tranquility. But the ambassadors had no instructions to propose any thing farther. Gustavus now, resolving to retort upon the Bavarians the cruelties which they had inflicted on the Protestants, laid the towns of Morzbourg, Frielengen, and Landshut, in allies. The inhabitants of Munich saved themselves by submission; but as the peasants in that neighbourhood had converted themselves into bodies to murder the stragglers from the Swedish army, Gustavus burnt their houses, and defeated the forces of the elector, who had been joined by a body of militia. While Gustavus was thus employed, Wallenstein had assembled a vast army. He was solicited by the elector of Bavaria to come to his assistance; but, in revenge of the elector's having formerly obtained the command for count Tilly in preference to himself, he drew off towards Bohemia to encounter the Saxons. Arnheim, who commanded the Saxon forces in that place, was the enemy of Gustavus, who had formerly rallied him for his cowardice. He therefore permitted Wallenstein to gain an easy victory, in hopes that his master the elector of Saxony, a prince entirely devoted to his pleasure, might be induced to relinquish the friendship of such a restless and warlike ally as Gustavus; and indeed he used all the eloquence of which he was master to detach him from the Swedish cause. Several advantages, in the mean time, were gained by the Imperialists. Pappenheim defeated the archbishop of Bremen's cavalry at Warden; and 3 Swedish regiments were cut off near Kadingen. Pappenheim, however, was forced to withdraw his forces from Stade; of which the Swedes took possession. Wallenstein and the elector of Bavaria, who had now joined their forces, threatened Gustavus with greatly superior numbers. At last, however, the king, being reinforced with 15,000 men, no longer declined the engagement; but Wallenstein was too wise to trust the fate of the empire to a single engagement against such an enemy as the king of Sweden. Gustavus attacked his camp, but was repulsed with the loss of 4000 men; which caused a general murmuring against his rashness. Several other misfortunes happened to the Swedes; and at last, after various manœuvres, Wallenstein bent his course towards Misnia, to oblige the elector of Saxony to declare against the Swedes, and to draw them out of Bavaria. Gustavus, notwithstanding the inconstancy of Augustus, immediately set out to assist him. With incredible speed he marched to Misnia, where the Imperialists were assembling their whole strength. Hear-

ing that the enemy were encamped at Wefenfels, and that Pappenheim had been detached with a strong corps, Gustavus resolved to engage them before they could effect a junction. With this view he marched to Lutzen, where he attacked Wallenstein with incredible fury. The Swedish infantry broke the Imperialists in spite of their utmost efforts, and took all their artillery. The cavalry not being able to pass the river so expeditiously as the king thought it necessary, he led the way, attended only by the regiment of Smaland and the duke of Saxe-Lauenburg. Here, after charging impetuously, he was killed, as Puffendorff alleges, by the treachery of the duke; who, being corrupted by the emperor, shot him in the back during the heat of the action. The news of his death was in an instant spread over both armies. The courage of the Imperialists revived, and they now made themselves sure of victory. But the Swedes, eager to revenge the death of their beloved monarch, charged with such fury that nothing could resist them. The Imperialists were defeated a second time, just as Pappenheim, with his fresh corps, came up to their assistance. On this the battle was renewed, but the Swedes were still irresistible. Pappenheim was mortally wounded, and his army finally routed, with the loss of 9000 killed in the field and in the pursuit.

(17.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE SAXONS BY GEN. BANNER. The victory of Lutzen proved more unfortunate to Sweden than the greatest defeat. The crown devolved upon CHRISTINA, an infant of six years old; the nation was involved in an expensive foreign war, without any person equal to the arduous task of commanding the armies, or regulating domestic affairs as Gustavus had done. However, Christina the daughter of Gustavus was immediately proclaimed queen. The regency devolved on the grand bairiff, the marshal, the high-admiral, the chancellor, and the treasurer of the crown. Oxenstiern was invested with the chief management of affairs, and conducted himself with the greatest prudence. He was greatly embarrassed indeed by the divisions among the Protestant princes, which became more violent after the death of Gustavus; but, in spite of all difficulties, he went on pursuing the interest of his country, and planning the means of retaining the Swedish conquests. Matters went on pretty successfully till 1634, when, through the rashness of the Swedish soldiers, they were defeated at Nordlingen, with the loss of 6000 men killed, a number of prisoners, and 130 standards taken by the enemy. Oxenstiern's constancy was shaken by this dreadful blow; but he applied himself diligently to repair the loss, by recruiting the army, and rendering the allies faithful. The latter proved the most difficult task. The death of Gustavus, and the defeat of Nordlingen, had thrown them into despair; and every one was desirous of making the best terms he could with the emperor. The Saxons not only renounced their alliance with Sweden, but openly commenced war against it; and though the regency would gladly have consented to an honourable peace, the enemy were now too much flushed with

with success to grant it. Oxenstiern had no other resource than an alliance with France, and the bravery of his generals. In 1635, he went in person to the court of Lewis XIII. and concluded a treaty; which, however, was never observed. The enemy, in the mean time, pushed their good fortune. They surprized Philipburg, where the French had laid up vast magazines; and reduced Spire, Augsburg, Treves, Wurtzburg, Cobourg, and some other places. To complete the misfortunes of Sweden, it was expected that the Poles would immediately invade Prussia. To prevent this, La Gardie was dispatched thither with a powerful army; but as it was impossible to resist so many enemies at once, the chancellor purchased the friendship of Poland for 26 years, by ceding that duchy to the republic. Thus he got rid of a powerful enemy; and the Swedish affairs began to revive by a victory which Gen. Banner gained over the Saxons, in consequence of which they were driven beyond the Elbe. Early in spring 1636, the Saxons made some motions as if they intended to cut off Banner's communication with Pomerania. This he prevented by a stratagem; defeated a body of the enemy; and obliged the Saxons to retire. Soon after this he drove them out of their winter quarters with considerable loss; at which time also a considerable body of imperialists who came to their assistance were dispersed. In Westphalia Gen. Kniphausen beat the imperialists with the loss of 1500 men, but he himself was killed in the pursuit, and his army obliged to repass the Weier. Some advantages were also gained in the neighbourhood of Minden by Gen. Lesly, who had assembled a considerable army. In Alsace, Bernard, duke of Saxe-Weymar defeated count Gallas the imperial general and dispersed his army. But when every thing seemed thus successful for the Swedes, the city of Magdeburg, contrary to the expectation of every body, surrendered for want of powder, which the garrison had wantonly consumed. The Saxons also made some conquests on the Elbe, which obliged Banner to recall Gen. Lesly from Westphalia to march against them. The Saxons fixed on a most convenient situation, where they hoped to destroy the Swedish army without coming to a battle. But Banner, resolving to hazard every thing rather than suffer his army to be wasted by famine, advanced towards Berleberg, a place closely blocked up by the enemy. Here he drove from an advantageous post 4 regiments of Saxon cuirassiers, having killed or taken prisoners 400 men; after which he soon forced them to a general engagement. The numbers were very unequal, Banner's army amounting to 9000 horse and 7000 foot, and the Saxons to 15,000 horse and 13 battalions of foot. The battle began with great fury; the right wing of the Swedes was almost oppressed by numbers before the left could come to their assistance. They were ten times driven back, and as often returned to the charge. At last they made such a desperate effort, that the enemy were entirely defeated; 5000 killed on the spot, 3000 wounded, and as many taken prisoners, with 150 standards, and several pieces of cannon.

(18.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT

OF THE IMPERIALISTS BY BANNIER. Thus ended the campaign of 1636. in a manner highly honourable to the Swedes. Some fruitless negotiations were set on foot during the winter; but these coming to nothing, Banner quitted his winter quarters very early in the season; and falling upon 8 regiments of Saxons cantoned at Eulenburg, pursued them to Torgau, where he obliged them to surrender at discretion. Another party of Saxons was defeated near Leipzig; which he proposed investing, but was disappointed by the imperialists penetrating into Thuringia. He then called in all his detachments; defeated 2000 imperialists near Pegau, and destroyed several detachments that attempted to obstruct his march. Yet, he still found his situation every day more straitened, from the continual increase of the enemy's forces; which obliged him at last to retreat into Pomerania, out of which he soon drove count Gallas. The affairs of the Swedes were now once more on the brink of ruin, through the misconduct of Gen. Wrangel, who had also an army in Pomerania, but who imagining himself perfectly secure, cantoned his troops, and extended his quarters, to accommodate his army. But Gallas suddenly returned, ravaged all Upper Pomerania, and reduced the towns of Uledom, Demmin, and Wollin; after which, leaving garrisons in the forts he returned to his winter quarters in Saxony. This unfortunate campaign counterbalanced all the advantages of the former. Wrangel was so struck with the saddennels of the blow, that he could take no measure for opposition. Some of the Swedish allies again fell off, and took up arms against them. In 1638, the Swedish affairs again began to revive in this quarter, through the excellent conduct of Banner, who defeated count Gallas with the loss of 3000 men killed and taken prisoners. Pursuing his good fortune, he so harrailed the count, that he obliged him to repass the Elbe, and take shelter in Austria.

(19.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF THE D. OF SAXE-WEYMAR. Great as Banner's exploits had been, however, they were eclipsed by those of Bernard Duke of Saxe-Weymar. That general had so increased his army in the Protestant cantons of Switzerland, and in Franche Comte, that he was in a condition to act without the assistance of the French, who indeed were but treacherous allies. Advancing to the Rhine, he seized on Seckingen and Lauffburg, and laid siege to Rheinfeld. The imperialists, in conjunction with the troops of Bavaria, advanced to the relief of the place. An engagement ensued, in which the victory was disputed; the enemy threw succours into the city, and the duke withdrew his army. Within a month he gave them battle a second time; and so completely defeated them, that only one imperial officer above the rank of a captain escaped being killed or taken prisoner. He then renewed the siege of RHEINFELD; which he reduced, as well as several other importance places. Advancing to Brisach, he blocked it up to force the garrison to surrender. General Gotz, with 12,000 men, attempted to throw in 1000 waggons of provisions; but he was defeated with the loss of all his men except 2500.

Duke

Duke Charles of Lorraine, with 4000 men, joined the remains of Gotz's army, but being surprised by Bernard, his whole army was cut in pieces. A 3d attempt was made by Gotz, but it proved as unsuccessful as the former; and the place being reduced to great straits, was obliged to capitulate. In Jan. 1639, the two victorious generals Bernard and Bannier prepared to attack the enemy on their own ground. Bannier made an irruption into Anhalt and Halberstadt. Leaving his infantry, he pushed on with his cavalry, and surprised Salis, grand master of the imperial artillery. After a bloody conflict, the Swedes gained a complete victory, 7 regiments of the enemy being cut to pieces. Next entering Saxony, he defeated 4 regiments of the enemy, obliging a much larger body to take shelter under the cannon of Dresden. Hearing that the Saxons were encamped near CHEMNITZ, where they waited to be joined by the imperialists, he attacked them before this junction could be effected, and the Saxons were almost all killed or taken. Bannier next entering into Bohemia, laid the country under contribution; after which, returning across the Elbe, he fell on Gen. Hofskirk, who was encamped near Brandeburg with 10 regiments of horse, and several battalions of foot. Him he defeated with the loss of 2000 men. The remains of the imperial forces were pursued to the walls of Prague, and the generals Hofskirk and Montecuculi were taken prisoners. Yet notwithstanding these successes, the enemies of Bannier multiplied daily. The Protestant princes, overawed by the enemy, did not send him assistance. Undismayed, however, by difficulties, Bannier performed wonders. He defeated a body of imperialists at Glatz; drove the Saxons thence from their camp at Firm; and yet was forced to evacuate the place, because he could not spare a garrison. His army being destitute of recruits was much diminished in number; yet with it he reduced many towns, and obtained various other important advantages, when on a sudden all his hopes were blasted by the death of the duke of Saxe-Weymar; poisoned, as was supposed, by the French, who wished to get Briſac into their hands, from which the duke prevented them.

(30.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF GEN. BANNIER. The difficulties to which Bannier was now reduced proved extreme. Lewis XIII. took upon him to dispose of the army and conquests of Bernard as he thought proper. Briſac, and other places of importance, he kept to himself; after which, the French endeavoured to ruin the army. In the mean time, the imperial army, under Piccolomini, in the Netherlands, was prodigiously augmented; and the archduke Leopold-William, as generalissimo, was assembling his whole strength to crush the Swedes at once. But Bannier did not despair. George duke of Lunenburg, being disgusted at the emperor, Bannier hoped to gain him over; he therefore approached nearer to his country, and also drew towards the armies of Weymar and Hesse. In his way he cut in pieces a body of 3000 Croats. Gen. Konigsmark routed the imperialists at Gera; a 2d time at Scholen; and a 3d time entirely defeated them near Leipzig. Bannier was very pref-

ing on the allies to join him; and at last, in 1640, he was joined by the Weymar army under the dukes of Longueville and Gubrien, a body of Russians led by general Melander, and the troops of Lunenburg commanded by general Klitzing. The army now amounted to 22 battalions of infantry and 22,000 horse; so that they were much more than a match for their enemies, had they been under the sole direction of Bannier. But unanimity was wanting; every one would be supreme, and Bannier, the best general, had the least influence. Instead of those masterly strokes by which the Swedes had hitherto distinguished themselves, the armies continued looking at one another, each suffering the rigours of famine. At last Bannier, resolving to expose his troops no longer, set out for Thuringia, through Franconia, to seize an advantageous post on the Maine; but as he advanced to the Sala, he found the imperialists entrenched on the other side. Finding it impossible to force a passage, he took the road through Hesse, where his troops suffered greatly by famine. Here he proposed to fight the enemy; but the Landgrave and D. of Lunenburg refused their consent. Upon this he threatened to leave them to the mercy of the confederates, and thus obliged them to be somewhat more pliant. None of those brilliant successes, however, now attended the operations of the Protestant allies; the campaigns of 1640 and 1641 were spent in useless marches and countermarches; serving only to bring the army into the greatest dangers, from which they were as constantly relieved by the active and intrepid Bannier. At last this brave general, worn out with perpetual fatigues, died of a fever in 1641, leaving the Swedish army in a worse situation than ever.

(31.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE CAPTURE OF OLMUTZ BY GENERAL TORSTENSON. The imperialists were too well acquainted with the abilities of Bannier, not to take advantage of the opportunity offered by his death. A Swedish detachment was cut in pieces at Quedlinburg. The Swedish army, accustomed only to be obedient to Bannier, became mutinous, and Piccolomini resolved to fall upon them with his whole force. But the four generals, Wrangel, Konigsmark, Wittenberg, and Pful, having convinced the soldiers of the necessity of defending themselves, made such excellent dispositions, that the imperialists durst not attack them. Piccolomini then detached part of his army to attack the Hessians in their quarters; but Wrangel and Konigsmark threw themselves in their way, and defeated them with the loss of 2000 men. This victory, however, did not retrieve the Swedish affairs. Dissensions and mutiny began again to take place in the army to such a degree as threatened its dissolution. In 1642 Gen. Torstenſon was sent from Sweden with money, and a strong reinforcement, to take upon him the supreme command. This general was inferior to none of his predecessors, and designed to come to an immediate engagement; but the Weymar army separating from him, obliged him to remain for a considerable time inactive. He was also confined to his chamber by the gout; and thus a report of his death being spread, the imperialists were encouraged to begin a long

a long march through roads scarce passable, in hopes of surprising the Swedish army without a general. But Torstenfon seized an advantageous post, which could not be forced, and thus obliged the enemy to retreat, after having suffered as much by their fatiguing march as if they had fought a bloody battle. Then joining Gen. Stahlebrand, who had been driven by the imperialists out of Silesia, he reduced Great Glogau, with a number of other important places; after which he laid siege to Schweidnitz. The duke of Saxe-Lauenburg, with his cavalry, endeavoured to throw in succours; but was defeated with the loss of 3000 men, taken prisoner, and died of chagrin a few days after. In consequence of this defeat Schweidnitz surrendered at discretion; and Torstenfon having sent a detachment to invest the city of Neisse, proceeded with the rest to drive the enemy entirely out of Silesia. This he effectually performed; obliging them to retire over barren mountains, almost famished for want of provisions, and harassed by his light troops; so that this already formidable army was almost entirely ruined. With his victorious troops the Swedish general then poured into Moravia; where, in five days, he reduced the strong town of OLMUTZ.

(21.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE CAPTURE OF LEIPZIG. Litta and Neudacht shared the fate of Olmutz; after which the Swedes, returning suddenly to Silesia, took Oppelen and Brieg, and laid siege to Breslau. Here the garrisons made such an obstinate defence, that the imperialists had time to assemble under the conduct of the archduke Leopold, and come to their relief. As Torstenfon was greatly inferior in number, he raised the siege; but appeared so formidable in his retreat, that the enemy durst neither attack him, nor attempt to prevent his encamping in a very advantageous situation. The imperialists then laid siege to Glogau; but after having lost a great number of men, they were forced to abandon the enterprise on the junction of Wrangel with Torstenfon; by which means the Swedes were once more in a condition to face their enemies in the field. Torstenfon now projected an irruption into Bohemia, but in this he was prevented by the vigilance of the enemy; however, he reduced the city of ZITTAU, where, for the first time, a cartel for prisoners was established; by which means the Swedish army was considerably augmented. Torstenfon then directed his course to Leipzig, but the imperial generals assembled their whole force, and set out to relieve it. The two armies soon came in sight of each other; and the Swedes, after an obstinate conflict, obtained a complete victory; 5000 of the enemy being killed on the spot, 3000 wounded, and as many taken prisoners. This victory was followed by the immediate surrender of Leipzig.

(22.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE TREATY OF WESTPHALIA. In all probability the Swedes would have finally triumphed over all their enemies, had not a rupture with Denmark ensued. Torstenfon and Horn behaved with their usual valour in Holstein and Schonen, while Gen. Königsmark distinguished himself in Germany; but the ruin of the Weymar army, which was totally

defeated with the loss of one half its number at Dettingen by the Bavarians, proved a dreadful blow, from which the Swedes could scarce recover themselves. Indeed, notwithstanding the valour and success of the Swedes, their affairs in Germany must have gone to wreck in the campaigns of 1643 and 1644, had not the French under Condé and Turenne made a most powerful diversion, and performed such exploits as immortalized their names. In 1645, the war against Denmark was pushed with such vigour, that a peace, very advantageous for Sweden, was concluded. Torstenfon now took measures for carrying the war into the Austrian dominions. Hatfield assembled a considerable army to oppose the Swedes; and the emperor came to Prague to animate his troops. The two armies came in sight at Jancowitz, and prepared for an engagement. The valour of the Swedes once more prevailed, and they totally defeated their enemies: 4000 of the imperialists were killed on the spot, among whom were general Hatfield and many officers; and near 5000 were taken prisoners. Yet no great advantages were derived from this victory. Some towns indeed were reduced; but at last Torstenfon was obliged to retire into Moravia, where he put his army into winter quarters; and in the beginning of 1646 resigned the command to Wrangel. Wrangel conducted the Swedish affairs with great ability and success; till at last the imperialists, unable to drive the Swedes out of Germany, concluded a peace in 1648. This was the memorable treaty of Westphalia, by which the Germanic constitution was settled, and those disputes which had so long torn the empire were ended: the duchies of Bremen and Verden, all the Upper and part of Lower Pomerania, the city of Wismar and the isle of Rugen, were assigned to Sweden, and five millions of crowns were given to the army.

(23.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE RESIGNATION OF Q. CHRISTINA. Sweden now enjoyed some years of repose. Charles Gustavus, count palatine, having gained the favour of Christina, was appointed generalissimo of the forces, and heir apparent to the crown. A marriage was proposed between them; but the queen would never listen to this or any other proposal of the kind. In 1650, the ceremony of the queen's coronation was performed; but in 1654 she resigned the crown in favour of Gustavus. See CHRISTINA.

(24.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE CONQUEST OF POLAND BY CHARLES X. Charles Gustavus, who now took the name of CHARLES X. found himself involved in considerable difficulties on his accession. The treasury was quite exhausted; great part of the revenue was appointed for the support of Christina's household; the people were oppressed with taxes; the nation, having been alarmed for several years, began to lose its reputation. To remedy these evils, Charles proposed to resume all the crown lands which had been alienated to favourites during the late reign; to repeal the duty upon salt; to put the kingdom in a posture of defence; and to enter upon a war with some neighbouring state. Under pretence that Calimir king of Poland had questioned his title to the throne, he prepared to invade that kingdom. Several embassies were sent

from

from Poland to Stockholm; but they returned without their errand. General Wittenberg made an irruption into Poland from Pomerania. The Poles opposed him with an army of 15,000 men; but in a short time they entirely dispersed themselves. Charles, with a powerful army, pursued his march, all the cities throwing open their gates to him. As he advanced to Cracow, Calimir, made one effort to save his capital. But his army amounted only to 10,000 men; and these, after a feeble resistance, fled with precipitation, having lost 1000 men in killed and prisoners. A few days after this, Charles defeated the Poles a second time, about 24 miles from Cracow; upon which Calimir fled with his family to Oppelen, in Silesia. The capital was then invested; and though defended with the utmost valour by Stephen Czarnecki, was soon obliged to capitulate. Thus, in less than three months, Charles apparently became master of Poland; but the Poles had no intention of abandoning their former sovereign.

(26.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE RUSSIANS AT RIGA. In 1656 a war took place with the elector of Brandenburg. While Charles was employed in the conquest of Poland, that prince had invaded the Royal and Ducal Prussia, and reduced the most considerable towns. The king of Sweden marched against him, defeated his forces in several slight encounters, and obliged him to own that he was a vassal of Sweden. These rapid conquests alarmed all Europe; and the different powers fought for means of driving the Swedes out of Poland, which they had so unjustly seized. The Poles, assured that they should be assisted, every where revolted and massacred the Swedes. Calimir returned from Silesia; and those troops and generals who had submitted to Charles now ranged themselves under his antagonist. Charles immediately marched for Prussia, and totally defeated 15,000 Poles under Czarnecki. This did not hinder all the Poles incorporated with his troops to desert; which reduced his army: and the campaign being performed in the depth of winter, he was obliged to retreat to Prussia. In his march he was harassed by the Poles; and a body of 4000 Swedes was defeated by them at Warka. But this loss was soon after compensated by a complete victory gained by Adolphus the king's brother, and Gen. Wrangel, over Czarnecki. In the mean time Charles took measures for laying siege to Dantzic; but the Dutch threatened to oppose him, unless a proper regard was paid to their interest. Charles accordingly granted them advantageous terms; and afterwards gained over the elector of Brandenburg, by ceding to him the sovereignty of Prussia, that he might be at liberty to turn his whole strength against Poland. By the treaty with the elector, the latter was to assist Charles in his war with Poland; but the elector had for procrastinated matters, that the Poles, having obtained assistance from the Tartars, had reduced the city of Warsaw. The two princes, however, now marched in concert against their enemies, who were encamped in a strong situation near Warsaw, their camp being fronted by the Vistula. The Poles were driven from their encroachments with prodigious slaughter, and a vast number taken prisoners. The Poles and Tartars

then laboured to break the alliance; entered Ducal Prussia, and defeated the electoral army, taking prince Radzilvil and other great persons prisoner. The Swedes soon had their revenge. Gen. Steinhöck attacked the Polish army at Philippowa, and overthrew it with such slaughter as obliged the Poles to quit the field. A more formidable enemy than the Poles now began to appear. The Russians invaded the provinces of Carelia, Ingermania, and Livonia, while the elector of Brandenburg began to waver in his fidelity. To preserve this only ally at such a critical juncture, Charles was obliged to give him more advantageous terms; while the Russians were repulsed in Carelia and Ingermania. But in Livonia they had better success, two important fortresses falling into their hands; after which they laid siege to Riga. For seven months they battered the walls of this city, without once venturing to pass the ditch or storm the practicable breaches. The besieged, under Magnus de la Gardie and Simon Heimfeld, defended themselves with the greatest intrepidity, cutting off many thousands of the enemy in the sallies they made. At last they attacked the Russian camp, drove them out of it with great slaughter, and obliged them to raise the siege with precipitation.

(27.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE TREATY OF ROSCHILD. Charles, notwithstanding the number of his enemies, was now become so formidable by the valour of his troops, that whole armies often fled on the very news of his approach. At last, in 1657, the Poles, finding they could not resist him in the field, harassed the Swedes on their march, and cut off the foragers and convoys. This proved much more destructive to the Swedes than their former method; so that Charles was obliged to enter into an alliance with Ragotski prince of Transylvania, by assigning him certain provinces in his neighbourhood, to furnish himself with irregular troops, who might fight the Poles in their own way. But the confederates, after spending a whole campaign in Lithuania, were obliged to return without accomplishing more than the reduction of a single fortress; upon which Charles returned with the Swedish army to Prussia. Leopold, the young king of Hungary, having beheld for a long time the Swedes with a jealous eye, resolved to declare for Poland. To curb the ambition of the Swedish monarch, he solicited the king of Denmark to break with him. This was complied with, and the Danes invaded Bremen. Charles hastened to oppose this new enemy; which gave such offence to Ragotski, that he neglected to take proper measures for his own defence in the absence of the Swedes, and suffered his army to be destroyed by the Poles and Tartars. At the same time the Turks invaded Transylvania, under pretence that Ragotski, being a vassal of the Grand Seignior, had no right to invade Poland without his leave. Ragotski opposed them in the field; where he was defeated and killed, leaving Charles destitute of the only ally on whom he could have depended. But not dismayed by this misfortune, he traversed Pomerania and Mecklenburg; after which he fell upon Holstein, while Gen. Wrangel with another corps entered Bremen. In 15 days Wrangel retook all

the towns which the enemy had reduced; defeated and drove the Danish army out of the country, killing 3000 of their best soldiers. In Holstein the king reduced several fortresses, laid Itzehoe in ashes, defeated a body of Danes, and laid siege to Frederic Uddø, into which the Danes had thrown a strong garrison. The conduct of this siege he left to Wrangel, he himself retiring to Wismar to observe the situation of Poland; but no sooner was he gone than Wrangel attacked the place with such fury, that he became master of it in two hours. In Holland the Swedes were defeated; but the enemy derived no advantage from their victory: at sea the fleets met and maintained a hot engagement for two days, without any considerable advantage on either side. In Poland matters went on much worse. The house of Austria had now declared for Casimir; a German army entered Poland, and reduced Cracow, thought not without great loss. Czarneski entered Pomerania, where he butchered the unhappy peasants; but on the approach of Charles he fled as usual, having gained nothing by his expedition but the character of a cruel barbarian. The king of Sweden was now surrounded by enemies. The elector of Brandenburg had declared against him; and he had besides to engage the armies of Austria, Poland, Russia, and Denmark, in the field. In this dangerous situation he resolved to attack Denmark, in such a manner as should oblige that power to come to a speedy accommodation. His designs were forwarded by a very early frost which enabled him to transport his troops without shipping. Having passed over on the ice to the island of Funen, he cut in pieces a body of 4000 Danish soldiers and 500 peasants. The whole island was reduced in a few days: after which he passed to Langland, then to Laaland, after that to Falster, and lastly to Zealand. The Danes were terrified at this unexpected invasion, and were giving themselves up to despair, when Charles offered peace upon equitable terms. The king of Denmark very gladly consented. By this treaty called the *treaty of Roskilde*, concluded 12th March 1658, the provinces of Schonen, Halland, and Bleking, Lyfter, and Huwen, the isle of Bornholm, the bailiages of Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, were yielded to Sweden, and a free passage through the Sound was granted to the Swedish ships.

(28.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF CHARLES X. No sooner was Charles retired, than the king of Denmark began to act against him in an underhand manner; on which, resolving to anticipate him in his design, he appeared unexpectedly with a fleet before Copenhagen. Had he given the assault immediately, before the inhabitants had time to recover from their surprise, it would probably have surrendered at once; but, by landing at the distance of 17 miles, he gave them time to prepare for their defence: the siege proved extremely tedious, and at last the place was relieved by a Dutch fleet. On this Charles converted the siege into a blockade, which continued till the end of the war. Wrangel reduced the strong fortresses of Gronenburg; and the Swedish forces were so judiciously posted, that all Denmark was in a manner blocked up; when in 1666, king Charles X. died of an epidemical

fever: and thus an end was put for that time, to all the ambitious designs of Sweden.

(29.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF CHARLES XI. The new king Charles XI. was a minor at his father's death; and as the kingdom was involved in a dangerous war with so many enemies, the regency determined to conclude a peace, if it could be obtained on reasonable terms. A treaty was accordingly concluded at Oliva: by which Casimir renounced his pretensions to the crown of Poland, and that republic gave up all pretensions to Livonia. Bornholm and Drontheim were ceded to Denmark; and an equivalent in Schonen remained with Sweden. During the minority of the king, nothing remarkable occurred. In 1672 he entered into alliance with Lewis XIV.; which, in 1674, involved him in a war with the elector of Brandenburg. At first the Swedes carried all before them; and Gen. Wrangel having fallen sick, they continued their conquests under *Mardenfeldt*. Almost all the towns in Brandenburg were reduced, when the elector arrived with an army. He retook several towns, defeated *Mardenfeldt* in a general engagement, and soon after forced them to abandon all their conquests. In conjunction with the Danes, he then invaded the Swedish dominions: many places of importance were reduced; and in 1676, Sweden received a most destructive blow by the defeat of her fleet in an engagement with the combined fleets of Denmark and Holland. Soon after this the king took the government into his own hands, and in some degree restored the fortune of Sweden; but though matters went on in a prosperous way where the king commanded in person, the same disgrace attended the Swedish arms in every other quarter. In Pomerania, count *Königsmark* lost every part of importance excepting Stralsund, Stetin, and Gripsholm. In 1678, the Swedish fleet was defeated in two engagements. At Landskrona a most obstinate battle was fought from 10 A. M. till 6 P. M. when both parties were obliged by fatigue, to retire to their camps. At *Oldeval*, in Norway, the Swedes were defeated; and the Danes laid desolate the islands of Oeland, Smaland, Unno, and Kuno; while the electoral troops and Imperialists reduced count *Königsmark* to the utmost distress near Stralsund. But in this deplorable situation, count *Königsmark* attacked his enemies to such advantage, that he obtained a complete victory; after which he ravaged the duchy of Mecklenburg. Yet he could not prevent the elector from reducing Stralsund; after which he was obliged to evacuate Pomerania; and, to complete his distress, the fleet which transported the Swedish army from Pomerania was wrecked on the coast of Bornholm; by which accident 2000 persons were drowned, and the remainder plundered and taken prisoner by the Danes, though they had been furnished with passports from king Frederic. In this unprosperous situation of affairs a peace was concluded at St Germain's, with France, by which the Swedes and Danes were left to decide their quarrel by themselves. Denmark being no match for Sweden, even in her distressed situation, a treaty was soon concluded on terms very favourable to Sweden; and confirmed by a marriage between Charles,

an

and Ulrica Eleonora, daughter to the king of Denmark. From this time the Swedish monarch applied himself to the reformation of the state; and by artfully managing the disputes between the nobility and peasants, he obtained a decree of the states empowering him to alter the constitution as he pleased. Being thus invested with absolute power, he proceeded to take some very extraordinary measures. In 1685 it was projected to liquidate the public debts by raising the nominal value of money, without adding any thing to its intrinsic value. This was put into execution in 1686, by which the creditors of the government lost upwards of 9 millions of crowns. This, with some other arbitrary steps, disgusted all the nobility, merchants, and crown creditors. In Livonia they were highly offended; and remonstrances were repeatedly sent by the hands of deputies, who had orders to insist upon their privileges, confirmed by many acts of the king's predecessors. The deputies could obtain nothing, so that the diet was assembled. On their report the nobility resolved to draw up a stronger remonstrance than any of the former, to be presented to the king by captain Patkul one of the deputies, who had already distinguished himself by his boldness and attachment to liberty. His public spirit, however, produced no other effect than to procure his own destruction. (See PATKUL.) On the 15th April 1697, died Charles XI. leaving his crown to his son, the celebrated Charles XII. then a minor.

(30.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE RUSSIANS BY CHARLES XII. AT NARVA. Charles XII. on his accession, was only fifteen. He was scarce seated on the throne when a powerful combination was formed against him. King Augustus of Poland formed designs on Livonia; Christian V. of Denmark revived the disputes with the duke of Holstein, as a prelude to a war with Sweden; and Peter the Great of Muscovy began to form designs upon Ingria, formerly a province of Russia. In 1699, Christian marched an army into Holstein. Charles sent troops to the duke's assistance; but before their arrival the Danes had ravaged the country, taken the castle of Gottorp, and laid siege to Tonningen. Here Christian commanded in person; and was assisted by the troops of Saxony, Brandenburg, Wolfenbüttele, and Hesse-Cassel. England and Holland, as guaranties of the last treaty with Denmark, in concert with Sweden, joined Charles against this confederacy, and sent fleets to the Baltic. They proposed a termination of the war upon equitable terms; but these were haughtily refused by the Danish monarch, who despised the youth of Charles, and relied upon his alliance with Saxony, Brandenburg, Poland, and Russia. The town of Tonningen, however, resisted all his efforts; and when he ordered the place to be stormed, his troops were driven headlong from the walls by a few Swedes under gen. Banner. In 1700, Charles having entrusted the affairs of the nation with a council chosen out of the senate, set out on the 28th May from his capital, to which he never afterwards returned. He embarked at Carlscroon, and defeated the fleet of the allies. Having made a descent on Zealand, he defeated a body of

cavalry, and proceeded to invest Copenhagen by sea and land. Frederick IV. the new king of Denmark, saw the danger of having his capital destroyed, and concluded a treaty in 11 days, upon the same terms as the former. Charles, being thus at liberty to turn his arms against the other princes, resolved to lead his army against Augustus king of Poland; but hearing that the czar had laid siege to Narva with 100,000 men, he immediately embarked at Carlscroon, though it was then mid winter, and the Baltic scarce navigable; and soon landed at Pernaw in Livonia with part of his forces. His army did not exceed 20,000 men; but they were the best soldiers in Europe, while the Russians were only an undisciplined rabble. The consequence was, the Swedes were victorious, entirely routing this vast army, and taking all the cannon, 20,000 prisoners, and entirely destroying the remainder.

(31.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE SAXONS ON THE DUNA. Peter was advancing with 40,000 men to surround the Swedes, when he received intelligence of the dreadful defeat at Narva. He was greatly chagrined; but returned to his own dominions to raise another army. He evacuated all the provinces which he had invaded, and for a time abandoned all his great projects, thus leaving Charles at liberty to prosecute the war against Poland. As Augustus had expected an attack, he endeavoured to draw the czar into a closer alliance with him. The two monarchs had an interview at Birsen, where it was agreed that Augustus should lend the czar 50,000 German soldiers, to be paid by the czar, who should send an equal number of his troops to be trained up to war in Poland; and that he should pay the king three millions of rixdollars in two years. Of this treaty Charles had notice, and, by means of his minister count Piper, entirely frustrated the scheme. In 1701, Charles having received a reinforcement from Sweden, took the field, and appeared suddenly on the banks of the Duna, along which the Saxon army was posted to receive him: he gained a signal victory.

(32.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TILL THE SECOND DEFEAT OF THE SAXONS, AND CAPTURE OF CRACOW. This victory was followed by the surrender of all the towns and fortresses in the duchy of Courland. The king then passed into Lithuania, where every town opened its gates to him. At Birsen, an army of 20,000 Russians retired with precipitation on his approach. Charles, perceiving that Poland was greatly disaffected to Augustus, began to project the scheme of de-throning him by means of his own subjects. While count Piper was intriguing with the Poles for this purpose, Augustus determined to trust his fortune to the Saxon army and the nobility of Cracow, who offered to support him to the utmost. The Saxon army was now advanced to the frontiers, and Augustus put himself at the head of it. Being joined by the nobility of Cracow, his forces amounted to 30,000 men, all brave and well disciplined. With these he marched in quest of his enemy; who did not decline the combat, though he had with him only 12,000 men. Though the Saxons were strongly posted, they were entirely defeated, with the loss of 4000 killed, 2000 prisoners

soners, and all their baggage and cannon. This victory was followed by the loss of Cracow; after which Charles set out in pursuit of the flying army, with a design of preventing them from reassembling; but his horse falling under him, he had the misfortune to break his thigh bone, by which he was confined six weeks; and thus Augustus obtained some respite.

(33.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEFEAT AND MASSACRE OF THE RUSSIANS BY RENSCHILD. Augustus made the best of this interval. Having convoked a diet first at Mariburg, and then at Lublin, from them he obtained the following resolutions; that an army of 50,000 men should be raised by the republic for the service of the prince; that six weeks should be allowed the Swedes to determine whether they were for war or peace; and that the same time should be granted to the turbulent and discontented nobles of Poland to make their concessions. To counteract the effects of these resolutions, Charles assembled another diet at Warfaw; and while the two assemblies disputed concerning their rights and privileges, he recovered of his wound, received a strong reinforcement from Pomerania, and utterly defeated and dispersed the remains of the Saxon army. The ill fortune of Augustus continued. In 1704 he was formally deposed by the diet, and the crown conferred by Charles on STANISLAUS LECINSKY palatine of Polesia. Augustus, however, did not yet tamely give up his kingdom. His adherents daily skirmished with the Swedes, and Augustus himself being reinforced by 9000 Russians, retook Warfaw, and was very near surprising the new king, who lived in perfect security in the city, while Charles fought in his cause. Count Horn, with 1500 Swedes, vigorously defended the citadel; but finding it no longer tenable, he surrendered at discretion. The reduction of Warfaw was amongst the last advantages gained by Augustus in this war. His troops were now composed of Saxon recruits and undisciplined Poles, who had no attachment to his person. Charles and Stanislaus advanced with the victorious army; the Saxons fled, and the towns for several miles round sent their submissions. The Poles and Saxons were under Schullenberg, a most experienced general, who used every expedient to check the progress of the Swedes. But, with all his conduct and caution, he found himself outwitted, and Charles near his camp, ready to fall upon him, while he thought him at 50 leagues distance. The king attacked him with a superior army, but entirely composed of horse. This was almost the first time that infantry had been regularly opposed to cavalry, and the superiority of the former was evident. After the engagement had continued about three hours, the Saxons retreated in good order; which no enemy had ever done before in any engagement with Charles. The Swedes pursued them towards the Oder, but Schullenberg effected a retreat which Charles always spoke of with admiration, and said he had been conquered by Schullenberg. No material advantage, however, resulted from this to Augustus; who was again obliged to leave Poland, and fortify the capital of Saxony, which he expected every moment to see invested,

In the mean time, the Russians having recovered their spirits, fell upon the Swedes in Livonia with the utmost fury. Narva, Dorpat, and several other towns were taken, and the inhabitants and garrisons treated with great barbarity. Soon after an army of 100,000 Russians entered Poland: 60,000 Cossacks, under Mazeppa, entered the country at the same time, and ravaged every thing with the fury of barbarians. Schullenberg, too, advanced with 14,000 Saxons and 7000 Russians, disciplined in Germany, and reputed excellent soldiers. But Charles seemed to triumph over his enemies with more ease, the more numerous they were. The Russians were defeated so fast, that they were all dispersed before one party had notice of the misfortunes of another. The Swedish general Renschild engaged and defeated Schullenberg in half an hour. Whole regiments of Saxons threw down their arms, and begged their lives: 6000 were slain in the field, and 7000 taken prisoners: 36 pieces of cannon, 11,000 muskets, 40 pair of colours and standards, with all the Saxon baggage, fell into the hands of the Swedes; and the consequences were still more important; for now a passage was opened into Saxony, and Augustus seemed to be in as great danger of losing his hereditary dominions as he had been of losing Poland. This extraordinary victory, which was gained Feb. 12. 1706, was looked upon with admiration, and thought to make the renown of Renschild equal to that of his sovereign. Charles himself became jealous of his fame. But the cruelty of Renschild sullied his reputation; for six hours after the engagement, he caused 1000 Russians to be massacred in cold blood, to revenge, as he said, the cruelties they had committed in Poland.

(34.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEFEAT OF THE SWEDS BY AUGUSTUS. Soon after this victory, Charles entered Saxony at the head of 24,000 men. The diet at Ratibon declared him an enemy to the empire if he crossed the Oder. But to this declaration he paid no regard but pursued his march; while Augustus was reduced to the condition of a vagrant in Poland, where he possessed not a single town besides Cracow. Into this city he threw himself with a few Saxon, Polish, and Russian regiments, and began to erect some fortifications for its defence; but the approach of the Swedish general Meyerfeldt, and the news of the invasion of Saxony, disconcerted all his measures, and threw him into despair. The Russians indeed were his faithful allies; but he dreaded them almost as much as the Swedes: so that he was under the necessity of writing to Charles with his own hand, begging for peace on any terms. But as he was then at the mercy of the Russians, this transaction was concealed with the greatest care. His emissaries were introduced to Charles in the night-time; and received the following answer: That Augustus should for ever renounce the crown of Poland, acknowledge Stanislaus, and promise never to ascend the throne, should an opportunity offer; that he should release the princes Soliseki, and all the Swedish prisoners made in the course of the war; surrender Pskow, then resident at his court as ambassador for the Czar of Muscovy, and stop proceedings

proceedings against all who had passed from his into the Swedish service. Augustus all this time was obliged to continue a show of war, though he had neither ability nor inclination to carry it on. He was joined by prince Menzikoff with 30,000 Russians; which obliged him, contrary to his inclination, to engage with Meyerfeldt, who commanded 10,000 men, one half of whom were Swedes. As at this time no disparity of numbers was reckoned an equivalent to the valour of the Swedes, Meyerfeldt did not decline the combat, though the army of the enemy was four times as numerous as his own. With his countrymen he defeated the enemy's first line; and was on the point of defeating the second, when Stanislaus, with the Poles and Lithuanians, gave way. Meyerfeldt then perceived that the battle was lost; but he fought desperately, to avoid the disgrace of a defeat. At last, however, he was oppressed by numbers, and forced to surrender: suffering the Swedes, for the first time, to be conquered by their enemies. The whole army were taken prisoners excepting major-general Krassau; who having repeatedly rallied a body of horse formed into a brigade, at last broke through the enemy, and escaped to Posenia.

(35.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO CHARLES'S PROTECTION OF THE GERMAN PROTESTANTS. Augustus had scarce sung *Te Deum* for this victory, when his plenipotentiary returned from Saxony with the articles of the treaty above-mentioned. The king hesitated and scrupled, but at last signed them; after which he set out for Saxony, glad at any rate to be freed from such an enemy as the king of Sweden, and from such allies as the Russians. The Czar Peter was no sooner informed of this extraordinary treaty, and the cruel execution of his plenipotentiary Patkul, (See PATKUL.) then he sent letters to every court in Christendom, complaining of this gross violation of the law of nations, but without effect. In 1707, he entered Poland at the head of 60,000 men. Advancing to Leopold, he made himself master of that city, where he assembled a diet and solemnly deposed Stanislaus, with the same ceremonies which had been used with regard to Augustus. The country was now reduced to the most miserable situation; one party through fear adhered to the Swedes; another was gained over, or forced by Peter to take part with him: a violent civil war took place between the two, and great numbers of people were butchered, while cities, towns, and villages, were laid in ashes by the frantic multitude. The appearance of a Swedish army under king Stanislaus and general Lewenhaupt put a stop to these disorders, Peter himself not caring to stand before such enemies. He retired, therefore, into Lithuania, giving as the cause of his retreat, that the country could not supply him with provisions and forage necessary for so great an army. In the mean time Charles had taken up his residence in Saxony, where he gave law to the court of Vienna, and intimidated all Europe. He declared himself the protector of the Protestant interest in Germany, particularly of the emperor's Protestant subjects in Silesia. He desired, or rather commanded, the emperor to renew and confirm to them all the liberties granted by the treaties of Westphalia,

but since that time reclaimed or eluded at the treaty of Ryswick. The emperor durst not refuse; and upwards of 100 churches were given to the Protestants. At last, Charles began to evacuate Saxony, in pursuit of his great plan, the de-throning Czar Peter, and conquering the vast empire of Russia. While the army was on full march in the neighbourhood of Dresden, he surprised king Augustus with a visit with only 5 attendants.

(36.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE GREAT VICTORY OVER THE RUSSIANS, AT THE BORIS-THENES. The armies of Sweden, in Saxony, Poland, and Finland, now exceeded 70,000 men; a force more than sufficient to have conquered all the power of Russia had they met them on equal terms. Peter, who had his army dispersed in small parties, instantly assembled it on receiving notice of the king of Sweden's march; was making all possible preparations for a vigorous resistance, and was on the point of attacking Stanislaus, when the approach of Charles struck his whole army with terror. In Jan. 1708 he passed the Niemen, and entered the S. gate of Grodno, just as Peter was quitting the place by the north gate. Charles at this time had advanced to some distance before the army at the head of 600 horse. The Czar having intelligence of his situation, sent back a detachment of 2000 men to attack him: but they were utterly defeated; and this disappointment was followed by the total evacuation of Lithuania. The king pursued his flying enemies in the midst of snow and ice, over mountains, rivers, morasses, and through almost every obstacle that could be surmounted by human power; and, coming up with them at the Boristhenes completely defeated them.

(37.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE BATTLE OF SMOLENSKO. The Czar, finding himself closely pursued by the enemy with whom he was not able to cope, proposed peace; but Charles returned no other answer than that he would treat at Moscow; which being reported to Peter, he coolly replied, "My brother Charles affects to play Alexander, but he will not find in me a Darius." However, he did not venture an engagement, but continued his retreat; and Charles pursued so closely, that he was daily skirmishing with the rear of the enemy. In these actions the Swedes had generally the advantage, though in the main these victories proved detrimental, by weakening the army in a country where it was impossible to recruit. Near Smolensko, the king, with only six regiments, defeated a body of 10,000 horse and 6000 Cossacks. In this engagement he was exposed to the utmost danger, the enemy having separated him from his troops.

(38.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE ARRIVAL OF REINFORCEMENTS UNDER LEWENHAUPT. By the 3d of October 1708 Charles was within 109 leagues of Moscow; but Peter had made the roads impassable, either by laying them under water, digging deep ditches, or covering them with the wood of whole forests. He had also destroyed the villages on every side, and taken away every possibility of subsisting an army. The season was also far advanced; the intense severe weather was approaching; so that the Swedes were threatened with all the miseries of cold and famine,

mine, at the same time that they were exposed to the attacks of an enemy greatly superior in number. For these reasons the king resolved to pass through the Ukraïn, where Mazeppa, a Polish gentleman, was general and chief of the nation. Mazeppa, having been affronted by the Czar, readily entered into a treaty with Charles, whom he promised to assist with 30,000 men, great quantities of provisions and ammunition, and with all his treasures, which were immense. The Swedish army advanced towards the Dîna, where they had to encounter the greatest difficulties; a forest above 40 leagues in extent filled with rocks, mountains, and marshes. To complete their misfortunes, they were led 90 miles out of the right way; all the artillery was sunk in bogs and marshes; the provision of the soldiers, which consisted of biscuit, was exhausted; and the whole army spent and emaciated when they arrived at the Dîna. Here they expected to have met Mazeppa with his reinforcement; but instead of that, they perceived the opposite banks of the river covered with a hostile army, and the passage itself almost impracticable. Charles, however, was still undaunted; he let his soldiers by ropes down the steep banks; they crossed the river, either by swimming or on rafters hastily put together; drove the Russians from their post, and continued their march. Mazeppa soon after appeared, having with him about 6000 broken remains of the army he had promised. The Russians had got intelligence of his designs, defeated and dispersed his adherents, laid his towns in ashes, and taken all the provisions collected for the Swedish army. However, he still hoped to be useful by his intelligence in an unknown country; and the Cossacks, out of revenge, crowded daily to the camp with provisions. Greater misfortunes still awaited the Swedes. When Charles entered the Ukraïn, he had sent orders to general Lewenhaupt to meet him with 15,000 men, 6000 of whom were Swedes and a large convoy of provisions. Against this detachment Peter now bent his whole force, and marched against him with an army of 65,000 men. Lewenhaupt defeated him in a number of engagements, and at last arrived at the camp of Charles with 4000 men, after having killed upwards of 30,000 of the enemy on their march.

(39.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE VICTORY OVER CHARLES XII. BY PETER THE GREAT AT PULTOWA. This was the last effort of Swedish valour. The difficulties they had now to undergo exceed what human nature could bear; yet still they hoped, by constancy and courage to overcome every obstacle. In the severest winter known for a long time even in Russia, they made long marches, clothed like savages in the skins of wild beasts; all the draught horses perished; thousands of soldiers dropped dead with cold and hunger: so that by Feb. 1707, the whole army was reduced to 18,000 Swedes. Amidst numberless difficulties these penetrated at last to PULTOWA, a town on the eastern frontier of the Ukraïn, where the Czar had laid up magazines; and of these Charles resolved to get possession. The place made an obstinate defence, the Swedes were repulsed in every assault, and 8000 of them were defeated, and almost entirely cut off, in an

engagement with a party of Russians. To complete his misfortunes, Charles received a shot from a carabine in his heel, which shattered the bone. For some days the Czar, with an army of 70,000 men, had lain at a small distance, harassing the Swedish camp, and cutting off the convoys of provision; but now intelligence was received, that he was advancing as if with a design of attacking the lines. In this situation, Charles determined to be the assaulter and on the 8th of July 1709, he lost the memorable battle of Pultowa which decided the fate of the Swedes. Our limits forbid a detail of the particulars, but the issue of the day was, that Charles escaped with a mere handful of followers; the rest of his army being slain or taken prisoners.

(40.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, TO THE VICTORY OVER THE DANES BY THE SWEDES. Charles fled in a mean calash, attended by a little troop inviolably attached to his person, some on foot, and some on horseback. They were obliged to cross a sandy desert, where neither herb nor tree was to be seen, and where the burning heat and want of water were more intolerable than the extremities of cold they had formerly suffered. They reached Oczakow, the bashaw of which supplied the king with every necessary. But it was some time before boats could be got ready for transporting the whole of the king's attendants; by which accident 500 Swedes and Cossacks fell into the hands of the enemy. This loss affected him more than all his other misfortunes. The king remained but a few days at Oczakow, when the seraskier of Bender sent an aga to compliment him on his arrival in the Turkish dominions, and to invite him to that city. Here he was treated with the utmost hospitality. In the Turkish divan it was proposed to escort Charles with a numerous army to the frontiers of Poland; but the revolution which took place there quickly put an end to all such projects. AUGUSTUS thought himself no longer bound to observe the treaty which he had made, than Charles was at hand to force him to it. After the battle of Pultowa, therefore, he entered Poland, and took every measure, in concert with the Czar, for the recovery of his kingdom. STANISLAUS was obliged to leave his dominions and fly to Bender, in the disguise of a Swedish officer, to share the fortune of Charles.—It was not in Poland alone that the Swedish affairs began to suffer in consequence of the defeat at Pultowa. The Danes invaded the province of Schonen with an army of 13,000 foot and 2500 horse. Only 13,000 Swedish forces remained to defend all the territories possessed by Charles in Germany; and of these only a small part were allotted for the defence of Schonen. The regency of Sweden, however, exerted themselves to the utmost to repel this ungenerous invasion; and having collected an army of 12,000 militia and 8000 regulars, dispatched them under general Steenbock into Schonen. Some Saxon troops were incorporated in this army; and among these a prodigious desertion took place, which the general found it impossible to prevent; and thus the Danes gained several advantages, and at last took Christianstadt. Their insolence on this success was so great, that the Swedes

Swedes demanded to be instantly led against them. Here the good fortune of Sweden seemed once more to revive. The Dapcs were driven from a very strong situation, with the loss of 8000 killed and taken prisoners, besides a vast number wounded.

(41.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL CHARLES XII.'s IMPRISONMENT IN TURKEY. In the meantime, Charles, by his agents, count Poniatowski and Sieur Neugebar, used his utmost efforts to procure a rupture between the Porte and Russia. For a long time the money bestowed by Peter on the vizirs and janisaries prevailed; but at last, in 1713, the grand signior, influenced by his mother, who was strongly in the interest of Charles, and had been wont to call him *her lion*, determined to avenge his quarrel with Peter. He therefore gave orders to the vizir to fall upon the Russians with an army of 200,000 men. The vizir promised obedience; but professed his ignorance in the art of war. The khan of Crim Tartary, who had been gained over by the reputation and presents of the king of Sweden, had orders to take the field with 40,000 of his men, and had the liberty of assembling his army at Bender, that Charles might see that the war was undertaken upon his account. The Czar, on these news, left the siege of Riga, where he had continued for some months; and with 24,000 men entered Moldavia, where he was joined by Cantemir, a vassal of the Porte. The vizir marched against Peter with a prodigious army, and through the negligence of the Czar, cooped him up in such a manner that he could neither advance nor retreat. In this desperate situation, he perceived that he was now in as bad a situation as Charles at Pultowa; and gave orders for breaking through the enemy with fixed bayonets. The desponding spiritless soldiers, however, were little disposed to execute these orders; when Catharine, wife to the czar, without his knowledge, set on foot a treaty with the vizir; and having soon obtained his consent, had the peace signed in six hours; by which means the whole Russian army was saved. The new treaty was most violently opposed by count Poniatowski and the khan of Tartary. The former had made the king acquainted with the situation of both armies; on which he instantly set out from Bender, filled with the hopes of fighting the Russians, and taking ample vengeance. Having ridden 30 leagues post, he arrived at the camp just as the czar was drawing off his half-famished troops. He alighted at Poniatowski's tent; and being informed of particulars, instantly flew in a rage to the vizir, whom he loaded with reproaches, and accused of treachery. Recollecting himself, however, he proposed a method by which the fault might be remedied; but finding his proposal rejected, he posted back to Bender, after having by the grossest insults showed his contempt of the vizir. This violent behaviour of Charles did not promote his interest. The vizir perceived that his stay in Turkey might prove fatal to himself; and therefore determined to get him out of the country as soon as possible, either by fair means or foul. Succeeding vizirs adopted the same plan; and at last the grand signior himself wrote a letter to the king, in which he desired him to

depart by next winter, promising to supply him with a sufficient guard, with money, and every thing else necessary for his journey. Charles gave an evasive answer, and determined to procrastinate his journey, as well to gratify his own stubborn temper, as because he discovered a correspondence between Augustus and the khan of Tartary, the object of which, he had reason to believe, was to betray him to the Saxons. When he was therefore again pressed to fix the day of his departure, he replied, that he could not think of going before his debts were paid. Being asked how much was necessary for this purpose, he replied, 1000 purses, (of 30 sequins each,) 1200 purses were instantly sent to the seraskier at Bender, with orders to deliver them to the king of Sweden; but not before he should have begun his journey. By fair promises, however, Charles persuaded him to part with the money; after which, instead of setting out, he squandered away his treasure in presents and gratifications, and then demanded 1000 purses more before he would set out. The seraskier was astonished at this behaviour. He shed tears; and, turning to the king told him, that his head would be the forfeit of having obliged him with the money. The grand signior, on being acquainted with this shameful behaviour of Charles, flew into a rage, and called an extraordinary divan, where he himself spoke, a thing very unusual for the Turkish monarchs. It was unanimously agreed that such a troublesome guest ought to be removed by force should other means fail. Orders were therefore positively sent to Charles to depart; and, in case of refusal, to attack him in his quarters. Nothing could equal his obstinacy on this occasion: in spite of the menaces of his enemies, in spite of the intreaties of his friends, he persisted in his resolution; and at last determined to resist, with 300 Swedes, being all the attendants he had, an army of 20,000 janisaries well armed and furnished with cannon. At length he was attacked in earnest; though even in this extremity, the Turks showed their regard to him, and were tender of his life. Most of the Swedes surrendered, as thinking it the only method of saving the king's life. But Charles became the more obstinate the more desperate his affairs seemed to be. With 40 menial servants only, and the generals Hord and Dardorff, he determined to defend himself to the last extremity, and after the house was on fire, he was forcing his way to an adjoining building, which had a stone roof, when his foot slipped, and his fall saved his life by making him a prisoner. This happened on the 12th Feb. 1713. He was now kept prisoner, with all his retinue; and in this situation he was visited in disguise by the unfortunate Stanislaus, whom he desired "never to make peace with Augustus; adding, we shall soon have a change in our affairs."

(42.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL CHARLES XII.'s RETURN FROM TURKEY. Such were the considerations that still occurred to the mind of Charles; however, at last he seemed inclined to submit to his fate, and began seriously to think of returning to his kingdom, now reduced to the most deplorable situation. His habitation was now fixed at Demotica, a small town about six leagues from

from Adrianople. Here he was allowed provisions for his own table and those of his retinue; but, only 25 crowns a-day in money, instead of 500, which he had received at Bender. During his residence here he received a deputation from Hesse-Cassel, soliciting his consent to the marriage of Frederick the landgrave with **ULRICA ELEANORA**, princess royal of Sweden; to which he readily agreed. A deputation was also sent him by the regency of Sweden, requesting that he would prepare for returning to his own dominions, which were ready to sink under a ruinous war in his absence. What determined him, however, more than any thing to hasten his return, was the following accident. The new grand vizir, **Ibrahim Molla**, having for private reasons determined to come to a rupture with the czar, invited Charles to a conference, in the style and with the familiarity of an equal. Charles was so much chagrined at this indignity, that he sent his chancellor **Muller** to meet the vizir, with a pretence that he was sick. To avoid giving offence to this minister, Charles was obliged to keep his bed during his residence at Demotica, which was for 10 months after. At last, this vizir being strangled, and the Swedish interest at the Porte thereby entirely ruined, he determined to quit Turkey at all events. His departure was to be negotiated by his favourite **Grothufen**, whom he vested with the character of ambassador extraordinary; sending him to Adrianople with a train of 14 persons richly dressed. To equip this retinue the king was reduced to the most mortifying shifts, and to the necessity of borrowing money from usurers at 50 per cent. The great object was, to obtain from the vizir money, and a passport. **Grothufen** was received with all the respect due to his rank; but the vizir started difficulties. With regard to the passport, he said, it could be of no use until the consent of the court of Vienna was first obtained; and as to money, he said, "his master knew how to give when he thought proper, but it was beneath his dignity to lend; that the king should have every necessary provided for his journey, and possibly the Porte might make some pecuniary present, but he would not have it expected." The imperial minister, however, removed every difficulty with regard to the passport, by granting it in the most full and ample manner, in the name of the emperor, the princes and states of Germany. He sent also a present to the king, consisting of a tent of scarlet richly embroidered with gold; a sabre, the handle of which was studded with jewels; and eight fine horses richly caparisoned. Money, the article most wanted, was entirely forgotten; however, the day was fixed for Charles's departure, and the vizir appointed 60 carriages loaded with all kinds of provisions, and several companies of janissaries and other troops to attend him to the frontiers of Transylvania. On the 14th Oct. 1714, Charles quitted his bed at Demotica, and set out for Sweden. All the princes through whose territories he was to pass, had given orders for his entertainment in the most magnificent manner; but the king, perceiving that these compliments only rendered his imprisonment and other misfortunes more conspicuous, suddenly dismissed his Turkish attendants, and

assembling his own people, bid them take no care about him, but make the best of their way to Stralsund. After this he set out post, in the habit of a German officer, attended only by colonel **During**. Keeping the bye-roads through Hungary, Moravia, Austria, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, the Palatinate, Westphalia, and Mecklenburg, he arrived on the 21st Nov. at midnight before the gates of Stralsund. Being unknown, he was admitted with difficulty; but being soon recognized by the governor, the greatest tokens of joy were shown all over the town. In the midst of the tumult Charles went to bed. He had been booted for 16 days, and now his legs were swelled to such a degree that it was necessary to cut his boots off. Having slept for some hours, he arose, reviewed his troops, and gave orders for renewing the war with redoubled vigour.

(43.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE CAPTURE OF STRALSUND. Sweden was now in the greatest distress. On the defeat at Pultowa, the Danes had invaded Schonen, but were defeated by Gen. **Steenbock**. This victory, however, did not put an end to the war, for the kings of Denmark and Poland, with the czar of Muscovy, entered into stricter bonds of amity than ever. They dreaded the return of Charles to his own dominions, and apprehended that numberless victories would soon efface the remembrance of Pultowa. They determined, therefore, to make the best use of their time; and Charles never took a more imprudent resolution than obstinately to remain so long in the Turkish dominions. The kings of Denmark and Poland invaded Pomerania; but after laying siege in vain to Stralsund, Wismar and other places, they were obliged to retire, with disgrace. In 1712, the king of Denmark invaded and reduced Bremen and Verden; but the same year met with a terrible defeat from **Steenbock**, with the loss of a vast number killed and wounded and almost all their artillery taken. The following year, however, this general being pursued and surrounded by the united forces of the Russians, Danes, and Saxons, was obliged to throw himself into the neutral town of **Tonnungen**; where he was besieged, and obliged to surrender at discretion, with his whole army. The consequence was an invasion of Finland by the czar; which he totally reduced, after defeating the Swedes in several battles. Indeed, the Swedish forces were now unable to cope with almost any enemy. The return of Charles, however, seemed to give new life to the nation. Though the number of inhabitants was visibly diminished, the levies he had ordered were completed in a few weeks; but the hands left to cultivate the earth consisted of the infirm, aged, and decrepid; so that a famine was threatened in consequence of the military tag which had seized all the youth of the kingdom. The presence of Charles did not now produce those consequences which the allies had feared. The kingdom was too much reduced to be able to furnish the necessary supplies of men and money; and though the king's courage and military skill were not in the least diminished, the effort he made, instead of restoring Sweden to its splendour, served entirely to ruin it. In 1715, **Prussia** declared against him, on account of his de-

mandin

manding back the town of Stetin, which that monarch had seized. To complete his embarrassment, George I. of Britain also became his enemy. The forces of Denmark, Prussia, Saxony, and Hanover, joined to invest Wismar, while a body of 36,000 men formed the siege of Stralsund; at the same time that the czar, with a fleet of 20 large ships of war, and 150 transports, carrying 30,000 men, threw every part of the Swedish coast into the greatest consternation. The heroism of Charles could not prevail against so many enemies; yet he was still so dreadful, that the prince of Anhalt, with 12,000 brave troops, did not think himself a match for this furious enemy when at the head of only 2000, till he had entrenched his army behind a ditch, defended by chevaux de frize. This precaution was not unnecessary: for in the night Charles with his men clambered up the ditch, and attacked the enemy furiously. Numbers, however, at last prevailed; and Charles was obliged to retire, after having seen his favourite Grothufen, Gen. Dindorff and During, the companions of his exile, killed by his side, he himself being wounded in the breast. This rash attempt was to save Rugen, from whence the town of Stralsund was supplied with provisions. The place was well fortified, and garrisoned with 9000 men, with Charles himself at their head; but nothing could resist the efforts of the enemy. The houses were laid in ashes by the bombs; the walls miserably shattered, and large breaches made in them by the cannon; so that by the 17th of December it was proposed to give the assault. The attack on the horn-work was desperate; the enemy was twice repulsed; but at last, by dint of numbers, effected a lodgement. The next day Charles headed a sally, in which he dealt terrible destruction among the besiegers, but was at length overpowered and obliged to retreat into the town. At last his officers, apprehending that he must either fall into the hands of the enemy, or be buried in the ruins of the place, intreated him to retire. A retreat, however, was now almost as dangerous as to remain in the town, on account of the fleets of the enemy with which the sea was covered; and this very circumstance induced the king to consent to it. Setting out, therefore, in a small boat with sails and oars, he passed all the enemy's ships and batteries, and arrived safe at YSTEDT in Schonen.

(44.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF CHARLES XII. To revenge himself for these losses, Charles invaded Norway with an army of 25,000 men. The Danes were every where defeated and pursued with that vigour for which Charles was so remarkable; but strong reinforcements arriving from Denmark, and provisions failing, he was at last obliged to retire. Soon after this the Swedes lost WISMAR; but when every thing seemed to go to wreck, Baron Goertz, the chief minister and favourite of Charles, set on foot a treaty with the czar, by which the most formidable of all Charles's enemies was taken off. The minister prevailed upon the inflexible temper of Charles, by representing to him that the cession of certain provinces to Peter would induce him to assist him in his projects of again dethroning

Augustus, and of replacing James on the throne of Britain; which last scheme he had projected out of revenge for the elector of Hanover having seized on the duchies of Bremen and Verden. In consequence of the conferences between the czar and Goertz, the former engaged to send into Poland an army of 80,000 men to dethrone that prince whom he had so long defended. He engaged also to furnish ships for transporting 30,000 Swedes to Germany, and 10,000 into Denmark. This treaty, however, was not fully ratified; and the king's death put a final stop to all the great prospects of Sweden. Charles had resolved on the conquest of Norway, and he marched his army into that cold and barren country in October, when the ground was covered with frost and snow. With 18,000 men he formed the siege of Fredericksahl, though the severity of the frost rendered it almost impossible to break the ground. Charles, however, resolved to form trenches; and his soldiers cheerfully obeyed, digging into the ground with the same labour as if they had been piercing a rock. On the 11th Dec. 1718, the king visited the trenches in the midst of a terrible fire from the enemy, to animate his men by his presence. He took his post in a most dangerous station, standing upon a gabion and leaning over the parapet, while the enemy were firing chain shot at the very spot where he stood. He was intreated to change his station; but he remained obdurate, as if he had been proof against cannon bullets. At last he was seen to fall on the parapet with a deep groan. A small cannon ball had struck him on the temple, beat in the left eye, and forced the right eye quite out of its socket; his right hand in the mean time grasped the hilt of his sword, as if he had meant to revenge the blow. See CHARLES XII.

(45.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF FREDERICK. Charles XII. was succeeded by his sister, princess ULRICA ELEONORA, wife to Frederick, hereditary prince of Hesse. On this occasion the states took care to make a previous stipulation for the recovery of their liberties, and obliged the princess to sign a paper to this purpose before entering on the government. Their first care was to make a peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. In 1720, Q. Ulrica Eleonora resigned the crown in favour of her husband Frederick, who was elected by the States, and crowned May 3d, 1721. The French, about 1738, formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the *Habs*; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia, by which the province of Finland was lost. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was, at the same time, the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp, prince Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king,

king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux Ponts. The duke of Holstein had undoubtedly the best right. His name was *Peter Ulric*, the son of Charles Frederick, prince of Holstein-Gottorp, and grandson of Duke Frederick IV. by *Hedeviga Sophia*, eldest sister to Charles XII. but he had embraced the Greek religion; that he might succeed to the throne of Russia; which he did, on the death of Elizabeth, and became the unfortunate PETER III. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, Adolphus Frederick, bishop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that the king of Denmark dropt all resentment for the indignity done his son. Queen Ulrica Eleonora died in 1741, and king Frederick, her husband, in 1751.

(46.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF K. ADOLPHUS FREDERICK. King Adolphus Frederick was elected successor to the throne July 4. 1743; and on July 17. 1744. had married princess Louisa Ulrica, third sister to the king of Prussia. In 1751 he entered into the possession of his new dignity, which proved to him a crown of thorns. Through a strange medley of affairs and views of interest, the French had acquired vast influence in all the deliberations of the Swedish senate. The intrigues of the senators forced Adolphus to take part in the late war against Prussia; but as that war was disagreeable not only to the people, but also to the king of Sweden, the nation never made so mean an appearance; and upon Russia's making peace with the king of Prussia, the Swedes likewise made their peace, upon the terms of leaving things as they stood at the beginning of the war. Adolphus died dissipated in 1751, after a turbulent reign of 20 years; and was succeeded by his son Gustavus III.

(47.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE EXTRAORDINARY REVOLUTION IN 1772. The most remarkable transaction of the reign of Gustavus III. is the revolution which took place in the government in 1772, by which the king, from being the most limited, became one of the most despotic monarchs in Europe. Ever since the death of Charles XII. the whole power of the kingdom had been lodged in the states; and this power they had on all occasions most grievously abused. Gustavus therefore determined either to seize on that power of which they made such a bad use, or perish in the attempt. By the power of his eloquence, he obtained the acquiescence of all the military in one day; and on the following morning the terrified senate subscribed with acclamations to 57 new articles of government which he presented to them, lodging their power in his own hand. The power, however, thus obtained, the king employed for the good of his subjects. He took care that the law should be administered with impartiality to the richest noble and the poorest peasant, making a severe example of such judges as were proved to have made justice venal.

He gave particular attention and encouragement to commerce, was a liberal and enlightened patron of learning and science, and laboured strenuously to introduce into his kingdom the most valuable improvements in agriculture that had been made in foreign countries.

(48.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF GUSTAVUS III. Gustavus, while thus active in promoting the arts of peace, was not inattentive to those of war. The fleet and the army he placed on a more respectable footing than they had ever before attained. Of this the war with Russia afforded numerous proofs. It is needless for us to enter into a detail of the particulars of that war, which, as well as the astonishing activity and military skill displayed by the Swedish monarch, are fresh in the memory of all our readers. Suffice it to say, that neither Gustavus Adolphus nor Charles XII. gave greater proofs of undoubted courage and military conduct in their long and bloody wars, than were given by Gustavus III. from the end of 1787 to 1790, when peace was restored between the courts of St Petersburg and Stockholm. In 1792, he entered into the alliance that was formed against the revolutionary government of France; and to raise an army to co-operate with the emperor and the king of Prussia, he was obliged to negotiate large loans, and to impose upon his subjects heavy taxes. The nobles took advantage of that circumstance to prejudice the minds of the people against the sovereign, who had laboured so long for their real good. On the 16th of March 1793, he received an anonymous letter, warning him of his immediate danger from a plot that was laid to take away his life, requesting him to remain at home, and avoid balls for a year. Gustavus, like Cæsar, read the note with contempt, and at a late hour went to a ball that very night. He mingled, without apprehension, among the crowd; and just as he was preparing to retire in company with the Prussian ambassador, he was surrounded by several persons in masks, one of whom fired a pistol at the back of the king, and lodged the contents in his body. The king languished from the 17th to the 29th of March, when he died with that unshaken courage he had manifested during his life. A few hours before his decease, he appointed his brother, the duke of Sudermania, sole regent, till his son, who was then about fourteen, should have attained the age of eighteen. His last words were a declaration of pardon to the conspirators against his life. But his orders in this instance were disobeyed. The assassin Aukarstrom, who had been detected by the pistols and cutlase he dropped, was severely whipped three successive days; on the last of which, his right hand and head were cut off, and his body impaled. Four of his accomplices were beheaded, and others were imprisoned, and some pardoned. Immediately on the death of the king, his son was proclaimed king by the title of Gustavus IV.

(49.) SWEDEN, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE PRESENT TIME. Gustavus IV. during his short and unfortunate reign, certainly displayed much of the genius of his illustrious ancestors; but madness was mixed with his genius, and the utmost extravagance of mind with the greatest generosity of

of intention. His conduct in the unfortunate war which removed Prussia from the list of European powers we have already noticed under the article **REVOLUTION OF FRANCE**, § 50. The singular and unexpected revolution by which his aged uncle, the worthless tool of France, deprived him of his crown, has also been noticed, § 53. The unfortunate monarch, with all the fine qualities with which he was adorned, seems to have had in his own country neither friend nor party. He lived for a little while in England, which he quitted suddenly, we know not why. He has since retired to Switzerland, and taken the simple name of Gottorp; acquiescing, it would appear, in his own exclusion, and in that of his family. He has lately repudiated his wife, become a Moravian in his religion, and proposed to marry a young lady of that sect; all evident signs of mental derangement, belying, in a very melancholy manner, the promise of his early years. The election of Bernadotte to be crown prince of Sweden has also been recorded in the same article, § 53. The war with Russia, which we then anticipated, § 54, has actually commenced: twelve French bulletins have already been published; but nothing decisive has yet been done. The Russians have retired and the French have advanced; there has been much severe fighting, and much loss on both sides; but no general action, and nothing decisive. It is the object of the Russians to avoid a general action; and hitherto, as far as we know, down to this date (1st September 1812), they have succeeded. A treaty of peace has been signed between Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden. Lord Viscount Cathcart has gone out as British ambassador to Russia, and Mr Thornton remains in Sweden. An expedition has been prepared, in concert with Great Britain and Russia, under the crown prince (Bernadotte), in Sweden, with the view, it is said, of attacking Bonaparte in his rear. If it is the interest of Bernadotte, and perhaps it is his interest, to attack his former friend—and if there is a reasonable prospect of success, and perhaps there is such a prospect—we may perhaps rely on Bernadotte's hearty co-operation. Ministers must know more than the public can or ought yet to know; but to us it does not yet appear that Bernadotte has absolutely committed himself with his imperial master; and there is an apparent dilatoriness in his operations, and in the progress of the promised expedition, which we cannot account for. If, after all, he is merely playing Bonaparte's game, the villainy is deep and detestable. But it is vain, in any circumstance, to rely with confidence on French honour. They have reduced deceit and duplicity to system: their government, in all its gradations from the head through all its members, is regulated by deceit. Honourable individuals may yet be found in France; but honour can no longer be esteemed the general attribute of that nation, of which *seven hundred officers*, many of the highest rank, have, in the short space of three years, broke their parole. We yet wish, for the sake of our country, of humanity, and of the world, that our suspicions of the good faith of this crown prince may be groundless. We shall probably have an op-

portunity of recording the fact, whatever it may be, under the article **WAR**.

(50.) **SWEDEN, INHABITANTS. CHARACTERS. DRESS, DIVERSIONS, &c. OF.** There is a great diversity of characters among the people of Sweden; and they have had different characters in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy, but without any other ambition than that of subsisting as well as they can: they are honest, simple, hospitable, and religious; and the mercantile classes are much of the same cast: but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. The nobility and gentry of Sweden are brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress of the people is almost the same with that of Denmark: the higher ranks are infatuated with French modes and fashions. The common diversions of the Swedes are skating, running races in sledges, and sailing in yachts upon the ice. The women plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry. Longevity is common in Sweden.

(51.) **SWEDEN, LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE OF THE PEOPLE OF.** The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark. The Swedish nobility and gentry are, in general, more conversant in polite literature than those of many other flourishing states. They have of late exhibited some noble specimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature and science, particularly natural history; and the botanical and chemical discoveries and improvements of LINNÆUS, BERGMAN, and SCHERLE, will confer everlasting honour on their native country.

(52.) **SWEDEN, MANUFACTURES, COMMODITIES, MINES, METALS, STAPLE TOWNS, TRADE, &c. OF.** The inhabitants subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and useful commodities of masts, beams, and other sorts of timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, potash, wooden utensils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, fish, and train oil. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th century: for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse Towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco plantations, and manufactures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; also of linen, alum, brimstone, paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills. Vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden, dug from mines, some of them more than 100 feet deep. The iron mine of Dannemora, which is much the most profitable of any of those with which every part of Sweden abounds, is said to yield 60 lb. of metal in 100 lb. of ore, and the others about 30 lb.

The iron extracted from this is known in Europe under the name of *Öregrund*; which name is derived from a sea-port on the Baltic. A large portion of it is employed by different nations for making the best steel. The mine was discovered in 1470. The unwrought ore was first sold to the merchants of Lubeck. It was not until the reign of Gustavus Vasa that the Swedes worked it themselves. The mine of Dannemora yields about 40,000 stones of bar iron per year, which is supposed to be one tenth part of the quantity which all the iron mines of Sweden produce. Of this product, amounting to 400,000 stones, 300,000 are annually exported; the remainder is manufactured at home. It is calculated that no less than 25,600 men are employed in mining, and the branches immediately connected with it; viz. 4000 for breaking the rocks, either by explosion or manual labour; 10,800 to hew timber and burn it into charcoal; 2000 are employed in smelting; 1800 in transporting the metal from the furnaces to the forges; 600 in transporting sand, fuel, &c.; 4000 for transporting the charcoal; and 2400 at the forges. They have also founderies for cannon, forgeries for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flattening mills, mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale. There are likewise in Sweden some silver mines, of which that of *Sätha*, or *Sälberg*, is the richest as well as the most ancient. It existed so early as 1188, and, during the whole of the 14th century, it yielded 24,000 marks of silver annually. In the 15th century the quantity was diminished to 20,000. In the reign of Charles X. it gave only 2000, and it furnishes at present still less, the ore yielding only one ounce of pure metal per quintal. The chief gallery, where the purest silver was obtained, having fallen in, is not yet cleared, notwithstanding their incessant labour. They are also digging pits in a perpendicular direction, in order to arrive at the principal vein, which extends itself from the N. to the SE. Formerly lead employed in separating the metal was imported from England; but the mine furnishes at present a sufficient quantity for the purpose. Certain towns in Sweden, 14 in number, are called *Staple towns*, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the sea, are called *land towns*. A third kind are termed *mine towns*, as belonging to mine districts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increased their exports, and diminished their imports, most part of which arrive or are sent off in Swedish ships; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation act like that of the English.

(53.) SWEDEN, MILITARY STRENGTH OF. No country has produced greater heroes or braver troops than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60l. or 70l. per annum is charged

with a foot soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a-year in money; or else a little wooden house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be said that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 50,000 men. Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line.

(54.) SWEDEN, MINERALS, WATERFALLS, &c. 18. Sweden produces crystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other fossils. The chief wealth of the country, however, arises from her mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. (See § 52.) This last employs no fewer than 350 forges, hammering-mills, and smelting houses. A gold mine has likewise been discovered in Sweden; but inconsiderable. One silver mine is said to produce 20,000 crowns a-year. The product of the copper mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vast taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other resources for the exigencies of the state. The waterfalls in Sweden are numerous, and many of them picturesque; but their utility is chiefly to be admired in the immense number of water-wheels they drive throughout Sweden.

(55.) SWEDEN, POPULATION OF. The total population of Sweden is estimated by Cruttwell at near three millions. Most other geographers are silent on the subject.

(56.) SWEDEN, PROVINCES AND DISTRICTS OF. This extensive kingdom, which is the largest state in Europe, except Russia, is divided into five large districts or territories, improperly called *provinces* by some geographers, and *parts* by others, which is a very indefinite epithet. These districts are, 1. SWEDEN PROPER: 2. GOTHLAND: 3. NORKLAND: 4. SWEDISH LAPLAND: and, 5. FINLAND. (See these articles.) Each of these is subdivided into several provinces. I. Sweden Proper contains 5 provinces; viz. UPLAND, SUDERMANIA, NERICIA, WESTMANIA, and DALECARLIA. II. Gothland contains 10 provinces; viz. OSTROGOTHIA, SMOLAND, WESTROGOTHIA, the isles of GOTELAND and ÖLAND, WARMELAND, BOHUS, DALIA, SCHONEN, HALLAND, and BLEKINGEN. III. Norland includes 7 provinces; viz. GASTRICIA, HELSINGIA, MEDELPAIDIA, HIEMPTLAND, HERJESDALIA, ANGERNANIA, and W. BOTHNIA. IV. Swedish Lapland comprehends 7; viz. *Afela*, *Hiemptland*, *Umeo*, *Pitbo*, *Luleo*, *Torneo*, and *Kemi*. And, V. Finland contains 6 provinces; viz. FINLAND PROPER, E. BOTHNIA, TAVASTELAND, NYLAND, SAVOLAX, and part of *Carolia* and *Cymene*. Most of these provinces are described in their order.

(57.) SWEDEN, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISH, PLANTS, &c. OF. The celebrated Linnæus says, there are in Sweden 1400 different species of animals, and 1200 species of plants, of which 200 are medicinal. Among the former are bears, elks, does, roe-bucks, beavers, fables, polecats, wolves, foxes, hares, rabbits, squirrels, moor-fowls,

fowls, wood-cocks, falcons, partridges, and a great variety of other game; besides the domestic animals, horses, sheep, goats, hogs, and black cattle. The coasts and rivers abound with fish, which are salted and exported. There are no venomous reptiles in Sweden.

(58.) SWEDEN, RELIGION OF THE PEOPLE OF. Christianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheranism. The Swedes are surprisingly uniform in religious matters; and have such an aversion to popery, that castration is the fate of every Roman Catholic priest discovered in Sweden. The Abp. of Upsal has a revenue of about 400 l. a-year; and has under him 13 suffragans, besides superintendents, with moderate stipends. No clergyman has any concern in affairs of state; but their morals and the sanctity of their lives, endear them to the people. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of ecclesiastical laws and canons direct their religious economy. A conversion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot pass without the king's permission, is punished by imprisonment and exile.

(59.) SWEDEN, REVENUE OF. The revenue of Sweden, since the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. has been greatly reduced. Her specie, in the reign of Ad. Frederic, arose chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly the crown lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are said to have produced a million sterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; some of these pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate sum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of silver, valued each at 5s. 2d.

(60.) SWEDEN, SURFACE, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE OF. The surface, climate, soil, &c. of Sweden, are pretty similar to those of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers. Summer and winter suddenly succeed each other, with hardly any interval of spring and autumn as in other countries. Vegetation is therefore quite rapid, the heat being excessive. The long days of summer have hardly any night. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is so intense that the noses and extremities of the inhabitants are sometimes mortified. The Swedes, since the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenness of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in some places with great success. The soil is much the same with that of Denmark and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some valleys surprisingly fertile. The Swedes now follow the agriculture of France and England; and rear almost as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, beans; and deficiencies are supplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In summer the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers; and produce strawberries, raspberries, currants, and other small fruits; and melons are brought to great perfection in dry seasons. Sweden is happily free from earthquakes.

(II.) SWEDEN, PROPER. See N° I. § 55.

SWEDENBORG, Emanuel, was born at Stockholm on the 29th Jan. 1689. His father was bishop of W. Gothia. Young Swedenborg's education, from the character of the father, must have been pious; and by his appearing with reputation as an author, at 20 years of age, it is proved successful. His first work was a vol. of Latin poems, published in 1709; and in 1710, he published a collection of pieces, in Latin verse, entitled *Ludus Heliconius, five Carmina Miscellanea, quæ variis in locis crevit*. The same year he began his travels into England, Holland, France, and Germany; and returning to Stockholm in 1714, he was in 1716 appointed assessor in the Metallic College by Charles XII. who honoured him with frequent conversations. At this period he devoted his attention to phycic and mathematics; and in 1718 he accompanied the king to the siege of Fredericks-hall, where he gave an eminent proof that he had not studied in vain, by designing a canal 2½ miles long, through which he conveyed from Sweden two galleys, five large boats, and a sloop, loaded with battering pieces, to be employed in the siege. During this siege he completed a collection of essays on mathematics and phycics, called *Dædalus Hyperboreus*; and published an introduction to algebra, under the title of *The Art of the Rules*. At the siege of Fredericks-hall he lost his patron Charles; but found another in his sister, Q. Ulrica Eleonora; by whom in 1719 he was ennobled, and took his seat among the senators of the equestrian order in the triennial assemblies of the States. He published in the same year *A Method to fix the Value of Money, and to determine the Swedish Measures in such a way as to suppress all the Fractions and facilitate the Calculations*. About the same time he gave the public a treatise on the *Position and Course of the Planets*; with another on the *Height of the Tides, and Flux and Reflux of the Sea*. As he continued, under the new sovereign, to hold the office of assessor to the Metallic College, he made a second journey into foreign countries, to examine their mines, particularly those of Saxony and Harts. During these travels, he printed at Amsterdam, 1. *Prodromus principiorum Naturalium, five novorum tentaminum, Chemiam et Phyciam experimentalem geometricè explicandi*. 2. *Nova observata & inventa circa Ferrum & Ignem, præcipue naturam Ignis Elementarum, una cum nova Camini inventione*. 3. *Methodus nova inveniendi Longitudines locorum terra marique opæ Lunæ*. 4. *Modus construendi receptacula navalia, vulgo in Suedois, Dockbygnadder*. 5. *Nova constructio aggeris aquatici*. 6. *Modus explorandi virtutes Navigiorum*. And at Leipzig and Hamburg, 7. *Miscellanea observata circa res naturales, præsertim Mineralia, Ignem, & Montium Arata*. In 1733 he finished his grand work, entitled *Opera Philosophica & Mineralia*. In 1734, he went to inspect the mines of Austria and Hungary. In 1729, he was made a member of the Society of Sciences at Upsal, and was, probably about the same time, made a Fellow of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm. The Academy of St Petersburg sent him, on the 17th of December 1734, a diploma of association as a correspondent member. But all these

these marks of the approbation of the learned could not preserve the strong mind of the Baron from falling a victim to the wildest fanaticism. He declared that the Lord had manifested himself to him in a personal appearance, in 1743, to open in him a sight of the spiritual world, and to enable him to converse with *spirits* and *angels*. From that time he bade adieu to science, and employed his time in travelling, and expended large sums in publishing mystic tracts, declaring in his own words "the various unknown *Arcana*, which have been either seen by me or revealed to me, concerning heaven and hell, the state of men after death, the true worship of God, the spiritual sense of the Scriptures, and many other important truths tending to salvation and true wisdom." He died at London, March 29, 1772. Though Baron Swedenborg's followers appear not to have been numerous during his life, they have increased since his death; and a sect subsists at present in England which derives its origin from him, and is called the *New Jerusalem Church*. The discriminating tenets of this sect seem to be the following: "Holding the doctrine of one God, they maintain that this one God is no other than Jesus Christ, and that he always existed in a human form; that for the sake of redeeming the world, he took upon himself a proper human or material body, but not a human soul; that this redemption consists in bringing the hells or evil spirits into subjection, and the heavens into order and regulation, and thereby preparing the way for a new spiritual church; that without such redemption no man could be saved, nor could the angels retain their state of integrity; that their redemption was effected by means of trials, temptations, or conflicts with evil spirits; and that the last of them, by which Christ glorified his humanity, perfecting the union of his divine with his human nature, was the passion of the cross. Though they maintain that there is but one God, and one divine person, they hold that in this person there is a real Trinity; consisting of the divinity, the humanity, and the operation of them both in the Lord Jesus; a Trinity which did not exist from all eternity, but commenced at the incarnation. They believe that the Scriptures are to be interpreted not only in a literal but in a spiritual sense, not known to the world till it was revealed to B. Swedenborg; and that this spiritual sense extends to every part of Scripture, except the Acts of the Apostles. They believe that there are angels attending upon men, residing, as B. Swedenborg says, in their affections; that temptation consists in a struggle between good and bad angels within men; and that by these means God assists men in these temptations, since of themselves they could do nothing. Indeed B. Swedenborg maintains, that there is an universal influx from God into the souls of men, inspiring them especially with the belief of divine unity. This efflux of divine light on the spiritual world he compares to the efflux of the light from the sun in the natural world. "There are (says B. Swedenborg) two worlds, the natural and the spiritual, entirely distinct, though perfectly corresponding to each other; that at death a man enters into the spiritual world, when his soul is clothed with a body,

which he terms *substantial*, in opposition to the present *material* body, which, he says, is never to rise out of the grave."

SWEDES. *n. s.* the natives of Sweden. See SWEDEN, N° 1, § 49.

SWEDESBOROUGH, a post town of New Jersey, in Gloucester county, on the Raccoon, which runs into the Delaware, and is navigable up to this town. It has a fine church, and is 21 miles SSW. of Philadelphia.

(1.) **SWEDISH.** *adj.* Of, or belonging to SWEDEN; or sprung, brought from, or invented in that kingdom.

(2.) **SWEDISH LAPLAND.** See LAPLAND, N° III.

(3.) **SWEDISH TURNIP.** See RUTA, N° 14.

SWEDLER, a town of Hungary, 7 miles S. of Kapfdorf.

(1.) * **SWEEP.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of sweeping. 2. The compas of any violent or continued motion.—A door drags when the bottom edge rides in its sweep upon the floor. *Moxon*.—

A torrent swell'd,

Breaking away impetuous, involves

Within its sweep, trees, houses, men. *Philips*.

3. Violent and general destruction.—In countries subject to great epidemical *sweeps*, men may live very long. *Graunt*. 4. Direction of any motion not redilinear.—Having made one incision a little circularly, begin a second, bringing it with an opposite sweep to meet the other. *Sharp*.

(2.) **SWEEP**, in the sea language, is that part of the mould of a ship where she begins to compass in the rung heads; also when the hauler is dragged along the bottom of the sea to recover any thing that is sunk, they call this action *sweeping* for it.

(1.) * **To SWEEP.** *v. a.* [*swapan*, Saxon.] 1. To drive away with a besom. 2. To clean with a besom.—What woman, having ten pieces of silver, if she lose one, doth not sweep the house, and seek diligently? *Luke*, xv. 8. 3. To carry with pomp.—

Like a peacock, sweep along his tail. *Shak*.

4. To drive or carry off with celerity and violence.

I could,

With barefac'd power, sweep him from my sight. *Shak*.

—The river of Kishon swept them away. *Judges*,

v.—The blustering winds striving for victory, swept the snow from off the tops of those high mountains. *Kneller*.—

They miss or sweep but common souls away.

Waller.

My looking is the fire of penitence,

That sweeps at once the people and the prince.

Dryden.

—I have already swept the stakes. *Dryden*.—

Is this the man who drives me before him

To the world's ridge, and sweeps me off? *Dryden*.

With equal speed the torrent flows

To sweep fame, power, and wealth away.

Fenton.

—A duke drew a huge heap of gold; but never observed a sharper, who under his arm swept a great deal of it into his hat. *Swift*. 5. To pass over with celerity and force. 6. To rub over.

Their long descending train

With

With rubies edg'd and sapphires, *sweep* the plain.
Dryden.

7. To strike with a long stroke.—

Descend, ye nine: descend and sing,
And *sweep* the sounding lyre. *Pope.*

(2.) * *TO SWEEP. v. n.* 1. To pass with violence, tumult, or swiftness. Perhaps in the first quotation we should read *sweep*.—

I with wings as swift
May *sweep* to my revenge. *Shak.*

—A poor man that oppresseth the poor, is like a *sweeping* rain which leaveth no food. *Prov. xxviii. 3.*

Cowen in her course
Tow'rds the Sabrinian shores, as *sweeping* from
her source,
Takes Tow. *Drayton!*

Stars shooting through the darkness gild the night
With *sweeping* glories. *Dryden.*

2. To pass with pomp; to pass with an equal motion.—

She *sweeps* it through the court. *Shak.*
In gentle dreams I often will be by,
And *sweep* along before your closing eye. *Dryd.*

3. To move with a long reach.—

Nor always err; for oft the gauntlet draws
A *sweeping* stroke along the crackling jaws. *Dryd.*

* *SWEEPER. n. s.* [from *sweep*.] One that sweeps.

* *SWEEPING. n. s.* [from *sweep*.] That which is swept away.—Should this one broomstick enter the scene, covered with dust, though the *sweeping* of the finest lady's chamber, we should despise its vanity. *Swift.*

* *SWEEPNET. n. s.* [*sweep* and *net*.] A net that takes in a great compass.—She was a *sweep-net* for the Spanish ships. *Camden.*

* *SWEEPSTAKE. n. s.* [*sweep* and *stake*.] A man that wins all.—

Sweepstake, you will draw both friend and foe,
Winner and loser? *Shak.*

* *SWEEPSTAKE'S FORELAND*, a cape in the Straits of Magellan. Lon. 71. 24. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

* *SWEEPLY. adj.* [from *sweep*.] Passing with great speed and violence over a great compass at once.—

The branches bend before their *sweepl*y sway.
Dryden.

(1.) * *SWEET. adj.* [*sweete*, Sax. *soet*, Dutch.]

1. Pleading to any sense.—*Sweet* expresses the pleasant perceptions of almost every sense: *sugar* is *sweet*, but it hath not the same sweetness as music; nor hath music the sweetness of a rose, and a *sweet* prospect differs from them all; nor yet have any of these the same sweetness as discourse, counsel, or meditation hath; yet the royal Psalmist saith of a man, we took *sweet* counsel together: and of God, my meditation of him shall be *sweet*. *Watts.* 2. Luscious to the taste.—

This honey tasted still is ever *sweet*. *Davies.*

3. Fragrant to the smell.—

Burn *sweet* wood to make the lodging *sweet*.
Shak.

—Where a rainbow hangeth over or toucheth, there breatheth a *sweet* smell; for that this happeneth but in certain matters which have some sweetness which the dew of the rainbow draweth

forth. *Bacon.*—Shred very small with thine, *sweet* marjory, and a little winter savoury. *Walton.*—

The balmy zephyrs, silent since her death,
Lament the ceasing of a *sweeter* breath. *Pope.*

To sell the bounteous product of the spring;
Sweet smelling flow'rs. *Gay.*

4. Melodious to the ear.—

The dulcimir, all organs of *sweet* Rop. *Milt.*
Her speech is grac'd with *sweeter* sound
Than in another's song is found. *Waller.*

No more the streams their murmurs shall
forbear

A *sweeter* music than their own to hear. *Pope.*

5. Pleading to the eye.—

Thou hast the *sweetest* face I ever look'd on.
Shak.

6. Not salt.—The white of an egg, or blood mingled with salt water, gathers the saltness, and maketh the water *sweeter*. *Bacon.*—

Sweet waters mingle with the briny main. *Dryd.*

7. Not sour.—Time changeth fruits from more sour to more *sweet*; but contrariwise liquors, even those that are of the juice of fruit, from more *sweet* to more sour. *Bacon.*—Trees whose fruit is acid last longer than those whose fruit is *sweet*. *Bacon.*—When metals are dissolved in acid menstruums, and the acids in conjunction with the metal act after a different manner, the compound has a different taste, much milder than before, and sometimes a *sweet* one. *Newton.* 8. Mild; soft; gentle.—

Let me report to him
Your *sweet* dependency. *Shak.*

The Pleiades before him danc'd,
Shedding *sweet* influence. *Milton.*

Mercy has, could mercy's self be seen,
No *sweeter* look than this propitious queen. *Waller.*

9. Grateful pleading.—

Nothing so *sweete* is as our country's earth,
And joy of those, from whom we claim our birth. *Chapman.*

Sweet interchange of hill and valley. *Milton.*

The Trojan host

No fairer face or *sweeter* air could boast. *Æn.*

10. Not stale; not stinking; as, *that meat is sweet*.
(2.) *SWEET*, in the above quotation, (§ 1, def. 1.) is rather *confused* than *explained* by *Dr Watts*; for in all the senses stated by the Dr except the first, *sweet* and *sweetness* are used *metaphorically*; but it is absurd to illustrate a simple intension of taste by metaphors borrowed from it.

(3.) * *SWEET. n. s.* 1. Sweetness; something pleasing.—

Let them not lick
The *sweet* which is their poison. *Shak.*

What softer sounds are these salute the ear,
As if the centre of all *sweets* met here! *Ben Jonson.*

If ev'ry *sweet* and ev'ry grace
Must fly from that forsaken face. *Carreau.*

Hail! weeded love,
Perpetual fountain of domestic *sweets*! *Milton.*

Nor with perplexing thoughts
To interrupt the *sweets* of life. *Milt.*

Now since the Latian and the Trojan brood
Have tasted vengeance, and the *sweets* of blood,
Speak. *Dryden.*

Can Ceyx then sustain to leave his wife,
And unconcern'd forsake the sweets of life?

Dryden.

—A little bitter mingled in our cup leaves no
relish of the sweet. *Locke.*

Love had ordain'd that it was Abra's turn
To mix the sweets, and minister the urn. *Prior.*

2. A word of endearment.—

Sweet! leave me here a while. *Shak.*

Wherefore frowns my sweet? *B. Jonson.*

3. A perfume.—

As in perfumes,

'Tis hard to say what scent is uppermost;

So the was all a sweet. *Dryden.*

Flowers

Rebound their sweets. *Prior.*

(4.) SWEET, *n. s.* in the wine trade denotes
any vegetable juice, whether obtained by means
of sugar, raisins, or other foreign or domestic
fruit, which is added to wines with a design to
improve them.

* SWEETBREAD. *n. s.* The pancreas of the calf.
—Never tie yourself always to eat meats of easy
digestion, as veal, pullets, or sweetbreads. *Harvey.*

Sweetbread and collops were with skewers
prick'd. *Dryden.*

—Remember your sweetheart the butler loves a
sweetbread. *Swift.*

(1.) * SWEETBRIAR. *n. s.* [sweet and briar.] A
fragrant shrub.—For March come violets and
peach-tree in blossom, the cornelian tree, and
sweetbriar. *Bacon.*

(2.) SWEETBRIAR. See ROSA, § IV. N° 7.

* SWEETBROOM. *n. s.* [*grica*, Lat.] An herb.
Ainsworth.

(1.) * SWEETCICELY. *n. s.* [*myrrhus*, Lat.] A
plant. *Miller.*

(2.) SWEET CICELY is a species of SCANDIX.

(1.) * To SWEETEN. *v. a.* [from sweet.] 1. To
make sweet.—

The world the garden is, she is the flow'r

That sweetens all the place. *Sidney.*

—Here is the smell of the blood still: all the per-
fumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand.
Shak.—Give me an ounce of civet to sweeten my
imagination. *Shak.*

With fairest flow'rs, Fidele,

I'll sweeten thy sad grave. *Shak.*

Sweeten your tea, and watch your toast. *Swift.*

2. To make mild or kind.—As rivers of fresh
water falling into the main sea; the sea swallows
them all, but is not changed or sweetened by
them. *South.*—Devotion softens his heart, en-
lightens his mind, sweetens his temper. *Law.* 3.
To make less painful.—She even sweetens the
death which her sweetness brought upon me.
Sidney.

She thy cares will sweeten with her charms.

Dryden.

—Interest of state and change of circumstances
may have sweetened these reflections to the politer
fort. *Addison.*

Thy mercy sweet'ned ev'ry foil. *Addison.*

4. To palliate; to reconcile.—These lessons may
be gilt and sweetened as we order pills and potions.
L'Estrange. 5. To make grateful or pleasing.—

Angry sometimes, to sweeten off the rest

Of her behaviour. *Ben Jonson.*

6. To soften; to make delicate.—Correggio has
his memory made immortal, by sweetening his
lights and shadows. *Dryden.*

(2.) * To SWEETEN. *v. n.* To grow sweet.—
Where a wasp hath bitten in a grape, or any
fruit, it will sweeten hastily. *Bacon.*

* SWEETENER. *n. s.* [from sweeten.] 1. One
that palliates; one that represents things ten-
derly.—

But you who, till your fortune's made,
Must be a sweet'ner by your trade. *Swift.*

—Those softners, sweeteners, and compounders
shake their heads so strongly, that we can hear
their pockets jingle. *Swift.* 2. That which con-
temporates acrimony.—Powder of crabs eyes and
claws, and burnt egg-shells, are prescribed as
sweeteners of any sharp humours. *Temple.*

SWEET FERN. See SCANDIX.

SWEET GUM. See LIQUIDAMBAR.

* SWEETHEART. *n. s.* [sweet and heart.] 1.
lover or mistress.—

Mistress, retire yourself

Into some covert; take your sweetheart. *Shak.*
—Sweetheart, your colour is as red as any rose
Shak.

One thing, sweetheart, I will ask,
Take me for a new-fashion'd mask. *Gleaveland.*

—A wench was crying; she had newly parted
with her sweetheart. *L'Estr.*

Foretels th' estate, when the rich uncle dies
And fees a sweetheart in the sacrifice. *Dryden.*

* SWEETING. *n. s.* [from sweet.] 1. A sweet
luscious apple.—A child will chuse a sweeting be-
cause it is fair and pleasant. *Aisbarn.* 2. A word
of endearment.—

Tripe no further, pretty sweeting. *Shak.*
SWEET JOHN, a species of DIANTHUS.

* SWEETISH. *adj.* [from sweet.] Somewhat
sweet.—They effluenated that blood pituitous na-
turally, which abounded with an exceeding quan-
tity of sweetish chyle. *Floyer.*

* SWEETLY. *adv.* [from sweet.] In a sweet
manner; with sweetness.—The best wine for me
beloved goeth down sweetly. *Cant.*

He bore his great commillion in his look;
But sweetly temper'd awe. *Dryden.*

No poet ever sweetly sung,
Unless he were like Phæbus young. *Swift.*

* SWEETMEAT. *n. s.* [sweet and meat.] Del-
cacies made of fruits preserved with sugar.—More
sa, as glad as of sweetmeats to go of such an e-
rand, quickly returned. *Sidney.*

Wine and desserts, and sweetmeats to digest.
Dryden.

—The dishes were ill soited; whole pyramids of
sweetmeats for boys and women, but little solid
meat for men. *Dryden.*

Make your transparent sweetmeats truly nic
With Indian sugar and Arabian spice. *King.*

—If a child cries, you purchase his quiet by giving
him a less hurtful sweetmeat; this may prevent
his health, but spoils his mind. *Locke.*—The sweet-
meats do not make their appearance till people
are cloyed up with beef and mutton. *Addison.*
—A professor who always stands by, will not
suffer them to bring any presents of toys or sweet-
meats. *Swift.*

* SWEETNESS. *n. s.* [from sweet.] The qu
16

lity of being sweet in any of its senses; fragrance; melody; lusciousness; deliciousness; agreeableness; delightfulness; gentleness of manner; mildness of aspect.—She the *sweetness* of my heart, even sweetness the death which her sweetness brought upon me. *Sidney*.—The right form, the true figure, the natural colour that is fit and due to the dignity of a man, to the beauty of a woman, to the *sweetness* of a young babe. *Ascham*.—

O our lives *sweetness*! *Shak.*

—Where a rainbow toucheth, there breatheth forth a sweet smell: for this happeneth but in certain matters, which have in themselves some *sweetness*. *Bacon*.—His *sweetness* of carriage is very particularly remembered. *Fell*.—

Serene and clear harmonious Horace flows, With *sweetness* not to be express'd in prose. *Rosc.*—Suppose two authors equally sweet, there is a great distinction to be made in *sweetness*. *Dryd.*—

This old man's talk, though honey flow'd In every word, would not lose all its *sweetness*. *Addison*.

Praise the easy vigour of a line, Where Denham's strength and Waller's *sweetness* join. *Pope*.

—These qualities are adorned with great modesty and a most amiable sweetness of temper. *Swift*.

SWEET ROOT, or CARMELE, the English name of a species of GLYCYRRHIZA. See MURRAY, N° 8.

SWEET SOP. See ANNANO, § II. N° 7.

SWEET SPRINGS, a post town of Virginia, 456 miles from Philadelphia.

SWEET SULTAN, a species of CENTAUREA.

SWEET WEED. See CAPRARIA.

(1.) * SWEETWILLIAM. SWEETWILLow, *n. s.* [*armeria*, Lat.] Plants. A species of gilliflowers.

(2.) SWEETWILLIAM See DIANTHUS, N° 7.

(3.) SWEETWILLIAM OF BARBADOS, a species of IPOMOEA.

(1.) * SWEETWILLow. *n. s.* Gale or Dutch myrtle.

(2.) SWEETWILLow. See MYRICA, N° 2.

SWEIN. See SUENO, and SWENO.

SWEIN MOTE. See FOREST COURTS, and SWAIN MOTE.

* SWELL. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Extension of bulk.—

The swan's down feather, That stands upon the *swell* at full of tide. *Shak.*

(1.) * To SWELL. *v. n.* participle pass. *swollen*, [*swellan*, Sax. *swellen*, Dutch.] 1. To grow turgid; to extend the parts.—

A gentle *swelling* and a peaceful flood. *Æn.*

2. To tumify by obstruction.—

All *swell's*, and ulc'rous; pitiful to the eye,

The mere despair of surgery he cures. *Shak.*

Swell'n is his breast. *Dryd.*

3. To be exasperated.—

My mildness hath allay'd their *swelling* griefs. *Shak.*

4. To look big.—

Here he comes, *swelling* like a Turkey cock. *Shak.*

5. To be turgid. Used of style.—

Peleus and Telephus exit'd and poor,

Forgot their *swelling* and gigantic words. *Rosc.*

6. To protuberate.—This iniquity shall be as a

Vol. XXII. PART I.

breach ready to fall, *swelling* out in a high wall. *Isa. xxx. 13.* 7. To rise into arrogance; to be elated.—

Your equal mind yet *swells* not into state.

Dryden

8. To be inflated with anger.—I will help every one from him that *swelleth* against him. *Psalms, xii. 6.*

We have made peace of enmity

Between these *swelling* peers. *Shak.*

To stubborn spirits

They *swell* and grow as terrible as storms. *Shak.*

9. To grow upon the view.—

A kingdom for a stage, princes to act,

And monarchs to behold the *swelling* scene. *Shak.*

10. It implies commonly a notion of something wrong.—

Your youth admires

The throws and *swellings* of a Roman soul. *Add.*

Immoderate valour *swells* into a fault. *Addis.*

(1.) * To SWELL. *v. a.* 1. To cause to rise or increase; to make tumid.—

Wind, blow the earth into the sea.

Or *swell* the curled waters 'bove the main. *Shak.*

You who *swell* those feeds with kindly rain. *Dryden.*

2. To aggravate; to heighten.—It is low ebb with his accuser, when such peccadillos are put to *swell* the charge. *Atterbury.* 3. To rise to arrogance.—All these miseries have usually attended kingdoms *swollen* with long plenty, pride, and excess. *Clarendon.*—

The king of men who *swollen* with pride

Refus'd his presents. *Dryden.*

(1.) * SWELLING. *n. s.* [from *swell*.] 1. Morbid humour.—There is not a chronic disease that more frequently introduces the distemper, than strumous or scrophulous *swellings* or ulcers. *Blackmore.* 2. Protuberance; prominence.—The superficies of such plates are not even, but have many cavities and *swellings*. *Newton.* 3. Effort for a vent.—My heart was torn in pieces to see the husband suppressing and keeping down the *swellings* of his grief. *Tatler.*

(1.) SWELLING. See SURGERY, and TUMOUR.

(3.) SWELLING, WHITE, or PARONYCHIA. See SURGERY, Index.

SWELLY, a river of Ireland, in Donegal; which runs into the Foynce, 3 miles N. of Lifford.

* To SWELT. *v. n.* To break out in sweat, if that be the meaning.—

Chearful blood in faintness chill did melt,

Which, like a fever fit, through all his body *swelt*. *Spenser.*

(1.) * To SWELTER. *v. n.* [This is supposed to be corrupted from *sultry*.] To be pained with heat.—

If the sun's excessive heat

Makes our bodies *swelter*,

To an offer hedge we get

For a friendly shelter. *Chalkil.*

(2.) * To SWELTER. *v. a.* To parch, or dry up with heat.—One climate would be scorched and *sweltered* with everlasting dog-days while an eternal December blasted another. *Bentley.*

* SWELTRY. *adj.* [from *swelter*.] Suffocating with heat.

SWENE, or SWINE. See SUSPUS.

H (1.) SWE-

(1.) **SWENO** I, or **SUENO**, **SWAN**, **SWAIN**, or **SWYN**, a king of Denmark, who flourished in the 10th century, twice invaded England, conquered part of it, and became father of Canute the Great, who conquered the whole of it, and reigned many years. See **DENMARK**, § 5, and **ENGLAND**, § 16—18: also **SWENO's STONE**.

(2, 3.) **SWENO**, II, and III. See **DENMARK**, § 5.

SWENO's STONE, an ancient monument near **Forres**, erected in memory of the defeat of the Danes under **Sweno**. On that side of it which fronts the South, and measures the thickness of the obelisk about four feet above the pavement on the top of the steps by which one ascends, is the inscription engraved on *Plate CCCXXIX*. The inscription is disposed in two lines, on a scale of 15 inches in length, and the rev. Dr James Playfair reads it thus, LOHH in refi; and says it composes the initials of the following words *Legē obelisci bijas hieroglyphicis in nostro regno extinctionem Suenonū inuolūti*; which the Dr translates thus, "Understand that the hieroglyphicks of this obelisk represent the extinction, in our kingdom, of the invasion under **Sweno**." The monument was placed here, because the Danes had attempted to form their settlement in this quarter. Translated literally it signifies "By the hieroglyphicks of this obelisk, read the extinction, in our kingdom, of the invasion under **Sweno**."

• **SWEEP**. The participle and preterite of *sweep*.

• **To SWERD**, *v. n.* To breed a green turf, [See **To SWARD**.] The clays, that are long in *swerding*, are the best land for clover. *Mortimer*.

SWERNICK, a town of European Turkey, on the Drino, on the confines of Serbia and Bosnia; 70 miles SW. of Belgrade. Lon. 19. 32. E. Lat. 44. 42. N.

SWERTIA, or more properly **SUERTIA**; for, it is monstrously unclassical to put **W** even into a modern Latin word. To avoid such barbarism the late Dr Brown turned his name into **BRUNO**. **MARSH GENTIAN**, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and to the order of *digynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 20th order, *rotacea*. The corolla is wheel-shaped. There are nectariferous pores at the bases of the segments of the corolla. The capsule is unilocular and bivalve. There are 6 species; viz. 1. **SWERTIA CARINTHIACA**; 2. **CORNICULATA**; 3. **DICHOTOMA**; 4. **DIFFORMIS**; 5. **PERENNIS**; and 6. **ROTATA**.

SWERTIA PERENNIS is a native of England. It is distinguished by radical oval leaves. It flowers in August.

• **To SWERVE**, *v. n.* [*swerven*, Saxon, and Dutch.] 1. To wander; to rove.—

A maid thitherward did run,
To catch her sparrow which from her did *swerve*.

Sidney.

The *swerwing* vines on the tall elms prevail.

Dryden.

2. To deviate; to depart from rule, custom or duty.—That which angels do clearly behold, and without any *swerwing* observe, is a law celestial. *Hooker*.—Howsoever *swerwings* are now and then incident into the course of nature. *Hooker*.—I *swerve* not from thy commandments. *Com. Prayer.*

Were I the fairest youth

That ever made the eye *swerve*. *Shak.*
—In obedience, to their just commands upon extraordinary occasions, in the execution of their trusts, they *swerve* from the strict letter of the law. *Clarendon*.—Till then his majesty had not in the least *swerved* from that act of parliament. *Clarendon*.—Defect and *swerwing* in the creature would immediately follow. *Hakewill*.—

Firm we subsist, yet possible to *swerve*. *Milt.*
—Many, through the contagion of ill example, *swerve* exceedingly from the rules of their holy faith. *Atterbury*. 3. To ply; to bend.—

Now their mightiest quell'd, the battle *swerve'd*
With many an inroad go'd. *Milton.*

4. [I know not whence derived] To climb on a narrow body.—

Nimble up from bough to bough I *swerve'd*.

Dryden.

She fled returning by the way she went,

And *swerve'd* along her bow. *Dryden.*

SWETARA. See **SWATARA**.

SWEYN, or **SUENO**. See **SUENO** and **SWENO**.

SWIERZNO, a town of Lithuania, in **Novogrodek**; 36 miles E. of **Novogrodek**; now annexed to Russia.

SWIETEN. See **VAN SWIETEN**.

SWIETENIA, or more properly **SUETENIA**, **MAHOGANY**, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *decandria*, and to the order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 34th order, *Miscellaneæ*. The calyx is quinquefid. There are five petals; the nectarium is cylindrical, supporting the antheræ with its mouth. The capsule is five-celled, woody, and opening at the mouth. The seeds are imbricated and winged. There is only one species;

SWIETENIA MAHAGONY, a native of the warmest parts of America, growing also in the island of Cuba, Jamaica, Hispaniola, and the Bahama islands. It abounded formerly in the low lands of Jamaica, but it is now found only on hills and places difficult of access. It thrives in moist soils, but varies in texture and grain according to the nature of the soil. On rocks it is of a smaller size, but very hard and weighty, of a close grain and beautifully shaded; while the produce of the low and richer lands is observed to be more light and porous, of a paler colour and open grain; and that of mixed soils to hold a medium between both. The tree grows very tall and straight, and is usually 4 feet in diameter; the flowers are of a reddish or fawn colour, and the fruit of an oval form, and about the size of a turkey's egg. The wood is generally hard, takes a fine polish, and is found to answer better than any other sort in all kinds of cabinet ware. It is said to be used sometimes in ship-building: a purpose for which it is remarkably adapted, if it were not too costly, being very durable, capable of resisting gun-shots, and buoying the floats without splintering. The seed vessels are of a curious form, consisting of a large cone splitting into five parts, and disclosing its winged seeds, disposed in the regular manner of those of apocynum. The seeds being winged, are dispersed on the surface of the ground, where some falling into the chinks of the rocks strike root; the creep out on the surface of it, and seek another

chink

think, into which they creep and swell to such a size and strength, that at length the rock splits and is forced to admit of the root's deeper penetration; and with this little nutriment the tree increases to a stupendous size in a few years. The first use to which mahogany was applied in England, was to make a box for holding candles for Dr Gibbons, an eminent physician in the latter end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century, who had a brother, a West India captain, who brought over some planks of this wood as ballast. The superior qualities of it being immediately discovered, it soon came into general use.

(1.) SWIFT, Dr Jonathan, so universally admired as a wit and classical writer of the English language, was born in Dublin, Nov. 30th 1667. His father was an attorney, and of a good family; but dying poor, the expence of his son's education was defrayed by his friends. At the age of six, young Swift was sent to the school of Kilkenny, whence he removed in his 15th year to Trinity College, Dublin. So much did he despise the study of the old logicians, at that time held so indispensably necessary, that he was refused a degree on account of his ignorance of their writings, and obtained it afterwards through the interest of his friends, and "by special favour," as inserted in the college registry. He remained in the college near 3 years after this, little known or regarded. By scholars he was reckoned a blockhead; and as his circumstances would not permit him to keep company with persons of equal rank, upon an equal footing, he lived much alone, and his time was employed in pursuing his course of reading in history and poetry. Yet under this pressure, he conceived the first rude draught of the *Tale of a Tub*. In 1688, being, by the death of Godwin Swift his uncle, who had chiefly supported him, left without subsistence, he went to consult his mother, who then lived in Leicester, about the future course of his life; and, by her direction, solicited the advice and patronage of Sir William Temple, whose father had lived in great friendship with Godwin Swift. Temple received him with great kindness, and was so much pleased with his conversation, that he detained him two years in his house, and recommended him to king William, who offered to make him a captain of horse. This not suiting his disposition, and Temple not having it quickly in his power to provide for him otherwise, Swift left his patron (1694) in discontent: having previously taken his master's degrees at Oxford. He now resolved to enter into the church, where his first preferment was only £100 a-year, being the prebend of *Kilroot in Conner*; which some time afterwards, upon Sir William Temple's earnestly inviting him back to his house at *Morpark*, he resigned. In 1699, Swift lost his patron Sir William Temple, who left him a legacy in money, with the property of his MSS.; and, on his death-bed, obtained for him a promise from the king of the first prebend that should become vacant at Westminster or Canterbury. Swift dedicated to the king the posthumous works with which he was entrusted, and for a while attended the court; but soon found it in vain. He was then invited by the earl of Berkeley to accompany him into Ireland, where he obtained the livings of La-

racor and Rathbaggin in the diocese of Meath; and soon afterwards invited over the unfortunate *STELLA*, a young woman of the name of Johnson, whose life he contrived to embitter, and whose days, though he certainly loved her, we may confidently affirm that he shortened by his caprice. This lady is generally believed to have been the daughter of Sir William Temple's steward, though some say, that she was Sir William's own natural daughter, and Swift himself his natural son; and that a discovery of this relationship was the cause of Swift's otherwise unaccountable conduct to that excellent woman. Be that as it may, it is certain that Sir William left her £1000; and that, accompanied by Miss Dingley, whose whole fortune amounted to an annuity of £127 for life, she went, in consequence of Swift's invitation, to Laracor. With these two ladies he passed his hours of relaxation, and to them he opened his bosom; but they never resided in the same house, nor did he see either without a witness. In 1701 Swift published *A discourse of the contests and dissensions in Athens and Rome*. It was the only work which he ever expressly acknowledged. Early in the following spring king William died; and Swift, on his next visit to London, found queen Anne upon the throne. He was during the earlier part of the queen's reign of no party, but employed himself in discharging the duties of his function, and in publishing from time to time such tracts as he thought might be useful. In 1704 he published the *Tale of a Tub*; which, considered merely as a work of genius, is unquestionably the greatest which he ever produced; but the levity with which religion was thought to be there treated, raised up enemies to him among all parties, and eventually precluded him from a bishopric. From that period till 1708, he seems to have employed himself in solitary study; but he then gave successively to the public *The sentiments of a Church of England man*, the ridicule of astrology under the name of *Bickerstaff*, the *Argument against abolishing Christianity*, and the defence of the *Sacramental Test*. Soon after began the busy and important part of Swift's life. He was employed in 1710, by the primate of Ireland to solicit the queen for a remission of the first fruits and tenth parts to the Irish clergy. This introduced him to Mr Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, who, though a Whig himself, was at the head of the Tory ministry, and in great need of an auxiliary so able as Swift, by whose pen he and the other ministers might be supported in pamphlets, poems, and periodical papers. In 1710 was commenced the *Examiner*; of which Swift wrote 33 papers, beginning his first on the 10th of Nov. 1711. In 1712 he published the *Conduct of the Allies* ten days before the parliament assembled; and soon afterwards, *Reflections on the barrier Treaty*. The purpose of these pamphlets was to persuade the nation to a peace, by showing that "mines had been exhausted and millions destroyed" to secure the Dutch and aggrandize the emperor, without any advantage whatever to Great Britain. Though these two publications, together with his *Remarks on the Bishop of Sarum's Introduction to the third Volume of his History of the Reformation*, certainly turned the tide of popular opinion

opinion, and effectually promoted the designs of the ministry, the best preference which his friends could venture to give him was the deanery of St Patrick's, which he accepted in 1713. In the midst of his power and his politics, he kept a journal of his visits, his walks, his interviews with ministers, and quarrels with his servant, and transmitted it to Mrs Johnson and Mrs Dingely, to whom he knew that whatever befel him was interesting; but in 1714 an end was put to his power by the death of the queen, which broke down at once the whole system of Tory politics, and nothing remained for him but to withdraw from persecution to his deanery. In the triumph of the Whigs, Swift met with every mortification that a spirit like his could possibly be exposed to. The people of Ireland were irritated against him beyond measure; and every indignity was offered him as he walked the streets of Dublin. Nor was he insulted by the rabble only, but persons of distinguished rank and character forgot the decorum of common civility to give him a personal affront. In this situation, he retired from the world to discharge his duties as a clergyman, and attend to the care of his deanery. That no part of his time might lie heavy on his hands, he employed his leisure hours on some historical attempts relating to the change of the ministers and the conduct of the ministry; and completed the *History of the four last years of queen Anne's reign*, which had been begun in her lifetime, but which he never published. Of the work which bears that title, and is said to be his, Dr Johnson doubts the genuineness; and it certainly is not such as we should have expected from a man of Swift's sagacity and opportunities of information. In 1716 he was privately married to Mrs Johnson by Dr Ashe bishop of Clogher; but the marriage made no change in their situation, and it would be difficult to prove (says Lord Orrery) that they were ever afterwards together but in the presence of a third person. The dean lived in a private manner, known and regarded only by his friends, till about 1720 that he published his first political pamphlet relative to Ireland, entitled *A Proposal for the Universal Use of Irish Manufactures*; which so roused the indignation of the ministry that they commenced a prosecution against the printer, which drew the attention of the public to the pamphlet, and at once made its author popular. Whilst he was enjoying the laurels which this work had wreathed for him, his felicity, as well as that of his wife, was interrupted by the death of Mrs Van Homrigh, and the publication of his poem called *Cadenus and Vanessa*, which brought upon him much merited obloquy. With Mrs Van Homrigh he became acquainted in London during his attendance in Court; and finding her possessed of genius and fond of literature, he took delight in directing her studies, till he got insensibly possession of her heart. From being proud of his praise, she grew fond of his person; and despising vulgar restraints, she made him sensible that she was ready to receive him as a husband. She had wit, youth, beauty, and a competent fortune to recommend her, and for a while Swift seems to have been undetermined whether or not he should comply with her wish. She had followed him to

Ireland, where she lived in a house about 12 miles from Dublin; and he continued to visit her occasionally, and to direct her studies, as he had done in London; but with these attentions she was not satisfied, and at last sent to him a letter written with great ardour and tenderness, insinuating that he should immediately accept or refuse her as a wife. His answer, which probably contained the secret of his marriage, he carried himself; and having indignantly thrown it on the lady's table, instantly quitted the house, we believe, without speaking to her, and returned to Dublin to reflect on the consequences of his own conduct. These were dreadful. Mrs Van Homrigh survived her disappointment but a few weeks; during which time she cancelled a will that she had made in his favour, leaving him a large fortune of £8000 a-year; and ordered the poem to be published in which Cadenus had proclaimed her excellence and confessed his love. In 1724, his patriotism again burst forth, to obstruct the currency of Wood's halfpence; and his zeal was crowned with success. Wood had obtained a patent to coin 180,000 l. in halfpence and farthings for the kingdom of Ireland; and was about to turn his brass into gold, when Swift, finding that the metal was debased to an enormous degree, wrote letters under the name of *M. B. Drapier* to show the folly of giving gold and silver for coin not worth a third part of its nominal value. A prosecution was carried on against the printer; and lord Carteret, then lord lieutenant, issued a proclamation, offering £200 for discovering the author of the 4th letter. The day after, Swift brushed up to the lord lieutenant at a levee at the castle, and upbraided him in loud and petulant terms, with persecuting a poor shop-keeper whose crime was an endeavour to save his country from ruin; when lord Carteret, who had listened with great composure to the whole speech, made this fine reply, in a line of Virgil:

Res duræ, & regni novitas me talia cogunt
Melliri.

From this time Swift was considered by the populace as the champion, patron, and instructor of Ireland. In 1727 he returned to England; where, in conjunction with Pope, he collected three volumes of miscellanies; and the same year he sent into the world his *Gulliver's Travels*. Whilst he enjoyed the reputation of this work, he was suddenly called to a home of sorrow. Poor Stella was sinking into the grave; and after a languishing decay of about two months, died in her 44th year, Jan. 28, 1728. With her vanished all his domestic enjoyments; the severity of his temper increased; he drove his acquaintance from his table, and wondered why he was deserted. The fits of giddiness and deafness to which he had been subjected from his boyish years, became more frequent and violent as he grew old. In 1736, while he was writing a satire, called the *Legion Club*, against the Irish parliament, he was seized with so dreadful a fit of his malady, that he left the poem unfinished; and never after attempted a composition that required a course of thinking. From this time his memory gradually declined. In 1741, he became utterly incapable of conversation; and it was found necessary to appoint legal guardians to his person and his fortune. He now

lost all sense of distinction. During next year a short interval of reason ensuing, gave hopes of his recovery; but in a few days he sunk into lethargic stupidity, motionless, heedless, and speechless. After a year of total silence, however, when his housekeeper told him that the usual illuminations were preparing to celebrate his birth, he answered, "It is all folly; they had better let it alone." He at last sunk into a perfect silence, which continued till the 19th October 1745, when he expired without a struggle, in his 78th year. By his will, dated May 1740, just before he ceased to be a reasonable being, he left about 1200*l.* in specific legacies; and the rest of his fortune, which amounted to about 11,000*l.* to erect and endow a hospital for lunatics and idiots. He was buried in the most private manner, according to his will, in the great aisle of St Patrick's cathedral.

(2.) **SWIFT**, Deane, Esq. a near relation of the dean, grandson to Godwin Swift, the dean's uncle, was born in Dublin, educated at the university there, and completed his studies at Oxford. He had a fine taste, wrote entertaining verses, and was esteemed a perfect master of the Greek and Roman classics. He published *An Essay upon the Life, Writings, and Character of Dr Jonathan Swift*, 1755: 2. The 8th 4to vol. of the Dean's works, 1765: and, 3. His *Letters*, in 2 vols. 1768. He died at Worcester in 1783.

(3.) * **SWIFT**. *adj.* [*swift*, Saxon.] 1. Moving far in a short time; quick; fleet; speedy; nimble; rapid.—

The *swiftest* wing of recompense is slow

To overtake thee. *Shak.*

Swift-winged with desire to get a grave. *Shak.*
—As *swift* as the rock upon the mountains. *1 Chron.* xii. 8.—We practise to make *swifter* motions than any out of other muskets. *Bacon.*—

To him with *swift* ascent he up return'd. *Milt.*
—Things that move to *swift* as not to affect the senses distinctly, are not perceived to move. *Locke.*
—It preserves the ends of the bones from incalcescence, which they would contract from any *swift* motion. *Ray.*—

So the dull eel moves nimbler in the mud,
Than all the *swift* fin'd racers of the flood. *Dorf.*
Nor staying longer than one *swift-wing'd* night. *Prior.*

—The *swift-footed* martin pursued him. *Arbutnot.*—

Swift of foot, and terrible in fight. *Pope.*
Swift they descend, with wing to wing conjoin'd. *Pope.*

2. Ready.—Let every man be *swift* to hear. *Ja. i.* 19.—

To mischief *swift*. *Milton.*
(4.) * **SWIFT**. *n. f.* The current of a stream.—He can live in the strongest *swifts* of the water. *Walton.*

(5.) * **SWIFT**. *n. f.* [from the quickness of their flight; *apus*.] A bird like a swallow; a martin.—*Swifts* and swallows have remarkably short legs. *Derham.*

(6.) **SWIFT**, in geography, a river of England, which rises in Leicestershire, and falls into the Avon near Rugby in Warwickshire.

(7.) **SWIFT**, in ornithology. See **HIRUNDO**, No 2.

* **SWIFTLY**. *adv.* [from *swift*.] Fleetly; rapidly; nimbly; with celerity; with velocity.—These move *swiftly*, and at great distance. *Bacon.*
Pleas'd with the passage, we slide *swiftly* on,
And see the dangers which we cannot shun. *Dryden.*

Too *swiftly* fleet by human sight. *Prior.*
* **SWIFTNESS**. *n. f.* [from *swift*.] Speed; nimbleness; rapidity; quickness; velocity; celerity.—

All things thought upon,
That may with reasonable *swiftness* add
More feathers to our wings. *Shak. Henry V.*
We may outrun

By violent *swiftness* that which we run at,
And lose by over-running. *Shak. Henry VIII.*
Speed to describe whose *swiftness* number
fails. *Milton.*

Then curses his conspiring feet, whose scent
Betrays that safety which their *swiftness* lent. *Denham.*

Such is the mighty *swiftness* of your mind,
That, like the earth's, it leaves our sense behind. *Dryden.*

SWIFTYATE, a river in Gloucestershire.

* To **SWIG**. *v. n.* [*swiga*, Islandick.] To drink by large draughts.

SWIGAN, a town of Bohemia, in Boleslau.
* **SWILL**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Drink, luxuriously poured down.—Give swine such *swill* as you have. *Mortimer.*—

Thus they swim in mutual *swill*. *Thomson.*
* To **SWILL**. *v. a.* [*swilgan*, Saxon.] 1. To drink luxuriously and grossly.—

The wretched, bloody, and usurping boar,
Swills your warm blood like wash. *Shak.*
—The most common of these causes are hereditary disposition, and *swilling* down great quantities of cold liquors. *Arbutnot.*—

Such is the poet, fresh in pay,
His morning draughts till noon can *swill*,
Among his brethren of the quill. *Swift.*

2. To wash; to drench.—
As fearfully as doth a galled rock,
Swill'd with the wild and wasteful ocean. *Shak.*
With that a German oft has *swill'd* his throat. *Philips.*

3. To inebriate; to swell with plenitude.—
To meet the rudeness and *swill'd* insolence
Of such late waiters. *Milton.*
He drinks a *swilling* draught. *Dryden.*
* **SWILLER**. *n. f.* [from *swill*.] A luxurious drinker.

(1.) **SWILLY**, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, 13½ miles S. of the S. Cape of New Holland. Lon. 147. 6. E. Lat. 43. 55. S.

(2.) **SWILLY**, a river of Ireland, in Donegal, which runs into Lough Swilly.

(3.) **SWILLY**, LOUGH, a lake or bay of Ireland, on the N. coast of Donegal, 18 miles long, and from one to four broad, but above 30 in circumference. The S. end of it is 6 miles from Lough Foyle.

(4.) **SWILLY**, LOUGH. See **LOUGH SWILLY**.
* **SWIM**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The bladder of fishes by which they are supported in the water.—The braces have the nature and use of tendons, in contracting the *swim*, and thereby transfusing the

the air out of one bladder into another, or discharging it from them both. *Grew.*

(1.) * *To SWIM. v. n. Pret. swam, swum, or swim.* [*swimman*, Saxon; *swemmen*, Dutch.] 1. To float on the water; not to sink.—I will scarce think you have *swam* in a gondola. *Shak.*—We have slips and boats for going under water; also *swimming* girdles and supporters. *Bacon.* 2. To move progressively in the water by motion of the limbs.

Leap in with me into this angry flood,

And *swim* to yonder point. *Shak. Jul. Cesar.*
I have ventur'd,

Like little wanton boys that *swim* on bladders,
These many summers in a sea of glory. *Shak.*
—The soldiers counsel was to kill the prisoners, left any of them should *swim* out and escape. *As* xxvii. 42.—The rest driven into the lake, were seeking to save their lives by *swimming*, they were slain in coming to land by the Spanish horsemen, or else in their *swimming* shot by the arquebusers. *Knolles.*—Animals *swim* in the same manner as they go. *Brown.*—

The frightened wolf now *swims* among the sheep;

The flag *swims* faster than he ran before. *Dryd.*
The ready Nereids heard and *swam* before.

Dryden.

3. To be conveyed by the stream.—Protection of them from the fury of those who would soon drown them, if they refused to *swim* down the popular stream with them. *King Charles.*—I *swam* with the tide. *Dryden.* 4. To glide along with a smooth or dizzy motion.—

She with pretty and with *swimming* gait

Following. *Shak.*

A hovering mist came *swimming* o'er his sight,
And seal'd his eyes in everlasting night. *Dryd.*

Priests, altars, victims, *swam* before my sight!

Smith.

O'er his eye-balls *swam* the shades of night.

Pope.

5. To be dizzy; to be vertiginous.—I am taken with a grievous *swimming* in my head. *Dryden.*

6. To be floated.—When the heavens are filled with clouds, when the earth *swims* in rain, I withdraw myself from these uncomfortable scenes. *Adison.*—

Sudden the ditches swell, the meadows *swim*.

Thomson.

7. To have abundance of any quality; to flow in any thing.—

They now *swim* in joy,

Ere long to *swim* at large.

Milton.

(2.) * *To SWIM. v. a. To pass by swimming.*—

Sometimes he thought to *swim* the stormy main,

By stretch of arms.

Dryden.

* *SWIMMER. n. f.* [from *swim*.] 1. One who swims.—Birds find ease in the depth of the air, as *swimmers* do in a deep water. *Bacon.*—Latrofitrous and flat-billed birds, being generally *swimmers*, the organ is wisely contrived for action. *Brown.*—

Life is oft preserv'd

By the bold *swimmer*.

Thomson.

2. The *swimmer* is situated in the fore legs of a horse, above the knees, and upon the inside, and almost upon the back parts of the hind legs, a

little below the ham: this part is without hair, and resembles a piece of hard dry horn. *Farrier's Dict.*

(1.) *SWIMMING, part. n. f.* the art of suspending one's self on water, and at the same time making a progressive motion through it. Although swimming is not natural to man, yet there are no nations so barbarous but the art is known among them, even in greater perfection than among civilized people. It is probable, therefore, that the art, though not absolutely natural, will always be acquired by people in a savage state from imitating the brutes, most of whom swim naturally. The theory of swimming depends upon this simple principle: that if a force is applied to any body, it will always move towards that side where there is the least resistance. This is evident in the motion of vessels; and the same thing takes place in swimming, whether the animal be man, quadruped, bird, or fish. When a man swims, he strikes the water with his hands, arms, and feet; in consequence of which the body moves in a direction contrary to the stroke. Upon this principle, and on this only, a man may either ascend, descend, or move obliquely, in any possible direction in the water. It is incredible what expert swimmers will perform in this way; of which Mr Forster gives a remarkable instance in the inhabitants of Otaheite; whose agility was such, that when a nail was thrown overboard, they would jump after it into the sea, and never fail to catch it before it came to the bottom. As to the practice of swimming, few directions can be given. The great obstacle is the natural dread which people have of being drowned; and this it is impossible to overcome by any thing but practice and habit. With regard to the real danger of being drowned, it is but little, and arises entirely from terror. Dr FRANKLIN justly observes, "1st, That though the legs, arms, and head, of a human body, being solid parts, are specifically heavier than fresh water, yet the trunk, particularly the upper part, from its hollowness, is so much lighter than water, as that the whole of the body, taken together, is too light to sink wholly under water, but some part will remain above until the lungs become filled with water; which happens from drawing water into them instead of air, when a person in the fright attempts breathing while the mouth and nostrils are under water. 2dly, That the legs and arms are specifically lighter than salt water, and will be supported by it; so that a human body would not sink in salt water though the lungs were filled as above, but from the greater specific gravity of the head. 3dly, That therefore a person throwing himself on his back in salt water, and extending his arms, may easily lie so as to keep his mouth and nostrils free for breathing; and by a small motion of his hands may prevent turning, if he should perceive any tendency to it. 4thly, That in fresh water, if a man throws himself on his back near the surface, he cannot long continue in that situation, but by a proper action of his hands on the water. If he uses no such action, the legs and lower part of the body will gradually sink till he comes to an upright position; in which he will continue suspended, the hollow of the breast keeping the head

head uppermost. 5thly, But if in this erect position the head is kept upright above the shoulders, as when we stand on the ground, the immersion will, by the weight of the part of the head that is out of the water, reach above the mouth and nostrils, perhaps a little above the eyes; so that a man cannot long remain suspended in water with his head in that position. 6thly, The body continuing suspended as before, and upright, if the head be leaned quite back, so that the face looks upwards, all the back part of the head being then under water, and its weight consequently in a great measure supported by it, the face will remain above water quite free for breathing, will rise an inch higher every inspiration, and sink as much every expiration, but never so low as that the water may come over the mouth. 7thly, If therefore a person unacquainted with swimming, and falling accidentally into the water, could have presence of mind to avoid struggling and plunging, and to let the body take this natural position, he might continue long safe from drowning; till perhaps help would come; for, as to the clothes, their additional weight, while immersed, is very inconsiderable, the water supporting it; though, when he comes out of the water, he would find them very heavy indeed." The Doctor's method of learning to swim is as follows: The person must walk into water so deep that it will reach to the breast. He is then to lie down gently on the belly, keeping the head and neck perfectly upright, the breast advancing forward, the thorax inflated, and the back bent; then, withdrawing the legs from the bottom and stretching them out, strike the arms forward in unison with the legs. Swimming on the back is somewhat similar to that on the belly; but with this difference, that although the legs are employed to move the body forwards, the arms are generally unemployed, and the progressive motion is derived from the movement of the legs. In diving, a person must close his hands together, and, pressing his chin upon his breast, make an exertion to bend with force forwards. While in that position, he must continue to move with rapidity under the surface; and whenever he wishes to return to his former situation, he has nothing to do but bend back his head, and he will immediately return to the surface. It is very common for povies to use corks or bladders to assist in keeping the body above the water. Dr Franklin allows that they may be of service for supporting the body while one is learning what is called the *stroke*, or that manner of drawing in and striking out the hands and feet that is necessary to produce progressive motion. "But (says he) you will be no swimmer till you can place confidence in the power of the water to support you: I would therefore advise the acquiring that confidence in the first place, especially as I have known several who, by a little of the practice necessary for that purpose, have insensibly acquired the stroke, taught as it were by nature. The practice I mean is this: Choosing a place where the water deepens gradually, walk coolly into it till it is up to your breast; then turn round your face to the shore, and throw an egg into the water between you and the shore; it will sink to the bottom, and be easily seen there, if the

water is clear. It must lie on the water so deep as that you cannot reach it to take it up but by diving for it. To encourage yourself to do this, reflect that your progress will be from deeper to shallower water; and that at any time you may, by bringing your legs under you, and standing on the bottom, raise your head far above the water: then plunge under it with your eyes open, throwing yourself towards the egg, and endeavouring, by the action of your hands and feet against the water, to get forward till within reach of it. In this attempt you will find that the water buoys you up against your inclination, and it is not so easy a thing to sink as you imagined; that you cannot but by active force get down to the egg. Thus you feel the power of the water to support you, and learn to confide in that power; while your endeavours to overcome it, and to reach the egg, teach you the manner of acting on the water with your feet and hands; which action is afterwards used in swimming to support your head higher above water, or to go forward through it." Many other rules have been laid down for acquiring this; but if a young man once gets rid of fear, these are sufficient, and by practice he may soon acquire various evolutions; or he may find a full account of these in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*.

(2.) **SWIMMING OF FISH.** A great proportion of the inhabitants of the waters have an air-bladder, by which they poise themselves. Their movements chiefly depend upon their tail. See **ICHTHYOLOGICAL ZOOLOGY**.

* **SWIMMINGLY.** *adv.* [from *swimming*.] Smoothly; without obstruction. A low word.—John got on the battlements, and called to Nick, I hope the cause goes on *swimmingly*. *Arbutnot.*

SWINBRIDGE, a town of England, in Devonshire, W. of S. Moulton.

SWINCOMB, a small town of England, in Oxfordshire, E. of Wallingford.

To SWINDLE. *v. n.* [*schwindel*, German.] To cheat.

SWINDLER. *n. f.* [*schwindel*, Germ. to cheat.] Swindling has now become so common in several of the great towns of this country, that it is unfortunately too well known to require any description.

(1.) **SWINDON**, a town of England, in Wiltshire, on the top of a hill, built with stone, near a fertile valley, with a market on Monday; 10 miles N. of Marlborough, 28 N. of Salisbury, and 83 W. of London. Lon. 1. 45. W. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(2-4.) **SWINDON**; 3 towns: 1. in Gloucestershire; 2. in Staffordshire; 3. in Yorkshire, on the Ribble, SE. of Settle.

(1.) * **SWINE.** *n. f.* [*swin*, Sax. *swijn*, Dutch. It is probably the plural of some old word, and is now the same in both numbers.] A hog; a pig. A creature remarkable for stupidity and nastiness.

O monstrous beast! how like a *swine* he lies!
Shak.

—He will be *swine* drunk. *Shak.*

Now I sat his *swine* for others cheere. *Chapm.*
Whoever tasted, lost his upright shape,
And downward fell into a groveling *swine*.

Milton.
—Had the upper part, to the middle, been of human shape, and all below *swine*, had it been murder to destroy it? *Locke.*

How.

How instinct varies in the grov'ling swine,
Compar'd, half reas'ning elephant, with thine!

Pope.

(2.) SWINE in zoology. See SUS, N° III.
(3.) SWINE, in geography, a branch of the O-
DER, anciently called SUEVUS.

(4.) SWINE, a small town of Yorkshire, near
Constable Burton.

(5-7.) SWINE, or SWEYN. See SWENO, N°
I-3.

(1.) * SWINEBREAD. *n. f.* [*cyclaminus*.] A kind
of plant; trufflea. *Bailey.*

(2.) SWINEBREAD, in botany. See CYCLAMEN.

(1.) * SWINE GRASS. *n. f.* [*centinodir*, Lat.] An
herb.

(1.) SWINE-GRASS, or SWINE CRESS. See
COCHLEARIA.

* SWINEHERD. *n. f.* [*swin* and *hyrd*, Saxon.]
A keeper of hogs.—

There *swineherd*, that keepeth the hog.

Tusser.

—Eumeus, has been judg'd to be of the same
rank and condition with our modern *swineherds*.
Broome.

SWINEMUNDE, a town of Lower Saxony,
in the isle of Ufedom, at the mouth of the Peena,
at the N. end; built in 1775 on the ruins of
SWINE-SCHANZ. Lon. 31. 27. E. Ferro. Lat. 54.
8. N.

* SWINE-PIPE. *n. f.* [*turdus iliacus*.] A bird of
the thrush kind. *Bailey.*

SWINE-SCHANZ, a small town and fort of
Lower Saxony, in the isle of Ufedom, destroyed
by the Swedes, in 1757. See SWINEMUNDE.

SWINE'S CRESS, a species of COCHLEARIA.

SWINE-STONE. *Lapis Sæillus*, or *Fætid Stone*, so
called from its excessively fetid smell, is a species
of *Saline Stone*. It is found, 1. Solid, with the
particles scarcely visible, of a black colour; as the
marble of Flanders and Jutland. 2. With visible
grains of a blackish brown colour, found in Sweden.
3. With coarse scales, found also in Sweden.
Many of the limestones found in England, belong
to this species, and emit a very fetid smell when
struck violently; but it goes off in the fire. See
MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Cl. I. Ord. II.
Gen. I. Sp. 1. § II. Var. 5.

SWINESUND, a town of Norway, in the
province of Aggerhuus; 5 miles NW. of Pre-
derickshald.

* SWING. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Motion
of any thing hanging loosely.—In casting of any
thing, the arms, to make a greater *swing*, are
first cast backward. *Bacon*.—If any one should ask
how he certainly knows that the two successive
swings of a pendulum are equal, it would be
very hard to satisfy him. *Locke*. 2. A line on which
any thing hangs loose. 3. Influence or power of a
body put in motion.—

The ram that batters down the wall,

For the great *swing* and rudeness of his poise,

They place before his hand that made the en-
gine.

Shak.

—In this encyclopædia, and round of knowledge,
like the great wheels of heaven, we're to observe
two circles, that, while we are daily carried
about, and whirled on by the *swing* and rapt of
the one, we may maintain a natural and proper

course in the sober wheel of the other. *Brown*.—
The descending of the earth to this orbit is not
upon that mechanical account Cartesius pretends,
namely, the strong *swing* of the more solid glo-
buli that overflow it. *More*. 4. Course; unrestrain-
ed liberty; abandonment to any motive.—

Facts unjust

Commit, even to the full *swing* of his lust.

Chapman.

Take thy *swing*.

Dryden.

—His whole time lay upon his hands, and gave
him leisure to contrive, and with full *swing* pur-
sue his follies. *Woodward*.—

Let them all take their *swing*

To pillage the king.

Saunders.

5. Unrestrained tendency.—Where the *swing*
goeth, there follow, fawn, flatter, laugh, and be
lustily at other mens liking. *Ascham*.—Those that
are so persuaded give up themselves to the *swing*
of their unbounded propensities. *Glanville*.—Were
it not for these, civil government were not able to
stand before the prevailing *swing* of corrupt na-
ture. *Scutb*.

(1.) * TO SWING. *v. n.* [*swingan*, Saxon.] 1.
To wave too and fro hanging loosely.—I tried if:
pendulum would *swing* faster, or continue *swing-
ing* longer in our receiver, in case of exhalation
of the air. *Boyle*.—If the coach *swing* but the lead
to one side, she used to shriek so loud, that all
concluded she was overturned. *Arbutnot*.—Jack
hath hang'd himself; let us go see how he *swings*.
Arbutnot.—

When the *swinging* signs your ears offend

With creaking noise, then rainy floods impend

Gay

2. To fly backward and forward on a rope.

(1.) * TO SWING. *v. a.* preterite, *swing*, *swing*
1. To make to play loosely on a string. 2. To
whirl round in the air.—

His sword prepar'd,

He *swing* about his head.

Shak.

—Take bottles and *swing* them. *Bacon*.—*Swing-
ing* a red-hot iron about, it will sooner grow cold
Brown.—

Swing thee in the air, then dash thee down.

Milton

3. To wave loosely.—

If one approach to dare his force,

He *swings* his tail.

Dryden

(1.) * SWINGE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A way
a sweep of any thing in motion. Not in use.—

The shallow water doth her force infringe,
And renders vain her tail's impetuous *swing*.

Waller.

(1.) SWINGE, in geography, a river of German
in the duchy of Bremen; which runs past Stade
into the Elbe.

* TO SWINGE. *v. a.* [*swingan*, Saxon. The
in this word, and all its derivatives, sounds as
gem, *giant*.] 1. To whip; to bastinado; to
punish.—Sir, I was in love with my bed; I thank
you, you *swing'd* me for my love. *Shak*.—

This very rev'rend lecher, quite worn out
Forgets what he in youthful times has done.

And *swing*s his own vices in his son. *Dryd*.

—The printer brought along with him a bundle
of those papers which have *swing'd* off the En-
miner. *Swift*. 2. To move as a lash. Not in u

He, wroth to see his kingdom fail,

Swizes the scaly horror of his folded tail. *Milt.*

• **SWINGEBUCKLER.** *n. f.* [*swing* and *buckler*.] A bully; a man who pretends to feats of arms.—You had not four such *swingebucklers* in all the inns of court again. *Shak.*

• **SWINGER.** *n. f.* [*from swing*.] He who swings; a hurler.

(1.) • **SWINGING.** *adj.* [*from swing*.] Great; huge. A low word.—The countrymen seeing the lion disarmed, with a *swinging* cudgel broke off the match. *L'Esfrange*.—A good *swinging* sum of John's readiest cash went towards building of Horcus's countryhouse. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) • **SWINGING.** *part. n. f.* A kind of exercise strongly recommended to persons in consumption by some physicians, and disapproved of by others. See *MEDICINE. Index*.

• **SWINGINGLY.** *adv.* [*from swing*ing, or *swing*.] Vastly; greatly.—

Peace forward he'll print neither pamphlet nor linen,

And, if swearing can do't, shall be *swingingly* mau'd. *Swift.*

SWINGLE. *n. f.* in the fire-works in England, the wooden spoke which is fixed to the barrel that draws the wire, and which, by its being forced back by the cogs of the wheel, is the occasion of the force with which the barrel is pulled.

• **To SWINGLE.** *v. n.* [*from swing*.] 1. To dangle; to wave hanging. 2. To swing in pleasure.

SWING-TREE. *n. f.* of a waggon, is the bar fastened across the fore guide to which the traces of the horses are fastened.

SWING-WHEEL. *n. f.* in a royal pendulum, that wheel which drives the pendulum. In a watch or balance clock it is called the *crown-wheel*.

SWINHULT. a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland; 40 miles S. of Linköping.

(1.) • **SWINISH.** *adj.* [*from swine*.] Befitting swine; resembling swine; gross; brutal.—

They clepe us drunkards, and with *swinish* phrase

Soil our addition. *Shak.*

Swinish gluttony

Ne'er looks to Heav'n. *Milton.*

(2.) **SWINISH MULTITUDE.** a contemptuous expression, used by the late celebrated Edmund Burke, Esq. for the lower ranks of mankind.

• **SWINK.** *n. f.* [*swine*, Saxon.] Labour; toil; drudgery. Obsolete.—

Ah, Piers, been thy teeth on edge, to think
How great sport they gaynen with little *swinke*? *Spenser.*

Thou's but a lazy boorde,

And rekes much of thy *swinke*. *Spenser.*

(1.) • **To SWINK.** *v. n.* [*swine*, Saxon.] To labour; to toil; to drudge. Obsolete.—

Riches, renown, and principality,
For which men *swink* and sweat. *Spenser.*

For they do *swink* and sweat to feed the
other,

Who live like lords. *Spenser.*

(2.) • **To SWINK.** *v. a.* To overlabour. Obsolete.—

The *swinked* hedger at his supper sat. *Milt.*

VOL. XXII. PART I.

SWINNA. an island of Scotland, in the Pentland Frith, one mile long and half a mile broad, inhabited by 6 families, and about 22 souls, who live chiefly by piloting vessels through the dangers of the frith, and the whirlpools, called the Wells of SWINNA.

(1.) **SWINTON.** John, a very celebrated English antiquary, the son of John Swinton of Bex-ton, gent. was born in Cheshire in 1703. His parents were not affluent, as he was entered at Oxford as a servitor at Wadham college, in Oct. 1719. On June 30, 1723, he was elected a scholar on a Cheshire foundation. In Dec. 1723, he became B. A. and on Dec. 1, 1726, M. A. He was ordained deacon, May 30, 1725; priest, May 28, 1727; and made rector of St Peter le Builey in Oxford, in Feb. 1728. In June 1728 he was elected a fellow of his college; but willing to see the world, he accepted of a chaplainship to the English factory at Leghorn. But as he did not enjoy his health, he went to Florence in April 1735, where he attended Mr Coleman, the English envoy, in his last moments. He returned through Venice and Vienna, and visited Preburg, in Hungary. While he was abroad, he was admitted into some foreign societies; viz. the academy degli *Apatisti* at Florence, and the *Etruscan Academy* of Cortona. On his return, he settled at Oxford, where he became chaplain to the goal. He married in 1743, and gave up his fellowship. In 1759, he became B. D.; in 1767, he was elected *Custos Archivorum*; and, on April 4, 1777, he died without issue. His wife died in 1784, and both were buried in the chapel of Wadham college. His publications were numerous and learned. He published. 1. *De Linguz Etruziz Regalia vernacula Dissert.* 4to, 19 p. Oxon. 1738. 2. A critical essay on the words *Antiqua* and *Supra*. 8vo. London, 1739. 3. *De prisicis Romanorum literis*; 4to, 20 p. Ox. 1746. 4. *De Primogenio Etruscorum Alphabeto*; Ox. 1846. 5. *Inscriptiones Citicæ*; five in binas Inscriptiones Phœnicias, inter rudera Citi nuper repertas, conjecture. Accedit de nummis quibusdam Samaritanis et Phœniciis, vel insolitam præ se literaturam ferentibus, vel in lucem hactenus non editis, dissertatio, 3to, 87 p. Ox. 1750. 6. *Inscriptiones Citicæ*; five in binas alias Inscriptiones Phœnicias, inter rudera Citi nuper repertas, conjecture, 4to, 19 p. 7. *De nummis quibusdam Samaritanis et Phœniciis, vel insolitam præ se literaturam ferentibus, vel in lucem hactenus non editis diff.* ada. 4to, 36 p. 8. *Metitia*; five de quinaria Gentis Metulæ, et nummis vetustis ceteroquin minimum notæ, diff. 4to, 22 p. Ox. 1750. 9. Several dissertations in the *Philos. Trans.* As a dissertation upon a Parthian Coin; with characters on the reverse resembling those of the Pahnynenes, vol. xlix. p. 593. Remarks on a Parthian Coin, with a Greek and Parthian legend, vol. l. p. 16. A dissertation upon the Phœnician numeral characters anciently used at Sidon, vol. li. p. 791. In nummum Parthicum hactenus ineditum conjecture, vol. li. p. 683. A dissertation upon a Samite Denarius, vol. lii. p. 28. An account of a tubercated Denarius of the Ptolemaic family, with an Etruscan inscription, vol. lxii. p. 60. Observations upon five ancient

Persian Coins, struck in Palestine or Phœnicia before the dissolution of the Persian empire," vol. lxii. p. 345. 10. A part of the Ancient Universal History, in the 6th and 7th vols. of that work. The particulars of this piece of literary history were communicated by Dr. Johnson to Mr. Nichols, in a paper printed in the *Genl. Mag.* for Dec. 1784. The original is deposited in the British museum. It assigns the following divisions of the history to Mr Swinton. "The history of the Carthaginians, Numidians, Mauritanians, Gætulians, Garamantes, Melano Gætulians, Nigritæ, Cyrenaica, Marmorica, the Regio Systica, Turks, Tartars, and Moguls, Indians, and Chinese; a dissertation on the peopling of America, and one on the independency of the Arabs.

(2.) SWINTON, a parish of Scotland, in Berwickshire, united with that of SIMPRIN, in 1761. The two extend 4 miles from E. to W. in length and from 3 to 3½ in breadth from N. to S. The surface consists of gently sloping hills and alternate flats, with some small marshes. The soil is deep and fertile, producing good crops and fine grafs. The *Lee* runs through it, and sometimes overflows its banks. It abounds with good freestone. The population, in 1792, was 898; the increase 404, since 1755. The name of the parish and of the family of Swinton, whose property it is, originated from the district having been granted to the first of that family for clearing the ground of *swine*, which is confirmed by the armorial bearing of the family. The Swintons made a conspicuous figure in the reign of Malcolm Canmore, who confirmed their right to the property of the parish, by one of the oldest Scottish charters extant, which is still preserved in the archives of Durham. Notwithstanding its situation on the borders of the two kingdoms, and the turbulent spirit of the barons, this property continued in the possession of the same family for 731 years, and, including the last proprietor, was possessed by 22 barons within that period.

(3.) SWINTON, a village in the N.E. corner of the above parish; containing 357 inhabitants, in 1792; when the adjacent village of SIMPRIN contained 75 persons.

(4.) SWINTON, a town of Yorkshire, near a canal on the Don, with a pottery and iron manufacture; 9 miles SW. of Doncaster, and 165 N. of London.

SWIRSEN, a town of Germany, in Upper Saxony, in Farther Pomerania; 7 m. ESE. of Polnow.

(1.) SWISS, *adj.* Of or belonging to Switzerland, or the Helvetic republic.

(2.) SWISS, or } *n. s.* the people of Switzerland.

(2.) SWISSERS, } *land.*

SWISSERLAND. See SWITZERLAND.

* SWITCH, *n. s.* A small flexible twig.—Fetch me a dozen crabtree staves, and strong ones; these are but *switches*.—*Shak.*

When a circle 'bout the wrist

Is made by handle exercise,

The body feels the spur and *switch*.—*Hudibras.*
—Mauriana, on the fifth medal, leads a horse with something like a thread; in her other hand she holds a *switch*.—*Addison.*

* To SWITCH, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To lash; to jerk.—

Lay thy bridle's weight

Most on the left side; thy right horse thou *switchest*.—*Chapman.*

SWITZ, or SCHWITZ, a canton of the Helvetic republic, with its capital, which give name to the whole country of SWITZERLAND. See SCHWITZ, N^o 1. and 2.

SWITZER, a native of Switzerland.

(1.) SWITZERLAND, or SWISSERLAND, a mountainous country of Europe, bounded on the N. by Swabia; E. by Tyrol and Austrian Suabia; S. by the ci-devant duchy of Savoy and Italy; and W. by old France; being about 260 miles long, and 100 broad. But the rev. Mr Cruttwell makes it only 180 miles long from E. to W. and 140 broad. It was divided into 13 cantons, viz. BERNE, ZURICH, SCHAFFHAUSEN, BASEL, LU-CERNE, UNDERWALDEN, URI, SCHWITZ, TRIBURG, ZUG, SOLEURE, GLARIS, and APPENZEL. See these articles.

(2.) SWITZERLAND, CLIMATE, SURFACE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE OF. The climate of this country is very various. That part of the canton of Berne, E. of the lake of Geneva, together with the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwalden, Glaris, Appenzel, and part of the canton of Lucerne, consist of stupendous mountains, whose tops are from 9000 to 12,000 feet above the level of the sea, consisting of craggy inaccessible rocks, of which some are quite bare, while others are always covered with ice and snow. Among the mountains are many excellent medicinal and other springs, cold and warm baths, water-falls, craggy precipices, deep narrow valleys, and caverns. They yield also a great variety of herbs, thickets, and bushes, in the upper parts; and in the lower, rich pastures and woods. The highest are those in the canton of Uri. Many of the valleys are covered with lakes, or watered by brooks and rivers. In some of them are towns, villages, woods, vineyards, and corn lands. Both on the mountains and in the valleys the air is extremely cold in winter; but in summer it is very pleasant, cool, and refreshing on the former, but excessively hot in the latter. Sometimes it is winter on the N. side of a mountain when it is summer on the S.; nay, flowers may be gathered sometimes with one hand, and snow with the other. Predigious masses of ice and snow often fall from them in winter, and do a great deal of damage; (see GLACIERS); and most of the streams and rivers take their rise from the thawing of the ice and snow on the sides and tops. From the rising or descending of the clouds, with which they are commonly enveloped, the inhabitants can pretty exactly foretel the changes of the weather. The other and lower parts of Switzerland are very pleasant and fertile, being diversified with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. The mountains in these are but mole hills in comparison of the others: there is neither snow nor ice on them in summer; and they afford not only good pasturage, but arable ground. (See § 10.) In the lower parts of Switzerland they grow oats, barley, flax, and hemp. Wines of various sorts are also produced in some of them, with variety of fruits. Of wood for fuel and other uses there is generally plenty; in some places however

however, they are obliged to burn sheep's dung, and in others a kind of heath and small shrubs. In the valleys they cultivate fasson with success. Barley is sowed on the very ice mountains, the oats in a warmer soil; rye in a warmer still, and the warmest of all is assigned to spelt. In most parts a threefold produce is accounted a tolerable harvest. Flax, hemp, and tobacco, are much cultivated. Apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts are plentiful; and the part towards Italy abounds in peaches, morelles, almonds, figs, citrons, pomegranates, and others of the more delicate fruits.

(3.) SWITZERLAND, HISTORY OF, TILL THE SECTION OF THE HELVETIC CONFEDERACY. The Swiss were anciently called *HELVETI*, and the country *HELVETIA*, whence the modern name of the *HELVETIC REPUBLIC*. See *HELVETIA*, and *HELVETIC*, § 1-3: The ancient Helvetians were a Gaulish or Celtic people, and Helvetia was divided into 4 cantons or territories. Julius Cæsar was the first who reduced the inhabitants under the dominion of the Romans, and these founded colonies here under the names of *Julia Equestris*, *AVGUSTA RAUROCORUM*, and *Acuticum*. Their dominion continued till the 5th century, when the country was over-run by the Burgundians and Germans; but soon after the Franks made themselves entire masters of it. On the decease of Lewis I. king of the Franks, and emperor of the Romans, the S. part of Helvetia, or Burgundy, devolved to the emperor Lotharius, and the N. or that of *ALLEMANN*, to king Lewis the German. Lotharius II. son to the former, and king of Austria, retained the S. part of Helvetia, which, together with Burgundy, or *FRANCIE COMTE*, was styled the *Lesser Burgundy*. After his demise, this S. part also devolved to Lewis the German, who thus became possessed of all Switzerland, and from him it descended to his son, Charles the Fat. In 888, Rodolphus, duke of the Lesser Burgundy, took on him the title of king, but the N. part of Switzerland continued under the dominion of the emperor Arnolphus. Rodolphus II. son to the former, obtained a grant of the Argau from the emperor Henry I. This prince was succeeded by his son Conrad, as the latter was by his son Rodolphus III. who, in 1052, by a formal will, bequeathed his kingdom of the Lesser Burgundy to the emperor Conrad II. whereby all Switzerland once more became united to the German empire. In the 13th century, it became a third time a nominal province of the German empire, which, however, was possessed of little real authority here. A great part of the country was in the hands of the clergy, and the remainder in general of particular nobles. The inhabitants of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and the territory of Glaris, were, from time immemorial, possessed of the right of being governed by their own magistrates, with other important privileges; and, in the 12th century, the three first entered into an alliance, which they solemnly renewed every tenth year. They had always declared themselves averse to the authority of the emperor's *Rathsholder* in Switzerland, till, in 1299, Otto IV. compelled them to receive Rodolphus III. count of Habsburg, as his representative, though

he was to take an oath that he would govern according to law and equity, and make no encroachments upon their rights and liberties. This nobleman seems to have been little observant of that engagement; for, in 1311, we find them unanimously addressing the emperor, Henry VII. to recall him; which he accordingly did, further confirming to them all their privileges. In 1249, the like was done by his successor, Frederic. In 1257, during the interregnum, in consideration of his great power, they chose for their protector Rodolphus V. count of Habsburg, who, in 1273, became emperor of Germany. At the solicitation of his son, Albert, duke of Austria, he intended to have erected a particular dukedom in Switzerland, which design did not transpire till several years after, when it appeared that he had purchased of the abbot of Murbach the town of Lucern, with his revenues, and prerogatives in several villages in the territory of Schwetz. These three districts, on the death of Rodolphus, faithfully adhered to his successor, the emperor Adolphus, which gave so much offence to his son, duke Albert, that on his accession to the crown of Germany, on the death of the latter, he displayed his resentment in more than one instance, not only refusing peremptorily to confirm their privileges, without vouchsafing to allege any reason for his refusal, but likewise setting over them two noblemen of the most infamous character for avarice and arrogance, whose administration became quite insupportable. On this, feeling that nothing less was in agitation than the total deprivation of their liberties, and the bringing them under the yoke of Austria, they united in a firm resolution to defend themselves to the last extremity. The tyranny of *Griser*, the Austrian governor, hastened this revolution, by his barbarously ordering William Tell, the celebrated Swiss patriot, to shoot an apple off his son's head at a considerable distance. Tell, having accomplished this, without hurting his son, Griser observed, that he had another arrow concealed under his cloak, and asked him, for what purpose that was.—To which Tell boldly replied “To have shot *you* through the heart if I had had the misfortune to have killed my son.” On this the enraged Governor ordered Tell to be hanged, but his fellow citizens, flew to arms, attacked and vanquished Griser, who was shot to death by William Tell, and instantly formed an association for their independence. This memorable event happened on the 7th of Nov. 1307. (See *TELL*.) *Arnold Melchthal* of Underwalden was the first who raised the standard of liberty. The citizens chose for commanders 3 gentlemen of approved courage and abilities; namely, Werner, or Gerhard Stauffach, of Schwitz, Walthur Furst, of Uri, and Arnold Melchthal above mentioned, who secretly agreed together, that on the first day of Jan. 1368, they should surprise and demolish the castles in which the imperial governors resided. This resolution being effected, these three places joined again in a league for ten years, which gave birth to the Helvetic confederacy. *SWITZ* being the most powerful of the three confederate places, and the first meeting of the confederates being held at *Bramen*, in its territories, as also the first league concluded there

there, and after that the first battle, by the success of which the liberty of the confederates was retrieved, being fought within its jurisdiction, its name was given to the general confederacy. The emperor Albert thinking that this was the season for totally reducing these three places by force of arms, hastened to Baden, to begin the preparations, but being, on his return, murdered by his brother's son, John of Habsburg, the design was dropped; till, not long after, the house of Austria invented another pretence for falling on the United Cantons. For their and other parts of Switzerland, adhering to the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, his competitor, Frederic of Austria, was so extremely irritated, that the Switzers having, during their contests with the abbey of Einsiedlen, made some of its monks prisoners, put them under the ban, to which the bishop of Constance added excommunication. The former was taken off again by the emperor Lewis, and the latter by the Abp. of Mentz. Leopold duke of Austria, by virtue also of a commission from his brother Frederic, above mentioned, in 1315, attacked the confederates with a powerful army, but was defeated by them at Morgarten. Hereupon, on the 8th of Dec. 1315, they entered into a perpetual alliance, which proved the origin of the late Helvetic confederacy. In 1332, Lucern acceded to it; in 1351, Zurich and Glarus; and in 1352 their number was increased by the accession of Zug and Bern.

(5.) SWITZERLAND, HISTORY OF, TILL THE TREATY OF WESTPHALIA. For the space of 125 years, this confederacy was composed only of the above 8 territories or cantons, on which account they are called the Old Cantons. In 1481, Friburg and Soleure, and in 1501, Basil and Schaffhausen, were admitted into the confederacy; and in 1513 Appenzel also acceded to it. These 13 towns and counties, which properly constituted the HELVETIC REPUBLIC, were united by a reciprocal convention, which, though not in all places the same, and the unions of the 8 old and 5 later cantons differing in certain respects, yet in the principal points nearly agreed; the first and chief articles relating to the succour, assistance, and protection, to be given to any one of them in case of any unjust violence, and determining in what manner and by whom the reasons for any military enterprise should be discussed, as also how and where such succour should be given, and stating both the expences of the war and the distribution of any acquisitions. The 2d article regulated their procedure in accommodating any differences which might arise between two or more towns or cantons, &c. In some leagues, and particularly in those of the old towns, it was permitted to enter into any other connections at pleasure, provided such connections did not affect the original confederacy; but in the conventions with the later towns and cantons, it was expressly stipulated that they should not contract any engagements without the privacy, advice, and consent of the old ones. The federal union, however, extended no farther than to the succours stipulated in the leagues, and other cases set forth in the same; in all other incidental affairs relative to the confederacy, the majority of votes was not obligatory to the whole body; particularly with

respect to the making of alliances with foreign powers, wherein every town and canton was at liberty to act as a contracting party or not, and that even though such alliance should have been approved of by all the other towns and cantons. Thus the whole Helvetic body consisted properly of 13 distinct republics or free states, united by oath for their mutual security and maintenance. It had for some centuries before the French revolution, supported itself in an absolute freedom and independency, enjoyed all the privileges of majesty, made wars, concluded treaties, received and sent envoys from and to the several European powers, entered into alliances with them, given what form they thought proper to their constitution, enacted laws and ordinances both in temporal and spiritual affairs, and exercised all the various prerogatives of sovereignty. Accordingly, at the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, it was acknowledged to be a free state, even by the emperor and empire.

(5.) SWITZERLAND, HISTORY OF, TO THE PRESENT TIME. This brave nation continued to enjoy their freedom and independence, under their respective various constitutions with little interruption, except what took place in their internal governments, by occasional alterations from 1648, till the commencement of the French Revolution in 1789. But soon after that great event, which more or less convulsed all the states of Europe, the rage for innovation, and the hopes of establishing a perfect liberty and equality, reached the Swiss Cantons: and the democratic party not only attempted to overturn the old aristocratic governments, but even to new-model those democratic cantons, the governments of which by universal suffrage, and other established privileges appeared to be as perfectly free as they could be rendered by any change. At last, on the 22d March 1798, they were revolutionized upon the plan of the French republic, under a director and two councils. (See HELVETIC REPUBLIC § 3.) After this the whole country was repeatedly over run, and successive changes made in its government, by the different belligerent powers while the inhabitants, notwithstanding the natural strength of their situation, were subjected to all the horrors of war, as related under the article REVOLUTION, N^o VI, § 33, 38—40; 43—44. We need only add, that the whole of this once free country, except such portions of it as has been annexed to the French empire, or the Italian kingdoms, (See § 12.) and these need hardly be excepted, being still under the same imperial despotism, are now entirely subjected to the arbitrary will and pleasure of the emperor Napoleon, who, together with his other titles, has assumed that of Mediator of Switzerland.

(6.) SWITZERLAND, INHABITANTS OF. The Switzers are a brave, honest, hospitable, hardy, people very true to their engagements, friendly and humane. In short, there is not a people in Europe whose national character is better. In their persons they are generally tall, robust, and well made; by their complexions are none of the best, and the that live in the neighbourhood of the mountains are subject to wens. The women are generally handsome and well-shaped, sensible and mode-

yet frank, easy, and agreeable in conversation. Few of the peasants are miserably poor; many of them are rich, especially in the Protestant cantons, and that of Berne in particular.

(7.) SWITZERLAND. LATE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF. The late form of government in the several states of the Helvetic republic, was in some monarchical, in others aristocratical, and in others democratical. Their sovereigns were the princes of the empire, such as the bishop of Basle, and the abbot of St Gall. The aristocratical governments were, the cantons of Zurich, Basle, and Schaffhausen, with some incorporate places, as the towns of St Gall, Muhlhausen and Biel, the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Friburg, and Solure, over which were appointed *Schultheissen* or justices, and Neuchatel and Geneva. The democratical form of government prevailed in the six cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Unterwalden, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzell, which were under the direction of *Landsammans*; as also, though with some variation in the Grisons and the Valais, but in all, every male of the age of 16, whether master or servant, had a vote in the enacting of laws, and electing of magistrates. The general annual diets were held at BADEN or *Frauenfeldt*, extraordinary diets at ALCOR. Lucern took the lead of the Roman catholic cantons, but ZURICH, though less powerful than Berne, took the precedence of the whole. With respect to their military establishment, the only regular forces here were those of the garrisons of Zurich, Bern, Basle, Geneva, and Arburg; but every burgher, peasant, and subject, was diligently to exercise himself in the use of arms, to appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark, to furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball, to be always ready for the defence of his country, and punctually to comply with every article of war. Switzerland was, and probably still is, well provided with arsenals, particularly at Bern; but the only fortified places in it are Solure, Zurich, Bern, Basle, and Arburg. The Swizers engaged in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments; in the latter case, the government permitted the enlisting volunteers, though only in such states as they were in alliance or had made a previous agreement with: and no subject was to be forced into foreign service, nor even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy. All the advantages arising to the regencies from these levies were usually only an annual subsidy paid by the state in whole favour the levies were thus granted; and perhaps a promise of reciprocal aid when necessary. A public benefit, however, attending this custom was, that these men returning home after a long service abroad, were a great improvement to the standing militia of their country. The confederates of the Swiss Cantons were the abbot of St Gall and the Valais; the Grisons, towns of Geneva, St Gall, Bienne, Muhlhausen, and Neuchatel. The independent states under the protection of the states or the allies were Grisaun, Engelberg, and Kapperschweil, Roman Catholics; and Haldenstein, Protestants. The subjects were Baden, Morat, Granfon, Echalen, Orbe, Schwartzenburg, Werdenberg, and Bienne, Protestants;

the free bailiwicks, Uznach, Gaster, the Italian bailiwicks, Rom in catholics; and the Thurgau, Rheintal, Surgans, and Tockenburg, mixed. But great changes have taken place in the constitution and government of this country during the late revolutionary war. See § 12, and REVOLUTION, § VI.

(8.) SWITZERLAND, MANUFACTURES AND TRADE OF. The principal manufactures are linen of several sorts, lace, thread, silk, and worsted stockings, neck-cloths, cotton stuffs, gloves, handkerchiefs, silks of several sorts, gold and silver brocades, a variety of woollen manufactures, hats, paper, leather of all sorts, earthen wares, snuff and tobacco, porcelain, watches, clocks, toys, and other hardwares, &c. Trade is greatly promoted by many navigable lakes and rivers. In some of the above manufactures, and in cheese, butter, sheep, horses, black cattle, hides, and skins, the exports are considerable; and as the imports are chiefly grain and salt, with some American and Asiatic goods, there is a large balance in their favour. In some parts of Switzerland drefs was restrained by sumptuary laws.

(9.) SWITZERLAND, MINERALS IN. Slates, black and variegated marble, porphyry, gypsum, alabaster, crystal, saltpetre, salt, coal, &c. abound here, with silver, copper, lead, and iron ores. Gold dust is found in the sands of several rivers, particularly the Rhine, Emmet, Aar, Reufs, Arve, and Inn. Iron ore also abounds and is wrought.

(10.) SWITZERLAND, MOUNTAINS, CATARACTS, MEDICINAL SPRINGS, &c. OF. The greater part of this country is composed of mountains, with narrow valleys between: these mountains are composed of stupendous rocks, two, four, or six masses, piled on each other, and from 4000 to 10,000 feet in perpendicular height. One peak, on mount St GOTHARD, is, by Du Cret computed at 16,500 French feet. The lower part of these high mountains are covered with woods and pastures, the herbage in which is of a remarkable length and richness. The middle consists of Alps abounding in a great variety of odoriferous herbs, thickets, and bushes, with excellent springs, in summer resorted to by herdsmen, with their cattle. The third part of these mountains consists almost entirely of craggy and inaccessible rocks, some of which are quite bare, without herbage growing upon them, or even so much as grass, whilst others are continually covered with snow and ice. The valleys between these mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes. The ice hills begin in the canton of Glarus, and after passing through the territory of the Grisons, and thence into the canton of Uri, terminate in that of Bern. The highest of these mountains are those in the canton of Uri, viz. St Gothard, Firka, Crispalt, and Lucmanier, which send forth rivers to all parts of Europe. This is the most dreary part of all Switzerland, and on the summits of the mountains one eternal cold almost prevails, with hard gales of wind and very damp fogs. During the greatest part of the year, the clouds lie beneath the peaks of the highest mountains, inasmuch, that from thence they appear like a sea, the peaks projecting among them like islands. Sometimes, too, they break, and thus display a

VIEW

view of the country beneath. Not one of the mountains is without a cataract; and as the eye, by reason of the intervention of the clouds, is not always able to reach the beginning of them, they look as if poured down from heaven upon the rocks. Among these mountains are many excellent springs, some of which are medicinal, others warm, and others cold baths, celebrated for their extraordinary virtues. Of these summits, too, some form a part of the Alps, so frequently mentioned in the Greek and Roman writers, the AP-PENNINES (or *Alpes Summe*, now ST GOTHARD and *Crispalt*), with the *Alpes Leponticæ*, the *Alpes Rheticæ*, &c. Very different from this is the remaining and smaller part of Switzerland, including the county of THURGAU, which is a part of the cantons of Zurich, Schaffhausen, Bern, Basil, Soleure, and Fribourg; for though this district is not without mountains, some of which are even 2000 or 2500 feet high, yet it is much more level than the above-mentioned parts: the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Here are likewise no Alps nor rocky precipices, no cataracts, few trees, and in summer neither snow nor ice. The mountains, instead of being interrupted by vast chasms or abysses, are generally entire, and composed of a few small eminences, the summits of which, far from shooting out into peaks, are flat or round, to the extent of many miles, without any considerable inequality, and frequently afford not only pasturage, but also arable ground. It is only during long rains, that in these parts the clouds link below the eminences. Great numbers of petrifications, more particularly of marine shells and plants, are found among them. The fields, too, though generally stony, are fertile, and the meadows in most places are planted with fruit-trees. This more level part of Switzerland is watered only by a few rivers, but these are large.

(11.) SWITZERLAND, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, EDUCATION, &c. OF. Switzerland is not so populous as many other countries in Europe; the Popish cantons are less so than the Protestant. The total number of the inhabitants is computed at two millions. The language generally spoken is the German, in which also all public affairs are transacted; but in those parts of the country that border on Italy or France, a corrupt French or Italian prevails. The two predominant religions are Calvinism and Popery. Of the former are the cantons of Zurich and Bern, the town of St Gall, Mühlebühl, and Biel, the principality of Neuchâtel, the greater part of Basil, Schaffhausen, the country of the Grisons, the Thurgau, Toggenburg, Glaris, and the Rhine valley; the frontiers of Appenzel, with a small part of Solothurn, and some places in the countries of Baden and Sargans. The rest of the Swiss cantons are Popish. For the education of youth there is an university at Basil, and academies at Zurich, Berne, Lausanne, and Geneva, besides *gymnasia* and *scholæ illustres*, both in the Popish and Protestant cantons. There are also societies among them for the improvement of the German language and the sciences.

(12.) SWITZERLAND, PRESENT STATE OF.

The present political state of this country being mentioned above, in § 5. we have only to take notice of the geographical alterations which have been made upon it during and since the late revolutionary war. Of these the most flagrant was the compelling of the citizens of Geneva in 1798, to annex their city and republic to the French republic. (see GENEVA, N° 1.); in consequence whereof they now form the department of LAC LEMAN in the French empire. To that empire is also annexed the whole of the PAYS DE VAUX, or country of the celebrated VAUDOIS, or WALDENSES. The VALTELINE, CHIAVENNA, and BORMIO, were, at the voluntary request of the citizens, separated from the country of the GRISONS, by Bonaparte, in 1797, and annexed to the Cisalpine republic. (see CISALPINE, N° 2.); whence they now form a part of the Italian kingdom, as does also the country of the Grisons, which was afterwards annexed to the ITALIAN REPUBLIC. Part of the bishoprics of Basil and Constance, with Baden, and some other places, were allotted among the indemnities to the new elector of Baden, (see REVOLUTION, § VIII.); and these constitute the chief dismemberments of this ancient republic.

(13.) SWITZERLAND, QUADRUPEDS AND BIRDS OF. The inhabitants derive their chief subsistence from their cattle; both the valleys and Alps, or middle parts of their enormous mountains, yielding excellent fodder. In the beginning of summer the cattle are driven up among the Alps, and committed to the care of the Senns. (see SENN, N° 1.) The Senns on all the Alps likewise keep hogs, which are fed with the whey after making the butter and cheese. The Swiss cheese is much esteemed in other parts of Europe, but the best is that of Berne, and Griers in the canton of Fribourg. Great numbers of horses are bought up here for the French cavalry. Of wild animals, the CHAMOIS and the marmozet are the most remarkable. (see CAPRA, N° XIV.) Among the Alps is found a species of hares, which in summer perfectly resemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, inso much that they are scarce distinguishable among the snow. Here are also yellow and white foxes in great numbers, which in winter come down to the valleys. The *lammergeier*, which delights in the highest peaks, is a large bird of the eagle kind, and its wings are 14 feet in breadth. These birds prey alike on wild and tame animals. There are several edible fowls here, such as the moorcock, the rail, the snipe, the partridge, and some others.

(14.) SWITZERLAND, REVENUES OF. The public revenues were in general very inconsiderable, arising chiefly from the regalia, the demesnes, and public granaries, voluntary contributions, the sale of salt, and a land-tax; in the Protestant cantons, from the church-lands also that were seized at the Reformation, except in Zurich, Berne, Basil, and Schaffhausen, where the people are more industrious, have a greater trade, and are richer than in the others, they defray the ordinary charges, and that is all. How much the agents of Napoleon now squeeze from the Swiss we know not.

(15.) SWITZERLAND, RIVERS AND LAKES OF. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Rhone, the

the Reufs, the Aar, the Adda, and the Tefino, with many others that join them. The principal lakes are those of Geneva, Neufchâtel, Biel, Zurich, the Waldstatter, Thun, and Brien, Constance, and Lucern. Both rivers and lakes abound with fish.

(16.) SWITZERLAND, STATE OF SCIENCE IN. The arts and sciences have long been cultivated with assiduity and success in Switzerland; and several of the cantons and states connected with the Confederacy have given birth to learned men, whose abilities and writings have done honour to the country. See CALVIN, GESNER, ROUSSEAU, SPANHEIM, SUICER, SULZER, ZIMMERMAN, ZUINGLIUS, &c.

(17.) SWITZERLAND, TROOPS AND MILITIA OF. The cantons never kept any standing troops, except for a few garrisons; but their militia was long reckoned the best regulated of any in Europe. Every male from 16 to 60 was enrolled, and about one third of them regimented. They all provided themselves with arms, clothing, and accoutrements, and appeared on the stated days for exercise; and the several cantons and districts were furnished with a train of artillery, and all the other implements of war. The Switzers of the several cantons were allowed to engage in the service of such foreign princes and states as were in alliance with those cantons, or with whom they had made a previous agreement. Such states, paying an annual subsidy to the respective cantons, were allowed to make levies. Every man enlisted voluntarily, and for what number of years he pleased; at the expiration of which he was at liberty to return home. A great number thus always returning from foreign service, Switzerland was never unprovided with able and experienced officers and soldiers.

SWITZERS. *n. s. plur.* [from *Switz*.] The people of Switzerland. See SWITZERLAND, § 6.

(1.) * SWIVEL. *n. s.* Something fixed in another body so as to turn round in it.

(2.) A SWIVEL is a kind of ring made to turn round in a staple or other ring. These are used when a ship lies at her moorings; also in tadders for cattle, that they may turn round without unwarping the tadder.

(3.) SWIVEL CANNON, a small piece of artillery belonging to a ship of war, which carries a shot of half a pound, and is fixed in a socket on the top of the ship's side, stern, or bow, and also in her tops. The trunnions of this piece are contained in a sort of iron crotch, of which the lower end terminates in a cylindrical pivot resting in the socket, so as to support the weight of the cannon. The socket is bored in a strong piece of oak, reinforced with iron hoops, in order to enable it to sustain the recoil. By this frame, which is called the *swivel*, and an iron handle on its cable, the gun may be directed by the hand to any object. It is therefore very necessary in the tops, particularly when loaded with musket balls, to fire down on the upper decks of the adversary in action.

* SWOBBER. *n. s.* [See SWABBER.] 1. A sweeper of the deck.—

On a brown george with lousy *swobbers* fed.
Dryden.

2. Four privileged cards that are only incidentally used in betting at the game of whist.—The clergyman used to play at whist and *swobbers*; but he could not digest those wicked *swobbers*.
Swift.

SWOJANOW, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim; 9 miles SE. of Politzka.

SWOLL. See ZWOLL.

* SWOLLEN. } The participle passive of

* SWOLN. } *sawell*.—

Her dreadful bear, who, *sawoln* with blood of late,
Came ramping forth. *Spenser.*
When thus the gather'd storms of wretched love

In my *sawoln* bosom with long war had strove,
At length they broke their bounds. *Prior.*

—Whereas at first we had only three of these principles, their number is already *sawoln* to five.

Baker.

* SWOM. The preterite of *swim*.

(1.) * SWOON. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A lipothymy; a fainting fit.

(2.) SWOON. See MEDICINE, § 207–213; SYNCOPE, &c.

* To SWOON. *v. n.* [*aswunnon*, Saxon.] To suffer a suspension of thought and sensation; to faint.—

So play the foolish throngs with one that *sawoons*;

Come all to help him, and so stop the air

By which he should revive. *Shak.*

—If thou stand'st not i' th' state of hanging, behold now presently, and *sawoon* for what's to come upon thee. *Shak.*—We see the great and sudden effect of smells in fetching men again, when they *sawoon*. *Bacon.*—

The most in years *sawoon'd* first away. *Dryd.*

The woman finds it all a trick,

That he could *sawoon* when she was sick. *Prior.*

—He seemed ready to *sawoon* away in the surprise of joy. *Tatler.*

SWOONING. *part. n. s.* See MEDICINE, 207–213.

* SWOOP. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Fall of a bird of prey upon his quarry.—

What, all my pretty chickens and their dam,

At one fell *swoop*? *Shak.*

—The eagle fell into the fox's quarters, and carried away a whole litter of cubs at a *swoop*. *L'Estrange.*

* To SWOOP. *v. a.* [I suppose formed from the found.] 1. To seize by falling at once, as a hawk upon his prey.—A fowl in Madagascar, called a ruck, the feathers of whose wings are twelve paces, can with as much ease *swoop* up an elephant as our kites do a mouse. *Wilkins.*—

Now at last you came to *swoop* it all. *Dryd.*

2. To prey upon; to catch up.—The physician looks with another eye on the medicinal herb than the grazing ox, which *swoops* it in with the common grass. *Glanville.* 3. To pass with violence. Not used.—

Proud Tamer *swoops* along with such a lusty train,

As fits so brave a flood. *Drayton.*

* To SWOP. *v. a.* [Of uncertain derivation.] To change; to exchange one thing for another. A low word.—

Oh that insulting word! I would have *sawopp'd* Youth for old age, and all my life behind.

To have been then a momentary man. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **SWORD.** *n. s.* *sword*, *Saxon*; *sawerd*, *Dutch*. 1. A weapon used either in cutting or thrusting; the usual weapon of fights hand to hand.—

Old unhappy traitor, the *sword* is out
That must destroy thee *Shak.*
—Each man took his *sword*. *Gen.*—

But the *sword*

Of Michael from the armoury of God
Was giv'n him temper'd so, that neither keen
Nor solid might resist that edge; it met
The *sword* of Satan with steep force.
The griding *sword* with discontinuous wound
Pass'd through him. *Milton.*

2. Destruction by war; as fire and *sword*.—The *sword* without, and terror within. *Deut. xxxii.*

25. 3. Vengeance of justice.—
Justice to Merit does weak aid afford,
She quits the balance, and resigns the *sword*.
Dryden.

4. Emblem of authority.—

This I, her *sword*-bearer do carry,
For civil deed and military. *Hudibras.*

(2.) A *Sword* is an offensive weapon worn at the side, and serving either to cut or stab. Its parts are, the handle, guard, and blade; to which may be added the bow, scabbard, pommel, &c.

(3.) **SWORD OF STATE**, which is borne before the king, lords, and governors of counties, cities, or boroughs, &c. For or before the king, it ought to be carried upright; the hilt as low as the bearer's waist, the blade up between his eyes. For or before a duke, the blade must decline from the head, and be carried between the neck and the right shoulder. For or before an earl, the blade is to be carried between the point of the shoulder and the elbow; and for or before a baron, the blade is to be born in the bend of the arm. This ceremonial form no less denotes the dignity of a governor than the coronet set on his coat of arms.

* **SWORDED.** *adj.* [from *sword*.] Girt with a sword.—

The *sworded* seraphim
Are seen in glitt'ring ranks. *Milton.*

* **SWORDER.** *n. s.* [from *sword*.] A cut-throat; a soldier. In contempt.—

A Roman *sworder* and banditto slave
Murder'd sweet Tully. *Shak.*
Cæsar will

Unstate his happiness, and be stag'd to th' show
Against a *sworder*. *Shak.*

SWORD-FIGHT. *n. s.* [*sword* and *fight*.] A duel or combat with swords. See **SWORDPLAYER**.

(1.) * **SWORDFISH.** *n. s.* [*xiphias*.] A fish with a long sharp bone issuing from his head.—

A *swordfish* small him from the rest did funder.
Spenser.

—Malpighi observed the middle of the optic nerve of the *swordfish* to be a large membrane, folded in many doubles, like a fan. *Derham.*

Our little fleet was now engag'd so far,
That, like the *swordfish* in the whale, they fought.
Dryden.

(2.) **SWORD FISH.** See **XIPHIAS**.

(1.) * **SWORDGRASS.** *n. s.* [*gladiolus*.] A kind of sedge; gladi. *Anisworth.*

(2.) **SWORD GRASS**, or *Corn Flag*. See **GLADIOLUS**.

* **SWORDKNOT.** *n. s.* [*sword* and *knot*.] Ribband tied to the hilt of the sword.—

Wigs with wigs, *swordknots* with *swordknots* strive. *Pope.*

* **SWORDLAW.** *n. s.* Violence; the law by which all is yielded to the stronger.—

So violence

Proceeded, and oppression, and *swordlaw*.

Milton.
SWORDLE, a hill of Scotland, in the ill of Sky, and parish of **STRATH-SWORDLE**.

* **SWORDMAN.** *n. s.* [*sword* and *man*.] Soldier; fighting man.—Worthy fellows, and like to prove most finely *swordmen*. *Shak.*—

At Lecca's house,

Among your *swordmen*. *Ben Jonson.*

—Liffex was made lieutenant-general of the army, the darling of the *swordmen*. *Clarendon.*

* **SWORDPLAYER.** *n. s.* [*sword* and *play*.] Gladiatorial; tencer; one who exhibits in public his skill at the weapons by fighting for prizes.—These they called *swordplayers*, and this spectacle a swordfight. *Haksarwill.*

SWORDS, in geography, a town of Ireland, in Dublin county, *Latimer*; 7 miles N. of Dublin.

* **SWARE.** The pretense of *swear*.—

How soon unlay

What feign'd submission *sware*. *Milton.*

(1.) * **SWORN.** The participle passive of *swear*.—

I'll be *sworn*'s true. *Shak.*

I am *sworn* brother sweet. *Shak.*

—They that are mad against me, are *sworn* against me. *Ps.*—He refused not the civil offer of a Pharisee, though his *sworn* enemy. *Calamy.*

The nation all elects some patron knight.

Sworn to be true to love. *Graucville.*

(2.) **SWORN BROTHERS**, [*fratres jurati*], persons who, by mutual oath covenanted to share each others fortune. Formerly, in any notable expedition to invade and conquer an enemy's country, it was the custom for the eminent soldiers to engage themselves by reciprocal oaths to share the rewards of their service. This practice gave occasion to the proverb of *sworn brothers or brethren in iniquity*, because of their dividing plunder and spoil.

* **SWUM.** Preterite and participle passive of *swim*.—

Air, water, earth,

By fowl, fish, beast, was *swum*. *Milt.*

* **SWUNG.** Preterite and participle passive of *swing*.—

Her hair within her hair she wound,
Swung her to earth, and dragg'd her. *Addison.*

SYA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 12 miles SW. of Linköping.

SYAGRUS, an ancient Greek poet, who flourished in the same age with Homer, to whom he was a rival, being the first who wrote on the *Trojan War*. (*Jelian*.) Diogenes calls him *Saguris*.

* **SYB.** *adj.* [Properly *sib*, *sib*, *Saxon*.] Related by blood. The Scottish diskie still retains it.—

Siker I am very *syb* to you.

Spenser.

(1.) SYBARIS, an ancient city of Italy, in Lucania, at the mouth of the river, (N^o 2.) on the bay of Tarentum; founded by a colony of Achæans. It became very rich and powerful; and at one period had the command of 4 adjacent nations, of 25 towns, and an army of 300,000 men. The city walls were 6½ miles in circumference, and the suburbs covered 7 miles of the banks of *Crathis*. It was 5 times destroyed but always rebuilt. It stood a long and vigorous siege, by the Crotonians, but at last was reduced by the Pythagoreans, A. A. C. 508. A town was built on its site called *Thurium*, A. A. C. 444.

(2.) SYBARIS, a river of Italy, which runs into the bay of Tarentum at the above town.

SYBARITÆ, } the people of SYBARIS, who
SYBARITES, } were long celebrated for bravery and skill in arts; but at last degenerated so much by the increase of luxury, that *Sybarite* became synonymous with *effeminate*.

SYBERG, or SIEBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and county of Mark; on the site of SYBURG.

SYBIL CUMMAN. See SIBYLS.

SYBILHEAD, a cape of Ireland on the W. coast of Kerry; 8 miles NNW. of Dingle. Lon. 10. 18. W. Lat. 52. 11. N.

SYBILLINE ORACLES. See SIBYLLINE, and SIBYLS.

SYBILS. See SIBYLS.

SYBOTA, a sea port of Epirus.

SYBRECHT, John, See SIBRECHTS. The D. of Buckingham brought him over to London, where he acquired great fame as a landscape painter; and died in 1703, aged 78.

SYBURG, an ancient town and fort of the Saxons, at the conflux of the Ruer and Lenni. It was taken by Charlemagne twice, viz. 18. in 772; and again in 775: but it was destroyed in 1287, and SYBERG built on its site 2½ miles SW. of Schwiert.

(1.) * SYCAMINE. } s. 1. A tree. The sy-

(2.) * SYCAMORE. } camore of Scripture is not the same with ours.—*Sycamore* is our *acer majus*. *Mortimer*.—If ye had faith as a grain of mustard-seed, ye might say unto this *sycamine* tree, be thou plucked up, and it should obey you. *Luke*, xvii. 6.—I was no prophet, but an herdsman, and a gatherer of *sycamore* fruit. *Amos*, vii. 14.—Go to yonder *sycamore* tree, and hide your bottle of drink under its hollow root. *Walton*.—

Sycamores with eglantine were spread;

A hedge about the sides, a covering over head.
Dryden.

(2.) SYCAMORE, in botany. See ACER.

(3.) SYCAMORE, FALSE. See ACER, N^o 2.

(4.) SYCAMORE TREE of Scripture. See FICUS, N^o 5.

SYCHAR, a city of Samaria, anciently called *Shechem*. See SAMARIA, N^o 2; SAMARITANS; and SHECHEM, N^o 2.

SYCKE, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, and county of Hoya; 16 miles NW. of Hoya.

(1.) * SYCOPHANT. s. 1. [*συκοφαντες*; *sycophantia*, Lat.] A talebearer; a rakebate, a malicious parasite.—Accusing *sycophants*, of all men, did best sort to his nature; but therefore not seeming

sycophants. *Sidney*.—Men know themselves void of those qualities which the impudent *sycophant*, at the same time, both ascribes to them, and in his sleeve laughs at them for believing. *South*.

(2.) SYCOPHANT was an appellation given by the ancient Athenians to those who informed of the exportation of figs contrary to law; and hence it is still used in general for all informers, parasites, flatterers, &c.

* To SYCOPHANT. v. n. [*συκοφαντες*; from *θηρ*, noun.] To play the *sycophant*. A low bad word.—His *sycophanting* arts being detected, that game is not to be played the second time. *Gov. of the Tongue*.

* SYCOPHANTICK. adj. [from *sycophant*.] Talebearing; mischievously officious.—

* To SYCOPHANTISE. v. n. [*συκοφαντες*; from *sycophant*.] To play the talebearer. *DiG*.

SYCURIUM, a town of Theffaly, at the foot of Ossa. *Liv.* 43, c. 54.

SYDAPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in the Caranatic; 22 miles SW. of Nellore.

(1.) SYDENHAM, Floyer, M. A. a learned English writer, born in 1710, and educated at Wadham College, Oxford; where he took his degree in 1734. He translated some parts of Plato's writings, and published them between 1753 and 1767. He was known and esteemed by many gentlemen eminent in literature; but having, from that excess of modesty which two often accompanies great merit and excessive sensibility, concealed his distress, he was put in jail for a small debt contracted for maintenance, and died without letting his friends know his wants. Of this melancholy event, the rev. and ingenious David Williams speaks in the following indignant and affecting terms, in his *Claims of Literature*, p. 93.—"During the summer of 1788, an event took place, which tarnished the character of English opulence and humanity, and afflicted the votaries of learning. FLOYER SYDENHAM, the well known translator of Plato, one of the most useful, if not one of the most competent Greek scholars of his age, a man revered for his knowledge, and beloved for the candour of his temper, and the gentleness of his manners, died in consequence of having been arrested and detained for a debt to a victualler, who had for some time furnished his frugal dinner. At the news of that event, every friend of literature felt a mixture of sorrow and shame; and one of the members of a club at the Prince of Wales's Coffee house, proposed, that it should adopt, as its object and purpose, some means to prevent similar afflictions, and to assist deserving authors and their families in distress." This gave rise to the establishment of that excellent and now flourishing institution, the LITERARY FUND for the relief of AUTHORS and their FAMILIES; of which we gave a brief notice under LITERARY FUND, and a more full account under SOCIETY, Part II, Sect. 1. N^o VII.

(2.) SYDENHAM, Thomas, M. D. an excellent English physician, was the son of William Sydenham, of Winford Eagle in Dorsetshire, and was born there about 1624. He studied at Magdalen-hall, Oxford; but left that university when Oxford was garrisoned for king Charles I and went to London: where, becoming acquainted with

Dr Thomas Cox, an eminent physician, that gentleman persuaded him to study physic; accordingly, after the garrison was delivered up to the parliament, he retired again to Magdalen-hall, entered on the study of medicine, and in 1648 was created M. B. Soon after, he was made a fellow of All-Souls college, and continued there several years; when, leaving the university, he settled at Westminster; became M. D. at Cambridge; grew famous for his practice; and was the chief physician in London from 1660 to 1670; when he became disabled by the gout. He died in 1689.

(3.) SYDENHAM, William, elder brother of the Dr (N^o 2.) was for some time a gentleman commoner of Trinity College, Oxford. Entering into the army of the Parliament, he acquitted himself so well, that he rose to the highest offices. In 1649 he was appointed governor of the Isle of Wight, and vice-admiral of that Isle and of Hampshire. In 1653, he was chosen M. P. for Dorsetshire; in 1654, was appointed commissioner of the Treasury, and a member of the privy council; and in 1658 was summoned to Parliament by the Protector, Richard Cromwell. What became of him after the restoration we know not.

SYDEROPÆCILUS, in mineralogy, a stone mentioned by the ancients. It was found in Arabia, and obtained this name from its being spotted with a ferruginous colour. It might possibly be a granite with spots of this peculiar colour.

SYDERVELT, a town of Holland, in the department of the Rhine, and late province of Guelderland; 6 miles W. of Culemburg.

SYDLING, a town of England in Dorsetshire; called also *St Nicholas*; with a fair Dec. 6.

(1, 2.) SYDNEY. See SIDNEY, N^o 1, and 2.

(3.) SYDNEY BAY, a bay of the S. Pacific Ocean, on the S. side of NORFOLK ISLAND, formed by Point Hunter and Point Rosa, which are $\frac{1}{2}$ miles asunder. On this bay is formed a settlement of British convicts. Lon. 168. 12. E. Lat. 29. 4. S.

(4.) SYDNEY COVE, a town on the coast of New South Wales, on the E. coast of New Holland; which was begun to be erected at PORT JACKSON, as a settlement for convicts, in Feb. 1788. The ground around it was then covered by a thick forest; but a considerable part of it was soon cleared; and convenient lodgings were erected for the governor, deputy governor, judge, and other civil and military officers, by March 1790. (See WALES, NEW SOUTH.) Lon. 151. 28. E. Lat. 33. 50. S.

(5.) SYDNEY COVE, a harbour of New S. Wales, within Port Jackson, which gives name to the above town, (N^o 4.) It lies open to the NE. and extends near 1000 yards SW. gradually decreasing from the breadth of 1400 feet, till it terminates in a point, where it receives a rivulet. The anchorage extends 2000 feet up the cove, and has soundings of 4 fathoms near the shore, and from 5 to 7 near the middle of the channel. It is quite secure from all winds, and ships can lie close to the shore on both sides, there being neither rocks nor shallows. Mr Crutwell places this harbour in Lon. 159. 20. E. Lat. 32. 53. S.

SYEDRA, an ancient town of Cilicia.

SYEKE, or SYCKE. See SYCKE.

SYENE, an ancient city of Egypt, situated, according to Mr Bruce, in lat. $24^{\circ} 0' 45''$ N. although Pliny and Strabo both say that it lay directly under the tropic of Cancer. Syene is remarkable for being the place where the first attempt was made to measure the circumference of the earth, by Eratosthenes, whom Ptolemy Euergetes had invited from Athens to Alexandria. It is now called *Affouan*. It is 375 miles S. of Cairo. Lon. 49. 28. E. Ferro.

SYER, a river of France, which rises 6 miles N. of Thionville, and runs into the Moselle, near Wasserbillich.

SYGAMBRI. See SICAMBERI.

(1.) SYL, a river of Wallachia, which runs into the Danube; 16 miles S. of Krajova.

(2.) SYL, a town of Wallachia; 28 miles SSW. of Brancovan.

SYLBURGIUS, Frederick, a learned German, born at Marpurg in Hesse, in 1546. He taught Latin, Greek, and French, for some time at Licha; but afterwards applied himself solely to the revising and correcting of ancient authors, particularly the Greek classics, for the presses of Wechel and Commelin. He also greatly assisted the celebrated Henry Stephens, in compiling his *Theaurus Græcæ Linguae*. (See STEPHENS, N^o 7.) He likewise published a *Greek Grammar*, which was much esteemed. For these services he had a salary from the university of Marpurg. He died in 1596.

SYLEUM, an ancient town of Pamphylia.

SYLLA, Lucius Cornelius, was descended from the illustrious family of the CORNELII, but from a branch quite distinct from that of the SCIPIOS. His debauched behaviour in his younger years did not correspond with his excellent education. Nicopolis, a rich courtesan, left him heir to her great estate.—He learned the art of war under Marius, whom he attended to Numidia as questor; and soon became the most skilful soldier in the army, while by his obliging behaviour he gained the esteem of all. His courage and dexterity contributed to the success of the war; and his eloquence persuaded Bocchus to deliver up Jugurtha. He served afterwards in the social war, and as a reward he was raised to the prætorship, next elected consul, and soon after declared general of the army against Mithridates VII. king of Pontus. Marius was exasperated, that the management of this war was not committed to him. The people were persuaded by his intrigues to reverse the decree, and substitute him in place of Sylla. Upon this he sent down officers to take the command of the army; but Sylla by this time had gained over the soldiers; who, instead of obeying the decree of the people, slew Marius's officers, and intreated Sylla to lead them instantly to Rome. Accordingly he entered the city sword in hand, slew Sulpicius the consul, obliged Marius to flee, new-modelled the laws, and afterwards marched into the East, and immediately laid siege to Athens; for that city, together with the rest of Greece, had fallen into the power of Mithridates. He wrote to the Amphictions, who were assembled at Delphi, to send him all the gold in the temple of Apollo, promising to restore it at the end of the war; and when he received it said that

he now was sure of victory, since the gods themselves furnished him with money. Athens was at last taken by assault, and Sylla was upon the point of destroying it, when he recollected its ancient glory, and spared (as he said) the living for the sake of the dead. After burning the Piræus, he gained two decisive victories over the generals of Mithridates. In the second battle, fought at Orchomenus, he was almost defeated; his troops began to flee, when, leaping from his horse, he snatched up a standard, and crying out, "I will die here gloriously; and soldiers, when you are asked where you abandoned your general, answer, At Orchomenus." This reproach recalled the courage of the Romans; they followed him and gained a complete victory. Mithridates then sued for peace. Mean time Cinna had declared against Sylla in Italy; and Marius returning from banishment, had taken the most severe vengeance on all his enemies. Sylla was declared a traitor; his laws reversed, his friends were murdered, and the government new-modelled. These news induced Sylla to conclude a treaty with Mithridates, and march directly to Rome. His approach terrified the Romans. Marius and Cinna were both dead; but the consuls made vigorous preparations to oppose him. A civil war was begun; but Sylla in the end subdued all his enemies, and entirely ruined the Marian faction. He entered Rome at the head of his victorious army, and assumed the title of *Felix, Happy*. The remainder of his life was stained with the most abominable cruelties. He ordered 3000 wretches, who had thrown themselves upon his clemency, to be butchered in the Campus Martius. To carry on these cruelties with the appearance of justice, he commanded the people to elect him dictator. He kept this office above two years; and then, to the amazement of all, laid it down, and offered to stand his trial before the people. Soon afterwards he retired into the country, and plunged into every kind of debauchery. He died of the lousy disease in the 60th year of his age. His person was elegant, his air noble, and his manners easy. He was eloquent, liberal, crafty, insinuating; and a profound master of dissimulation, by which he concealed a hideous train of vices. This *Nero* of the republic, did one essential service to science, by recovering the works of ARISTOTLE at the taking of Athens.

* SYLLABICAL. *adj.* [from *syllable*.] Relating to syllables; consisting of syllables.

* SYLLABICALLY. *adj.* [from *syllabical*.] In a syllabical manner.

* SYLLABICK. *adj.* [from *syllabique*, Fr. from *syllable*.] Relating to syllables.

(1.) * SYLLABLE. *n. f.* [σύλλαβος; *syllabe*, Fr.] 1. As much of a word as is uttered by the help of one vowel or one articulation.—

I heard

Each *syllable* that breath made up between them.

Shak.

—There is that property in all letters of aptness to be conjoined in *syllables* and words. *Holder*. 2. Any thing proverbially concise.—Abraham, Job, and the rest that lived before any *syllable* of the law of God was written, did they not sin as much as we do? *Hooker*.

To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,

Creeps in this petty pace from day to day,

To the last *syllable* of recorded time. *Shak.*

—He hath told so many melancholy stories, without one *syllable* of truth, that he hath blunted the edge of my fears. *Swift*.

(2.) A SYLLABLE, in grammar, is one or more letters pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, forming a complete sound, and constituting a word or a part of a word. No single letter can form a syllable except a vowel. The longest syllable in the English language is the word *strength*. The most natural way of dividing words into syllables, is, to separate all the simple sounds of which any words consists, so as not to divide those letters which are joined close together, according to the most accurate pronunciation.

* To SYLLABLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To utter; to pronounce; to articulate. Not in use.

Airy tongues that *syllable* mens names

On sands and shores. *Milton*.

(1.) * SYLLABUB. *n. s.* [Rightly SYLLABUS, which see.] Milk and acids.—

No *syllabubs* made at the milking pail,

But what are compos'd of a pot of good ale.

Beaumont.

—Two lines would express all they say in two pages: 'tis nothing but whipt *syllabus* and froth. *Pelton*.

(2.) A SYLLABUS is a kind of compound drink, most usual in summer; ordinarily made of white wine and sugar, into which is squirted new milk with a syringe or wooden cow. Sometimes it is made of canary, in which case the sugar is spared; and a little lemon and nutmeg are added in lieu of it. To prepare it the best way, the wine and other ingredients, except the milk, are to be mixed over night, and the milk or cream added in the morning. The proportion is, a pint of wine to three of milk.

(3.) SYLLABUS WHIPT. To half a pint of white wine or Rhenish is put a pint of cream, with the whites of three eggs. This they season with sugar and beat with birchen rods, or work with a syringe. The froth is taken off as it rises, and put into a pot; where, after standing to settle two or three hours, it is fit to eat.

(1.) * SYLLABUS. *n. s.* [σύλλαβος.] An abstract; a compendium containing the heads of a discourse.

(2.) SYLLABUS, in literature, denotes also a table of contents, or an index to the chief heads of a book.

SYLLEPSIS: *n. s.* [σύνληψις, Gr.] in grammar, a figure in which two nominative cases of the singular number are joined to a plural verb.

(1.) * SYLLOGISM. *n. s.* [συλλογισμός; *syllogisme*, Fr.] An argument composed of three propositions: as, *Every man thinks; Peter is a man, therefore Peter thinks*.—A piece of rhetoric is a sufficient argument of logic; an apologue of *Aesop* beyond a *syllogism* in *Barbara*. *Brown*.—What a miraculous thing should we count it, if the flint and the steel, instead of a few sparks, should chance to knock our definitions and *syllogisms*? *Bentley*.

(2.) A SYLLOGISM, in logic, consists of three propositions; the two first called *premises*; the last the *conclusion*. See LOGIC, Part III. Sect. IV.

* SYLLOGISTICAL. SYLLOGOSTICK. *adj.* [συλλογιστικός; from *syllogism*.] Retaining to syllo-

K 2

gism;

gism; consisting of a syllogism.—Though we suppose subject and predicate, and copula, and propositions, and *sylogistical* connections in their reasoning, there is no such matter. *Hale*.—Where the composition of the whole argument is plain, simple and regular, it is properly called a simple syllogism, since the complexion does not belong to the *sylogistick* form of it. *Watts*.

* **SYLLOGISTICALLY**. *adv.* [from *sylogistick*.] In the form of a syllogism.—A man knows first, and then he is able to prove *sylogistically*; so that syllogism comes after knowledge. *Locke*.

* **SYLLOGISTICK**. See **SYLLOGISTICAL**.

* **To SYLLOGIZE**. *v. n.* [*sylogizer*, Fr. *sylogiser*.] To reason by syllogism.—Logick is, in effect, the art of *sylogizing*. *Baker*.—Men have endeavoured to teach boys to *sylogize*, or frame arguments and refute them, without real knowledge. *Watts*.

SYLOES, a promontory of Africa.

SYLPH, *n. s.* in modern mythology and demonology, an ideal being, somewhat analogous to the *Fairy* of the British; (See **FAIRY**;) supposed to attend with anxious care about all the minutie and paraphernalia of a fine lady. *Pope's Rape*.

SYLT, an island of Denmark, in the North Sea, 12 miles from the W. coast of the duchy of Sleswick. It is about 40 miles in circumference, but of a very irregular form, and in no place above 4 miles broad. Lon. 8. 20. E. Lat. 54. 55. N.

SYLVA. See **PANCARPUS**.

(1.) * **SYLVAN** *adj.* [Better *silvan*.] Woody; shady; relating to woods.—

Cedar and pine, and fir and branching palm,
A *silvan* scene? *Milton*.

Watch'd by the *silvan* genius of the place.
Pope.

(2.) * **SYLVAN**. *n. s.* [*silvain*, Fr.] A wood god, or satyr; perhaps sometimes a rustick.—

Her private orchards, wall'd on ev'ry side,
To lawless *silvans* all access deny'd. *Pope*.

(1.) **SYLVANUS**, in church history. See **SILAS**.

(2.) **SYLVANUS**, in the mythology. See **SILVANUS**, N^o 2.

(3.) **SYLVANUS**, a brave warrior among the Franks, under the emperor Constantius, who, being by the most deliberate villany and forgery, of Dynamis, compelled to declare himself emperor, was afterwards, when his innocence was discovered, murdered by Urficinus, another traitor. See **CONSTANTINOPLE**, § 6.

(1, 2.) **SYLVESTER**, I. and II. Popes. See **SILVESTER**.

(3.) **SYLVESTER**, Joshua, born in 1563. He translated the works of *Du Bartas*; some pieces of *Præcæstorius* from the Latin; and the *Quatrains* of *Pibrac*, with some other tracts from the French. He died in Holland, in 1618.

(1.) **SYLVIA**, or **ILIA**, or **RHEA SYLVIA**, the mother of **ROMULUS**. See **RHEA**, N^o 3; and **ROME**, § 3.

(2.) **SYLVIA**, in ornithology, a new genus of birds, belonging to the order of passeris, formed by Dr Latham, by limiting the motacilla to the wagtail, and arranging the other species, formerly classed under that genus, under the sylvia. (See **ORNITHOLOGY**, Order III. p. 523. The **MOTACILLA** he thus describes: The beak is subulated,

slender, and somewhat indented at the point. The tongue seems torn at the end, and the tail is long. He thus characterizes the **SYLVIA**: The beak is subulated, straight, and small; the mandibles are nearly equal. The nostrils are obovate, and a little depressed. The exterior toe is joined at the under part to the base of the middle one. The tongue is cloven and the tail is small. He makes 13 species of the motacilla, and 174 species of the sylvia. See **MOTACILLA**.

SYLVICOLIST. *n. s.* [from *sylvæ*, a wood, and *colo*, to cultivate.] One who dwells in a wood.

Ash.

SYLVISBORG. See **SOLFVITZBURG**.

(1, 2.) **SYLVIVS**, Æneas, I. and II. kings of Alba, the son and grandson of Æneas, the Trojan, by Lavinia. See **ROME**, § 3.

(3.) **SYLVIVS**, Æneas. See **PRUS II**.

(4, 5.) **SYLVIVS**, James, or James *Du Bois*, a celebrated French anatomist and physician, the son of Nicholas Du Bois, a camblet weaver, born at Amiens, in Picardy, in 1478. He acquired a great knowledge of Greek and Latin, and some Hebrew, under his elder brother Francis SYLVIVS, or *Du Bois*, who was principal of the College of Tournay, at Paris, and a great promoter of learning. James, wrote several works on anatomy, medicine, and pharmacy, which have been often printed, though he was much opposed by his contemporaries. He defended Galen against Vesalius. (See **ANATOMY**, Index.) He was also a good mathematician, and invented several useful machines. His great vice was *avarice*, which prevented him from taking the degree of M. D. though he went to Montpellier in 1520, on purpose; but he was reconciled to his brethren and admitted M. B. in June 1531. He read lectures on Hippocrates and Galen, which spread his fame far and wide. In 1535, he was appointed a professor in the college of Triquet, and in 1548, professor of physic in the Royal College at Paris; which office he retained till his death, in 1555. He was never married.

SYMA, or **SYME**, a town of Asia. *Lemp.*

SYMARD, a town of France, in the department of Saone and Loire; 5 miles N. of Louhans, and 13½ E. of Chalons sur Saone.

(1.) * **SYMBOL**. *n. s.* [*symbole*, Fr. *συμβολον*; *symbolum*, Lat.] 1. An abstract; a compendium; a comprehensive form.—Beginning with the *symbol* of our faith. *Baker*. 2. A type, that which comprehends in its figure a representation of something else.—Salt, as incorruptible, was the *symbol* of friendship. *Brown*.—Words are the signs and *symbols* of things. *South*.—The heathens made choice of these lights as apt *symbols* of eternity. *Addison*.

(2.) A **SYMBOL** is a sign or representation of something moral, by the figures or properties of natural things. Hence symbols are of various kinds; as hieroglyphics, types, enigmas, parables, fables, &c.

* **SYMBOLICAL**. *adj.* [*symbolique*, Fr. *συμβολικος*; from *symbol*.] Representative; typical; expressing by signs; comprehending something more than itself.—By this encroachment idolatry first crept in, men converting the *symbolical* use of idols into their proper worship. *Brown*.—The sacraments

sacrament is a representation of Christ's death, by such *symbolical* actions as himself appointed. *Taylor*.

* **SYMBOLICALLY**. *adv.* [from *symbolical*.] Typically ; by representation.—This distinction of animals was hieroglyphical, in the inward sense implying an abstinence from certain vices, *symbolically* intimated from the nature of those animals. *Brown*.—It *symbolically* teaches us our duty. *Taylor*.

* **SYMBOLIZATION**. *n. s.* [*symbolize*.] The act of symbolizing ; representation ; resemblance.—The hieroglyphical symbols of Scripture are oftentimes racked beyond their *symbolization*. *Brown*.

(1.) * **To SYMBOLIZE**. *v. a.* To make representative of something.—Some *symbolize* the same from the mystery of its colours. *Brown*.

(2.) * **To SYMBOLIZE**. *v. n.* [*symboliser*, Fr. from *symbol*.] To have something in common with another by representative qualities.—Our king finding himself to *symbolize* in many things with that king of the Hebrews, honoured him with the title of this foundation. *Bacon*.—The pleasing of colour *symbolizeth* with the pleasing of any single tone to the ear ; but the pleasing of order doth *symbolize* with harmony. *Bacon*.—Aristotle and the schools have taught, that air and water, being *symbolizing* elements, are easily transmutable. *Boyle*.—They both *symbolize* in this, that they love to look upon themselves through multiplying glasses. *Houel*.—I affectedly *symbolized* in careless mirth and freedom with the libertines, to circumvent libertinism. *More*.—The soul is such, that it strangely *symbolizes* with the thing it mightily desires. *South*.

SYMBOLUM, an ancient town of Macedonia, near Philippi ; on the borders of Thrace. *Lempr*.

SYME. See **SYMA**.

SYMI, or **SIMI**. See **SIMI**.

(1.) **SYMINGTON**, or **SYMONTON**, a parish of Scotland in Ayrshire, in the district of Kyle, above 4 miles long, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. The surface consists of a beautiful landscape of gently rising grounds, and sloping fields ; with numerous inclosures, elegant gentlemen's seats, and clumps of planting. The soil is clay or rich black loam on a free-stone bottom. The parish comprehends 2,100 acres, of which above 1100 are cultivated, and 500 more susceptible of it. In 1792, the population was 610 ; increase, 251 since 1755. On the SW. border, the parish is ornamented with the elegant house of *Rosemount*, the seat of Wm Fullarton, Esq. and its extensive plantations.

(2.) **SYMINGTON**, a village in the above parish, pleasantly seated on the great road from Edinburgh and Glasgow to Portpatrick ; containing 204 inhabitants, in 1792.

(3.) **SYMINGTON**, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, of a circular figure, 3 miles in diameter. The surface is mostly level, sloping from the foot of the hill of **TINTO** to the Clyde. The greater part of it is well cultivated and inclosed ; and produces good crops. The population, in 1792, was 307 ; the increase 43, since 1755.

(4.) **SYMINGTON**, a village in the above parish, (N^o 3.) seated on the Clyde, 30 miles from Edinburgh and 33 from Glasgow. Near it are relics of an ancient strong fortification, called *Coslie Hill*.

SYMITHUS. See **SIMETHUS**.

(1.) **SYMMACHUS**, a writer who flourished in the 4th century, and translated the Hebrew Bible into Greek. Only a few fragments of his work are extant.

(2.) **SYMMACHUS**, a senator, and orator, of Rome, who was consul A. D. 391. He wrote *Ten Books of Epistles, against the Christian Religion* ; which are extant, and have been refuted by Ambrose, Bp. of Milan, and Prudentius, the Christian Poet. He was banished from Rome by Valentinian, but recalled and received into favour by Theodosius. Ammianus Marcellinus speaks of him as a man of great learning and modesty. Scioppius, Pareus, and other learned men, have written notes upon his epistles. The best editions are those of Geneva, 8vo, 1598 ; Paris, 4to, 1604 ; and Frankfurt, 8vo, 1642.

* **SYMMETRIAN**. *n. s.* [from *symmetry*.] One eminently studious of proportion.—His face was a thought longer than the exact *symmetrians* would allow. *Sidney*.

* **SYMMETRICAL**. *adj.* [from *symmetry*.] Proportionate ; having parts well adapted to each other.

* **SYMMETRIST**. *n. s.* [from *symmetry*.] One very studious or observant of proportion.—Some exact *symmetrists* have been blamed for being too true. *Wotton*.

(1.) * **SYMMETRY**. *n. s.* [*symmetrie*, French ; *εὐ and μέγεθος*.] Adaptation of parts to each other ; proportion ; harmony ; agreement of one part to another.—

She by whose lines proportion should be

Examind, measure of all *symmetry*. *Donne*.

And in the *symmetry* of her parts is found

A pow'r, like that of harmony in sound. *Waller*.—*Symmetry*, equality, and correspondence of parts, is the discernment of reason. *More*.—Their measure and *symmetry* were owing to him. *Dryd*.

(2.) **SYMMETRY** is the just proportion of the several parts of any thing, so as to compose a beautiful whole.

(3.) **SYMMETRY**, in painting. See **PAINTING**, Part I. *Set* III.

SYMONDSBOROUGH, a remarkable large burrow of Flintshire, near Wellington in Devonshire, in the northern extremity of Hemyock. The people have a notion that a king called *Symon* was buried here.

SYMONTON. See **SYMINGTON**, N^o 1.

SYMPATHANT. *n. s.* [from *sympathy*.] One who is sympathized with by a friend. See **SYMPATHY**, § 3.

(1.) **SYMPATHETIC**. See **SYMPATHETICAL**.

(2.) **SYMPATHETIC INK**. (See **INK**, § 13.) A new Sympathetic Ink has been made from a solution of a mixture of sulphat of copper and muriat of ammonia, which appears of a bright yellow, when exposed to heat, but disappears with cold or moisture.

* **SYMPATHETICAL**. *SYMPATHETIC*. *adj.* [*sympathetique*, French, from *sympathy*.] Having mutual sensation ; being affected by what happens to another ; feeling in consequence of what another feels.—Hereupon are grounded the gross mistakes in the cure of diseases, not only from *sympathetic* receipts, but amulets, charms, and all incantatory applications. *Brown*.

United

United by this *sympathetick* bond,
 You grow familiar, intimate, and fond. *Rosc.*
 —To confer at the distance of the Indies by
sympathetick conveyances may be as usual to fu-
 ture times as to us in a literary correspondence.
Glanville.—

Your *sympathetick* hearts she hopes to move,
 From tender friendship. *Prior.*
 —All the ideas of sensible qualities are the effects
 of their motion upon our nerves, and *sympathe-*
tical and vital passions produced within ourselves.
Bentley.

* *SYMPATHETICALLY.* *adv.* [from *sympa-*
thetick.] With sympathy; in consequence of sym-
 pathy.

* *SYMPATHETICK.* *Sec* *SYMPATHETICAL.*

* To *SYMPATHIZE.* *v. n.* [*sympathiser*, *Fr.*
 from *sympathy*.] 1. To feel with another; to feel
 in consequence of what another feels; to feel
 mutually.—The men *sympathize* with the mastiffs
 in robustions coming on. *Shak.*—

As rous'd with rage, with rage doth *sympa-*
thize. *Shak.*

Nature in awe to him
 Hath doff'd her gaudy trim,
 With her great master to *sympathize*. *Milton.*
 —He *sympathizes*, and is concerned for them.
Locke.—Their countrymen *sympathized* with their
 heroes in all their adventures. *Addison.*—None
 condole and *sympathize* more heartily. *Collier.* 2.
 To agree; to fit. Not proper.—Blue and yellow
 are two colours which *sympathize*. *Dryden.*

SYMPATHIZER. *n. s.* [from *sympathize*.] One
 who *sympathizes* with another.

(1.) * *SYMPATHY.* *n. s.* [*sympathie*, French;
συμπάθεια.] Fellow feeling; mutual sensibility;
 the quality of being affected by the affection of
 another.—

A world of earthly blessings to my soul,
 If *sympathy* of love unite our thoughts. *Shak.*
 —You are not young; no more am I; go to then,
 there's *sympathy*: you are merry, so am I; ha!
 ha! then there's more *sympathy*: you love sack,
 and so do I; would you desire better *sympathy*?
Shak.—

The action of my life is like it, which I'll keep.
 If but for *sympathy*. *Shak.*

I started back;
 It started back: but pleas'd I soon return'd;
 Pleas'd it return'd as soon with answering looks
 Of *sympathy* and love. *Milton.*

They saw, but other sight instead, a crowd
 Of ugly serpents: horror on them fell,
 And horrid *sympathy*. *Milton.*

Or *sympathy*, or some connatural force. *Mil.*
 —Every man would be a distinct species to him-
 self, were there no *sympathy* among individuals.
South.—

Kindness by secret *sympathy* is tied. *Dryden.*
 —To this might be attributed most of the *sympa-*
thies and antipathies observable. *Lacke.*

(2.) *SYMPATHY*, also signifies an agreement of af-
 fections and inclinations, or a conformity of natural
 qualities, humours, temperaments, which make
 two persons delighted and pleased with each other.

(3.) *SYMPATHY* may subsist either between dif-
 ferent persons, or between different parts
 of the same body. It is either *similar* or *dissimilar*.

similar, when the affection or action in the *SYM-*
PATHIZER is similar to the affection or action in
 the *SYMPATHANT*; and dissimilar, when those are
 different.—Sympathy, too, is often an imitative
 faculty, sometimes involuntary, frequently without
 consciousness: thus we yawn when we see others
 yawn, and are excited to laugh by the laughing
 of others. Sympathy, according to Dr Jackson
 relates to the operations of the affections of the
 mind, to the operations of the imagination, and
 to the affections of the external senses. 1. The
 affections of the mind produce in the body differ-
 ent sensations and impressions, and, as sympathies
 of consciousness, determine in general the spirits
 to those parts which are most apt to be affected.
 The affections of the mind of one person will
 often work upon the spirits of many. Thus whole
 companies are sometimes disposed to be sad and
 melancholy, or merry and jovial, when any one
 present is much inclined to either of those states
 of mind. Those tender sympathetic affections
 which lay hold of the mind at the representation
 of theatrical performances originate from the
 same principle, while they are the surest test of
 just execution in the actor, and of the expressive
 language of the author. Indeed all stage effect
 depends on sympathy. 2. It is probable that a
 connexion between the affections and sensations
 of the female mind and uterus is very materially
 concerned in the process of generation, and pro-
 bably can alone give efficacy to those actions and
 impressions subservient to conception through the
 sympathizing affections of the mind. But this is
 a subject of which we as yet know little; though
 the facts are numerous and incontrovertible; but
 physiologists seem unwilling to admit of them
 because they cannot account for them. See
NAVUS and *NAVI MATERNI*, under *SURGERY*.
Index. 3. As affecting the senses, sympathies have
 been compared to unions of sound in music, which
 produce agreeable sympathetic feelings; and the
 reverse produces disagreeable feelings. "All con-
 cords and discords of music are sympathies and
 antipathies of sound." A disagreeable sound will
 often set the teeth on edge. The most agreeable,
 as well as odious objects operate in a secondary
 way in producing those sympathetic impressions
 and actions which they commonly give rise to.
 An increased secretion of saliva often takes place
 at the sight of a favourite dish. Many have at-
 tempted to account for the remarkable sympathy
 which takes place between parts of the body
 seemingly unconnected with each other; but
 these attempts are merely conjectures.

SYMPHONIA, in botany, a genus of plants
 belonging to the class of *monadelphia* and order of
pentandria.—There is one pistil. The corolla is
 globular, and the berry five-celled. There is only
 one species yet discovered, viz.

* *SYMPHONIA GLOBULIFERA.*

* *SYMPHONIOUS.* *adj.* [from *symphony*.]
 Harmonious; agreeing in sound.—

Follow'd with acclamation and the sound
 Of *Symphonious* of ten thousand harps. *Milton.*

(1.) * *SYMPHONY.* *n. s.* [*symphonie*, French
συμφωνία, and *sym*.] Concert of instruments; harmony
 of mingled sounds.—A learned searcher from Py-
 thagoras?

thagoras's school, determines the comeliest proportion between breadths and heights, reducing symmetry to *symphony*. *Wotton*.

Angels! for ye behold him, and with songs
And choral *symphonies* day without night,
Circle his throne rejoicing. *Milton*.

The trumpets found,

And warlike *symphony* is heard around. *Dryd*.

(1.) *SYMPHONY*, in music, denotes a conformance of several sounds agreeable to the ear, whether vocal or instrumental. See *HARMONY*.

(1.) * *SYMPHYSIS*, *n. s.* [*συμφυσις* and *συμφυσις*.] *Symphysis* in its original signification, denotes a connascency, or growing together; and perhaps is meant of those bones which in young children are distinct, but after some years unite and consolidate into one bone. *Wiseman*.

(2.) *SYMPHYSIS*, in anatomy, one of the kinds of junctures or articulations of the bones. See *ANATOMY*, *Index*.

(3.) *SYMPHYSIS PUBIS*, SECTION OF THE. See *MIDWIFERY*, *Part II.* *SECT. IX.*

SYMPHYTUM, *COMFREY*, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system, ranging under the 41st order, *asperifolia*. The limb of the corolla is tubular and ventricose, and the throat is shut with awl-shaped rays. There are 3 species; of which

SYMPHYTUM OFFICINALE is a British plant. The stem is about two feet high, round, branched, green, and rough. The radical leaves are very large and rough; those on the stalks are decurrent, and alternate. The flowers grow on loose spikes, and are either of a yellowish or purple colour. It grows on the banks of rivers and flowers from May to October.

SYMPLEGADES, or *Cyanea*, 2 rugged islands at the entrance of the Euxine sea; 20 stadia from the mouth of the Thracian Bosphorus: the one on the coast of Asia, and the other on that of Europe; separated by only 20 furlongs of water, which however foams and rages constantly, so as to render the passage very dangerous. They were first explored by the Argonauts. They were also called *Planete*, or *Wanderers*, from a mistaken idea, that they moved or floated. *Plin.* vi. c. 12.

SYMPLOCE, *n. s.* [*συμπλοκε*], in rhetoric, a figure, where the same word is repeated. See *ORATORY*, § 213.

SYMPLOCOS, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polydelphia*, and to the order of *polyandria*; and in the natural system ranging under those the order of which is doubtful. The calyx is quinquefid and inferior: the corolla is pentapetalous: the stamens are attached to the tube of the corolla in a fourfold series. There are 5 species; viz.

1. *SYMPLOCOS ALSTONIA*; } are described
2. *SYMPLOCOS ARECHEA*; and } by Mr L'
3. *SYMPLOCOS CISPONIMA*; } Heritier of

the Academy of Sciences at Paris.

4. *SYMPLOCOS MARTINICENSIS*, the only species described by Linnaeus, is a native of Martinico.

5. *SYMPLOCOS TINCTORIA*, a plant used by dyers, is also mentioned by L' Heritier.

* *SYMPOSIACK*, *adj.* [*συμπόσιαι*, French; *symposiack*.] Relating to merry-makings; hap-

pening where company is drinking together.—By desiring a secrecy to words spoken under the rose, we only mean in society and comotation, from the ancient custom of *symposiack* meetings to wear chaplets of roses about their heads. *Brown*.—In some of those *symposiack* disputations amongst my acquaintance, I affirmed that the dietetick part of medicine depended upon scientifick principles. *Arbutnot*.

SYMPOSIARCH, *n. s.* [from *Συμμετρις*, a banquet, and *αρχων*, governor,] in antiquity, the director or manager of an entertainment. This office was sometimes performed by the person at whose charge the entertainment was provided; sometimes by another named by him; and at other times, especially in entertainments provided at the common expence, he was elected by lot, or by the suffrages of the guests.

(1.) * *SYMPTOM*, *n. s.* [*symptome*, French; *συμπτωμα*.] 1. Something that happens concurrently with something else, not as the original cause, nor as the necessary or constant effect.—The symptoms are often nothing but the principles or seeds of a growing but unripe gout. *Blackmore*. 2. A sign; a token.—Ten glorious campaigns are passed, and now, like the sick man, we are expiring with all sorts of good symptoms. *Swift*.

(2.) *SYMPTOM*, in medicine, means any circumstance which indicates the existence, nature, or stage of a disease. Pain, weakness, drowsiness, convulsions, suppression of urine, difficulties of breathing and swallowing, coughs, distastes, nausea, thirst, swoonings, faintings, looseness, costiveness, dryness and blackness of the tongue, are the principal symptoms of diseases. See *MEDICINE*, *Ind*.

* *SYMPTOMATICALLY*, *adj.* [from *symptomatical*.] In the nature of a symptom.—The causes of a bubo are vicious humours in the blood, or nerves excreted sometimes critically, sometimes *symptomatically*. *Wiseman*.

* *SYMPTOMATICAL*, } *adj.* [*symptomatique*,
* *SYMPTOMATICK*, } French; from *symptom*.] Happening concurrently or occasionally.—*Symptomatical* is often used to denote the difference between the primary and secondary causes of diseases; as a fever from pain is said to be *symptomatical*, because it arises from pain only. *Quincy*.—The fever, appearing but *symptomatical*, lessened as the heat and pain mitigated. *Wiseman*.

SYMUS, a mountain of Armenia, from which the *ARAXES* rises.

SYNERESIS, for *CRASIS*, CONTRACTION, in grammar, a figure whereby two syllables are united in one; as *veniens*, for *vehiemens*, *opps* for *opiac*, *ruix* for *ruixis*, &c.

* *SYNAGOGICAL*, *adj.* [from *synagogue*.] Pertaining to a synagogue.

(1.) * *SYNAGOGUE*, *n. s.* [*synagogue*, French; *συναγωγή*.] An assembly of the Jews to worship.—Go, Tubal, and meet me at our *synagogue*. *Shak*.—He went into the *synagogue* on the sabbath. *Gospel*.

(2.) *SYNAGOGUE*, among the Jews, was a place where people met to worship. Authors are not agreed about the time when the Jews first began to have synagogues:—Some will have them as old as the Ceremonial Law, and others fix their beginning

ginning to the times after the Babylonish captivity. They erected synagogues not only in towns and cities, but also in the country, especially near rivers that they might have water for their purifications and ceremonious washings. No synagogue was built in any town, unless there were ten persons of leisure in it; but there might be many in one town, or in one quarter of a town, provided it was very populous. Jerusalem is said to have contained 480. The chief things belonging to a synagogue were, 1. The ark or chest, made after the model of the ark of the covenant, containing the *Pentateuch*. 2. The pulpit and desk in the middle of the synagogue, in which he that was to read or expound the law stood. 3. The seats or pews for the people. 4. The lamps to give light at evening service, and the feast of dedication. 5. Rooms or apartments for the utensils and alm-chests. The synagogue was governed by a council or assembly, over whom was a president, called, *The ruler of the synagogue*. There are sometimes called *Chiefs of the Jews, The Rulers, The Priests or Elders, The Governors, The Overseers, The fathers of the Synagogue*. Their business was to punish the disobedient by censures, excommunication, or penalties, such as fines and scourging; to take care of the alms, which are frequently called by the name of righteousness. The chief ruler, or one of the rulers, gave leave to have the law read and expounded, and appointed who should do it. In every synagogue, there were several ministers who had different offices assigned to them. Service was performed three times a-day, viz. in the morning, in the afternoon, and at night; at the time of morning sacrifice, evening sacrifice, and after the evening sacrifice on Mondays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, there was a more forcible obligation upon the people to attend, than upon the other days. There are synagogues at London, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Avignon, Metz, &c.

SYNAGOOAN, a town of Walachia, with a famous abbey: 12 miles N. of Bucharest.

(1.) * **SYNALEPHA**, *n. s.* [*συναληψια*.] A contraction or excision of a syllable in a Latin verse, by joining together two vowels in the scanning, or cutting off the ending vowel; as, *ill' ego*.—Virgil, though smooth, frequently uses *synalephas*, and concludes his sense in the middle of his verse. *Dryden*.

(2.) **SYNALEPHA**, or } in grammar, or *Collisio*, a **SYNALEPHA**, } contraction of syllables, performed principally, by suppressing some vowel or diphthong at the end of a word, on account of another vowel or diphthong at the beginning of the next, As *ill' ego* for *ille ego*, &c.

Conticuer' omnes intentique ora tenebant. Virgil.

(1.) * **SYNARTHROSIS**. *n. s.* [*συν and αρθρωσις*.] A close conjunction of two bones.—There is a conspicuous motion where the conjunction is called *diarthrosis*, as in the elbow; an obscure one, where the conjunction is called *synarthrosis*, as in the joining of the carpus to the metacarpus. *Wiseman*.

(2.) **SYNARTHROSIS**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

SYNBORG, a pleasant town of Denmark, in the isle of Funen; with a large and commodious harbour.

(1.) **SYNCELLUS**, an ancient Byzantine historian, of whom we have met with no memoir; which is the more surprising, that his works are still extant, and were published at Paris in folio, in 1652.

(2.) **SYNCELLUS**, or **SINCELLUS**, an ancient officer in the family of the patriarchs, and other prelates of the eastern church. The word, in the corrupt Greek, *συγκελλος*, signifies a person who lies in the chamber with another; a *chamber-fellow*, or *cham*. The *syncellus* was an ecclesiastic, who lived with the patriarch of Constantinople, to be a witness of his conduct; whence it is, that the *syncellus* was also called the *patriarch's eye*; because his business was to observe and watch. The other prelates had also their *syncelli*, who were clerks living in the house with them, and even lying in the same chamber, to be witnesses of the purity of their manners. Afterwards the office degenerated into a mere dignity; and there were made *syncelli* of churches. At last it became a title of honour, and was bestowed by the emperor on the prelates themselves; whom they called *pontificales syncelli*, and *syncelli Augustales*.

SYNCERUS, *Adrius*. See **NAME**, § 2; and **SANNAZARIUS**, where *Syncerus* is erroneously printed *Cincerus*.

(1.) * **SYNCHONDROSIS**. *n. s.* [*συν and χονδρος*.]—*Synchondrosis* is an union by gristles of the sternum to the ribs. *Wiseman*.

(2.) **SYNCHONDROSIS**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

* **SYNCHRONICAL**. *adj.* [*συν and χρονος*.] Happening together at the same time.—It is difficult to make out how the air is conveyed into the left ventricle of the heart, the systole and diastole of the heart and lungs being far from *synchronical*. *Boyle*.

(1.) * **SYNCHRONISM**. *n. s.* [*συν and χρονος*.] Concurrence of events happening at the same time.—The coherence and *synchronism* of all the parts of the Mosical chronology, alter the flood, bear a most regular testimony to the truth of his history. *Hale*.

(2.) **SYNCHRONISM**. See **CHRONOLOGY**.

* **SYNCHRONOUS**. *adj.* [*συν and χρονος*.] Happening at the same time.—The variations of the gravity of the air keep both the solids and fluids in an oscillatory motion, *synchronous* and proportional to their changes. *Arbutnot*.

SYNCHYSIS. *n. s.* in Latin prosody, that confused and intricate order of the words, which is so frequently used by the best Latin poets, and is commonly called the *artificial order*: as *Saxa vocant Itali mediis quæ in fluctibus Aras*, Virgil.

SYNCOPE. *n. s.* in music, denotes a striking or beating of time, whereby the distinction of the several times or parts of the measure is interrupted. However, it is more properly used for the connecting the last note of any measure, or bar, with the first of the following measure, so as only to make one note of both. A *syncope* is sometimes also made in the middle of a measure. *Syncope* is also used when a note of one part ends or terminates on the middle of a note of the other part. This is otherwise denominated *binding*. It is likewise used for a driving note; that is, when some shorter note at the beginning of a measure,

or half measure, is followed by two, three, or more longer notes before another short note occurs, equal to that which occasioned the driving, to make the number even, *e. gr.* when an odd crotchet comes before 2 or 3 minims, or an odd quaver before 2, 3, or more crotchets. In syncopated or driving notes, the hand or foot is taken up, or put down, while the note is sounding.

(1.) ***SYNCOPE.** *n. s.* [*syncope*, Fr.; *συνκοπή*] *f.* Fainting fit.—The symptoms attending gunshot wounds are pain, fever, delirium, and *syncope*. *Freeman.* 2. Contraction of a word by cutting off part in the middle.

(2.) **SYNCOPE**, in grammar, an elision or retrenchment of a letter or syllable out of the middle of a word, as *caldas* for *calidus*.

(3.) **SYNCOPE**, in medicine, **FAINTING**; a deep and sudden swooning, wherein the patient continues without any sensible heat, motion, sense, or respiration, and is seized with a cold sweat over the whole body; all the parts, in the mean time, turning pale and cold, as if he were dead. See *Medicine, Index*.

***SYNCOPIST.** *n. s.* [from *syncope*.] Contraction of words.—To outline all the modern *synopses*, and thoroughly content my English readers, I intend to publish a *Speculator* that shall not have a single vowel in it. *Spec.*

SYNDELEDFOIERD, a gulf in the North Sea, on the coast of Norway: 40 miles NNW. of Christianland.

SYNDER HEAD, a cape of Denmark, on the E. coast of Sleswick. Lon. 9. 39. E. Lat. 55. 11. N.

SYNDIC, *n. s.* in government and commerce, an officer in divers countries, intrusted with the affairs of a city or other community, who calls meetings, makes representations and solicitations to the ministry, magistracy, &c. according to the urgency of the case.

* To **SYNDICATE.** *v. n.* [*syndiquer*, French; *syndicare* and *syndicare*.] To judge; to pass judgment on; to condemn. An unusual word. Not in use.—Aristotle undertook to censure and *syndicate* his master, *Hakewill*.

***SYNDROME.** *n. s.* [*syndromos*.] Concurrent action; concurrence.—All things being linked together by an uninterrupted chain of causes, every single motion owns a dependence on such a *syndrome* of prerequisite motions. *Glarville*.

(1.) ***SYNEDOCHE.** *n. s.* [*synedochē*, French; *synecdoche*.] A figure by which a part is taken for the whole, or the whole for a part.—The whole work is attributed to them by a *synedochē*; that is, they do in this manner the work for which God ordained them. *Taylor*.

(2.) **SYNEDOCHE.** See **ORATOR** § 175—181.

***SYNEDOCHEAL.** *adj.* [from *synedochē*.] Expressed by *synedochē*: implying a *synedochē*. Should I bring you into hospitals, and show you many souls, narrowly lodged in *synedochical* bodies, see their cottages moulder away to dust, by the loss of one limb after another, surviving but part of themselves, and living to see themselves sold and buried by piecemeal. *Boyle*.

SYNCHONESIS. *n. s.* in grammar, a coalition, whereby two syllables are pronounced as one; being much the same as **SYNALOUPHA** and **SYNCHONESIS**.

AXII. PART I.

SYNESIS. *n. s.* in Latin grammar, a figure whereby the construction of a sentence is regulated not by the words, but by the sense, as to gender or number: as, in Livy, *Latium Capuamque agro multati*; instead of *Latini et Capuani*.

SYNESIUS, a celebrated father of the Christian church, who flourished under Theodosius II. He was born at Cyrene, in Africa, of noble parentage. In 410, he was appointed bishop of Ptolemais. His works consist of 155 *Epistles*, and some other curious tracts, written in very pure and elegant Greek. The best editions are those of Paris, in 8vo 1605; folio, 1612, and 1633; and Amsterdam, 1749.

SYNEUROISIS. See **ANATOMY, Index**; and **SYNEUROISIS**.

SYNGE, Edward, a late eminent prelate of Ireland, was the son of Dr Edward Synge, bishop of Cork, and born April 6, 1659, at Inishonane. He was educated at Cork; admitted Commoner, and A. B. at Christ-Church, Oxford; and finished his studies at Dublin. He was made vicar at Christ-Church, in Cork, and after other promotions rose to be bishop of Raphoe, in 1714; and at last in 1716, archbishop of Tuam, being a zealous whig. He wrote and published many excellent tracts on divinity, in 4 vols 12mo; and died at Tuam, in 1741.

SYNGENESIA. [*syn* and *genesis*, congeneration.] The 19th class in Linnæus's artificial system; comprehending those plants which have the anthers united into a cylinder. The orders are six: 1. Polygamia æqualis. 2. Polygamia superflua. 3. Polygamia frustranea. 4. Polygamia necessaria. 5. Polygamia segregata. 6. Monogamia. The five first orders contain the compound flowers, and forms a class truly natural. See **BOTANY, Index**.

SYNGNATHUS, in ichthyology, **PIPE-FISH**, according to Linnæus, a genus belonging to the class of *amphibia*, and order of *nantes*, but arranged by Gmelin more properly under the class of *pisces*, and order of *branchiostegi*. The head is small; the rostrum somewhat cylindrical, long, and turned up at the point, where the mouth is placed, which is covered with a lid or valve. The gills are covered in the same manner. The body is covered with a strong crust, and has no ventral fins. There were formerly enumerated 8 species. Of these, 3 are found in the British seas, *viz.* N^o 1, 3, and 5.

1. **SYNGNATHUS ACUS**, the **NEEDLE FISH**, or *shorter pipe fish*, is thicker than the **BARBARUS**, (N^o 3.) yet it has been seen of the length of 16 inches. The middle of the body in some is hexangular, in others heptangular. The mouth is formed like that of the *barbarus*, the irides are yellow; close behind the head are the pectoral fins, which are small and short. On the lower part of the back is one narrow fin; beyond the vent the tail commences, which is long and quadrangular. At the extremity is a fin round and radiated. The body is covered with a strong crust, elegantly divided into small compartments. The belly is white; the other parts are brown.

2. **SYNGNATHUS ÆQUORUS.** See N^o 6.

3. **SYNGNATHUS BARBARUS**, or *longer pipe fish*. One described by Sir Robert Sibbald was two feet in length; that examined by Mr Pennant only 16 inches. The ucle was an inch long, compressed

I. sidewise,

sidewise, and the end of the lower mandible turned up; the aperture of the mouth was very small. The sides were red; behind each ear was a deep brown line. The body, in the thickest part, was equal to a swan's quill, hexangular from the end of the dorsal fin; from thence to the tail, quadrangular. The belly was slightly carinated, and marked along the middle with a dusky line. Under the tail, commencing at the anus, is a falcus or groove, $\frac{6}{16}$ inches long, covered by two longitudinal valves, which conceal a multitude of young fish. On crossing this part, hundreds may be observed to crawl out.

4. *SYNGNATHUS HIPPOCAMPUS*, the *sea-horse*, which was classed by Aristotle under the *Syngnathus*, is now, by later ichthyologists, arranged under *TRICHECHUS*; which see.

5. *SYNGNATHUS GRUNIDON*, or *little pipe fish*, seldom exceeds 3 inches in length, is very slender, and tapers to a point. It wants both the dorsal and tail fins; is covered with a smooth skin, not with a crust. The nose is short, and turns a little up; the eyes are prominent. On the back is one narrow fin. This species is not viviparous: on the belly of the female is a long hollow, to which adhere the eggs in two or three rows. They are large, and not numerous. *Serpent* is used in several languages to express these fish: the French call one species *crucal*, from a sort of snake, like the blindworm; the Germans call it *müherchlang*; and the Cornish the *sa-adder*.

6. *SYNGNATHUS PELAGICUS*, } are all na-

7. *SYNGNATHUS TETRAGONUS*, } tives of fo-

8. *SYNGNATHUS TYPHELE*, and } reign coun-

SYNGNATHUS AEQUOREUS, } tries.

SYN-MU, or *SIN-NOO*. See *DELUGE*, N° 5.

SYNNADA, *plur.* or } an ancient town of Phry-

SYNNAS, *frag.* } gia, famous for marble

quarries. *Strab.* 12. *Claud.*

(1.) * *SYNNEUROSIS*. *n. s.* [*syn* and *neurosis*.] *Synneurosis* is when the connexion is made by a ligament.—Of this in *synchysis* we find instances, in the connexion of the ossa pubis together, especially in women, by a ligamentous substance. In articulation, it is either round, as that which unites the head of the os femoris to the coxa; or broad, as the tendon of the patella, which unites it to the os tibiae. *Wigeman*.

(2.) *SYNNEUROSIS*. See *ANATOMY*, *Index*, at *SYNEUROSIS*.

SYNOCHA, and } in medicine, two species of

SYNOCHUS, } continued fever. See *ME-*

DICINE, *Index*.

(1.) * *SYNOD*. *n. s.* [*synod*, French; *convocat.*]

1. An assembly called for consultation: it is used particularly of ecclesiastics. A provincial *synod* is commonly used, and a general council.—The glorious gods sit in hourly *synod* about thy particular prosperity. *Shak.*

It hath in solemn *synod* been decreed,

'T admit no traffic to our adverse towns. *Shak.*

—The opinion was not only condemned by the *synod*, but imputed to the emperor as extreme madness. *Bacon.*

Flea-bitten *synod*, an assembly brew'd

Of clerks and clergymen. *Cleveland.*

—His royal majesty, according to these presby-

terian rules, shall have no power to command his clergy to keep a national *synod*. *White.*

Well have ye judg'd, well ended long debate

Synod of gods! *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

Let us call to *synod* all the blest. *Milton.*

—The second council of Nice, he saith, I must irreverently call that wise *synod*. *Stillingfleet.*

You bright *synod* of the powers above! *Dryden.*

2. Conjunction of the heavenly bodies.—

Howe'er love's native hours are set,

Whatever starry *synod* met,

'Tis in the mercy of her eye,

If poor love shall live or die. *Crahaas.*

Their planetary motions and aspects

In *synod* unbend. *Milton.*

—The planets and stars have, according to astrologers, in their great *synods* or conjunctions, much more powerful influences on the air than ascribed to one or two of them out of that aspect. *Boyle.*

(2.) *SYNOD*, in astronomy, a conjunction or concourse of two or more stars or planets, in the same optical plane of the heavens.

(3.) *SYNOD* signifies also a meeting of ecclesiastical persons to consult on matters of religion.—Of these there are four kinds, viz. 1. *General* or *ecumenical*, where bishops, &c. meet from all nations. These were first called by the emperors, afterwards by Christian princes; till in later ages the pope usurped to himself the greatest share in this business, and by his legates presided in them when called. 2. *National*, where those of one nation only come together, to determine any point of doctrine or discipline. The first of this sort held in England was that of Herford or Hertfort, in 673; and the last was held by cardinal Pole in 1555. 3. *Provincial*, where those only of one province meet, now called the *convocation*. 4. *Diocesan*, where those but of one diocese meet, to enforce canons made by general councils, or national and provincial *synods*, and to consult upon rules of discipline for themselves. These were not wholly laid aside, till, by the act of submission 25 Hen. VIII. c. 19. it was made unlawful for any *synod* to meet but by royal authority. See *COUNCIL* and *CONVOCACTION*.

(4.) *SYNODS*, *PROVINCIAL*, in the government of the church of Scotland. See *PRESBYTERIANISM*.

§ 5.

(1.) * *SYNODAL*. *SYNODICAL*. *SYNODICK*. *ad.* [*synodique*, French, from *synod*.] 1. Relating to *synod*; transacted in a *synod*.—The various dignity of their several churches, and of their manners in them, by the frequency of their *synodical* and professional meetings, have necessarily raised many questions of place among them. *Selden.*—St Athanasius writes a *synodical* epistle to those of Antioch. *Stillingfleet*. 2. [*Synodique*, French] Reckoned from one conjunction with the sun to another.—The *synodick* revolution of the moon measures the month. *Holder*.—The moon makes its *synodical* motion about the earth in 29 days, 12 hours, and about 44 minutes. *Locke*.

(2.) * *SYNODAL*. *n. s.* [from *synod*.] Money paid annually to the bishop, &c. at Easter visitation.

(3.) *SYNODALS*, or *SYNODIES*, were pecuniary rents (commonly of two shillings) paid to the bishop or archdeacon at the time of their Easter visitation.

visitation, by every parish priest. They were thus called, because usually paid in synods; as anciently bishops used to visit and hold their diocesan synods once. They are sometimes also denominated *synodical*; but more especially, *procurations*.

(1.) * **SYNODICAL**. See **SYNODAL**, § 1.

(2.) **SYNODICAL EPISTLES** are circular letters written by the synods to the absent prelates and churches; or even those general ones directed to all the faithful, to inform them of what had passed in the synod.

* **SYNODICALLY**. *adv.* [from *synodical*.] By the authority of a synod or public assembly.—It shall be needful for those churches *synodically* to determine those points. *Saunderson*.—The alterations made by the commissioners were brought to the convocation, where they were *synodically* agreed upon. *Nelson*.

* **SYNODICK**. See **SYNODAL**.

SYNODIES. See **SYNODAL**, § 3.

SYNOECI, and **PERIOECI**. See **GEOGRAPHY**, **§§. VIII.**

SYNOECIA, in Grecian antiquity, a feast celebrated at Athens in memory of Theseus's having united all the petty communities of Attica into one single commonwealth; the feast whereof was at Athens, where all the assemblies were to be held. This feast was dedicated to Minerva; and, according to the scholiast on Thucydides, it was held in the month *Metagitnion*.

* **SYNONYMA**. *n. f.* [Latin; *synonyma*.] Names which signify the same thing.

SYNONYME. *n. f.* [*synonyme*, Fr.] A synonymous word.

* **To SYNONYMISE**. *v. a.* [from *synonyma*.] To express the same thing in different words.—This word fortis we may *synonymise* after all these fashions, stout, hardy, valiant, doughty, courageous, adventurous, brave, bold, daring, intrepid. *Camden*.

SYNONYMI. *n. f.* [from *synonyma*.] In botany, a writer who collects the different names of the same plants, as described by different authors. *A. B.*

(1.) * **SYNONYMOUS**. *adj.* [*synonyme*, Fr. *synonymes*.] Expressing the same thing by different words.—When two or more words signify the same thing, as wave and billow, mead and meadow, they are usually called *synonymous* words. *Watts*.—Wisdom and understanding are *synonymous* words here. *Tillotson*.—Fortune is but a *synonymous* word with nature and necessity. *Bentley*.

(2.) **SYNONYMOUS WORDS**. Several works have been composed for the express purpose of explaining synonymous words. Dr Hall's is the latest work on Latin synonyms. We know none of high character in our own language.

* **SYNONYMOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *synonymous*.] In a synonymous manner; in the same or nearly a similar sense.

* **SYNONYMY**. *n. s.* [*synonymia*.] The quality of expressing by different words the same thing.

SYNOPE. See **SYNOPE**, N° 1. and 2.

SYNOPLÉ. See **SYNOPLÉ**.

* **SYNOPSIS**. *n. s.* [*synopsis*.] A general view; all the parts brought under one view.

* **SYNOPTICAL**. *adj.* [from *synopsis*.] Affording a view of many parts at once.—We have

collected so many *synoptical* tables, calculated for his monthly use. *Evelyn*.

SYNOVIA, *n. s.* in anatomy, a term first used by Paracelsus and his school for the nutritious juice proper and peculiar to each part; as the synovia of the joints, &c. See **ANATOMY**, *Index §* **PHYSIOLOGY**, *§§. VI.*; and **SINOVIA**.

SYNOVIAL GLANDS. See **ANATOMY**, § 112.

* **SYNTACTICAL**. *adj.* [from *syntaxis*, Lat.] 1. Conjoined; fitted to each other. 2. Relating to the construction of speech.

SYNTACTICALLY. *adv.* [from *syntactical*.] In a manner consistent with the rules of syntax.

SYNTAGM, } *n. s.* [*συνταγμα*, Gr. from *syn*,
SYNTAGMA, } with, and *tagma*, to order.] A disposition of things according to order in literature; a regular treatise on any subject.

SYNTESIS, *n. s.* [from *syn*, with, and *teno*, to stretch,] in surgery, a preternatural distension of the parts.

(1.) * **SYNTAX**. **SYNTAXIS**. *n. s.* [*συνταξις*.] 1. A system; a number of things joined together.—They owe no other dependance to the first than what is common to the whole *syntax* of beings. *Glanville*. 2. That part of grammar which teaches the construction of words.—They do not so much as understand common grammar and *syntax*. *Swift*.

(2.) **SYNTAX**, in grammar, the proper construction or due disposition of the words of a language into sentences and phrases. See **GRAMMAR**, under **ENGLISH LANGUAGE**, p. 702.

* **SYNTAXIS**. See **SYNTAX**, § 1.

(1.) * **SYNTHESIS**. *n. s.* [*συνθεσις*.] The act of joining; opposed to *analysis*.—*Synthesis* consists in assuming the causes discovered and established as principles, and by them explaining the phenomena proceeding from them, and proving the explanations. *Newton*.

(2.) **SYNTHESIS**, in logic, denotes a certain branch or method, opposite to *analysis*. In the synthetic method we pursue the truth by reasons drawn from principles before established or assumed, and propositions formerly proved; thus proceeding by a regular chain to the conclusion. Such is the method in Euclid's Elements, and most demonstrations of the ancient mathematicians which proceed from definitions and axioms to prove propositions, &c. and from those propositions proved to prove others. This method we also call *composition*, in opposition to *analysis* or *resolution*. See **ANALYSIS** and **ANALYTIC**.

* **SYNTHETICK**. *adj.* [*συνθετικη*.] Conjoining; compounding; forming composition: opposed to *analytick*.—*Synthetic* method is that which begins with the parts, and leads onwards to the knowledge of the whole: it begins with the most simple principles and general truths, and proceeds by degrees to that which is drawn from them or compounded of them; and therefore it is called the method of composition. *Watts*.

SYPHÆUM, an ancient town of the Brutii, in Italy. (*Liv.* c. 19.) See **MURANUM**.

SYPHAX, king of the Masæyli, in Numidia. For his adventures, see **NUMIDIA**, § 4—7. He married Sophonisba. See **SOPHONISBA**. He died in prison at Rome, A. A. C. 201.

SYPHILIS. See **MEDICINE**, *Index*.

L 2

(1.) * **SYPHON**.

(1.) *SYPHON. *n. s.* [This should be written *siphon*; *super.*] A tube; a pipe.—Take your glass *siphon*, or crane, and draw it off from its last *feces* into small bottles. *Mortimer.*

(2.) SYPHON. See HYDROSTATICS, Part I. *Sec.* XII. and XIII. Some uncommon phenomena in nature may be accounted for upon the principles of the syphon; as for instance, that of reciprocating springs. See PNEUMATICS, *Sec.* I. II. and IV.

(3.) SYPHON, WIRTEMBERG. See PNEUMATICS, *Sec.* IV. page 716. col. 1.

SYPOMBA, an island of S. America, on the coast of Brazil; 21 miles N.E. of St John's Island, and N.W. of a range of islands which form the great bay of PARA.

SYR, or ZUR. See ZUR.

(1.) SYRA, an island in the Grecian Archipelago, anciently called SYROS. It is mountainous, but produces plenty of wheat, barley, vines, figs, olives, and cotton. The air is cool and moist, but temperate and salubrious. The inhabitants are mostly Roman Catholics, with a few Greeks.

(2.) SYRA, the capital of the above island, built on the site of the ancient SYROS, of which it exhibits many relics, in the remains of grand buildings. It is built on a steep mountain, and has a harbour, 12 miles S. of Andros. Lon. 42. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 37. 27. N.

SYRACO, a marsh of Sicily, near SYRACUSE, to which it gave name.

SYRACOSIA, festivals anciently held in Syracuse, for ten days annually, during which the women were chiefly employed in sacrificing. *Syracosa* was also the name of another annual festival, celebrated near the lake where it was supposed that PLUTO had carried off PROSERPINA.

SYRACUSA, *fug.* } ancient names of SYRA-
SYRACUSÆ, *plur.* } CUSE.

SYRACUSAN, *adj.* Of or from Syracuse.

SYRACUSANS, the people of Syracuse.

(1.) SYRACUSE, a celebrated city of Sicily, and the capital of the island. It was built, according to Thucydides and Strabo, by Archias, one of the Heraclidae, who came from Corinth into Sicily in the 2d year of the 11th Olympiad, or about 732 years before the Christian era. It was named SYRACUSE from SYRACO, a marsh near it. It lies 72 miles S. by W. of Messina, and 110 or 115 S.E. of Palermo. Lon. 15. 30. E. Lat. 37. 17. N.

(2.) SYRACUSE, ANCIENT FLOURISHING STATE OF. This city was of a triangular form, and, in its most flourishing state, extended 180 stadia, or 22 English miles and 4 furlongs, in circumference, and was divided into four districts, viz. ORTYGIA, *Acradina*, TYCHA, and NEAPOLIS. There was also a fifth district, called *Epipole*; but as it was thinly inhabited, it is often omitted by geographers. Each of the four chief districts formed separate cities, and were fortified with three citadels, and three-fold or triple walls. Syracuse had also two spacious harbours, separated from each other by the island of Ortygia. (See ORTYGIA, N° 2.) The greatest harbour was above 5000 paces in circumference, and its entrance 500 paces wide. The city was well built, and the houses were *lat. 17* and magnificent.

(3.) SYRACUSE, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, TILL

THE DEATH OF GELON. What form of government first prevailed in the city is not known. The history is obscure till the time of Gelon, who was born in Gela, in Sicily. He signalized himself in a war carried on by Hippocrates tyrant of Gela against the Syracusans, whom he defeated in a pitched battle, and had well nigh taken their city. Having thus become very powerful, he soon seized on the sovereignty. Putting himself at the head of some Syracusan exiles, he marched towards that place, where he was received with loud acclamations by the faction to which they belonged; and by their means obtained possession of the city. Gelon, to people the capital of his new dominions, first demolished the neighbouring city of Camarina, and transplanted the inhabitants to Syracuse. Soon after, entering into a war with the Megarans, he defeated them, took and razed their cities, and in like manner transplanted the people. Syracuse thus became very powerful, and full of inhabitants; and the friendship of Gelon was courted both by Athens and Lacedæmon at the time of the Persian invasion. His assistance, however, was afterwards rejected, as he insisted upon being made commander in chief either of the fleet or the army. In the mean time the Carthaginians had entered into a treaty with the Persians; by which it was agreed, that the former should attack those of the Greek name in Sicily and Italy, to divert them from assisting one another. Sicily was accordingly invaded by the Carthaginians with a vast army; but they were utterly overthrown by Gelon and his father-in-law Theron, prince of AGRIGENTUM, as related under the article CARTHAGE, § 4. After this victory, the people out of gratitude obliged him to take upon himself the title of *king*, which till that time he had refused. A decree was passed without opposition, by which the crown was settled on his two brothers Hiero and Thrasybulus after his death. The new king spent the remainder of his short reign in studying the happiness of his people. He died A. C. 475, after reigning four years.

(2.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF HIERO I. AND THE ERECTION OF A REPUBLIC. Gelon was succeeded by his brother HIERO, whose character is diffidently drawn by historians. He was twice engaged in a war with the Agrigentines, and drove from their habitations the people of Catan and Naxos, settling in their room a colony of Syracusans and Peloponnesians. Hiero I. died A. C. 459, and was succeeded by Thrasybulus, who proving a tyrant, was in ten months driven out, and a popular government restored which continued 35 years.

(3.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE SYRACUSANS BY THE ATHENIANS. Several persons for some time aspired at the sovereignty; to prevent which they had recourse to *petalism*; but being productive of great inconveniences, the law was repealed soon after it had been enacted. (See PETALISM.) About this time the Syracusans entered into a war with the SICULI, which terminated in the subjection of the latter. Syracuse now became so powerful, that it in a manner gave law to the whole island. The Locutines, disputing the supremacy of the Syracusans

ensans, their territory was laid waste, and their city reduced to great straits. LEONTINI was an Athenian colony; and this furnished the Athenians, who had already meditated the conquest of Sicily, with a pretence to attack the Syracusans with their whole force. But the Leontines, sensible that their pretended allies aimed at the conquest of the whole island, concluded a peace with Syracuse. In A. C. 416, a dispute happening between the inhabitants of ZEGESIA, or SEGESTA and Selinus concerning some lands which the latter had seized, the Segestines applied for assistance to Agrigentum, Syracuse, and even to Carthage. But as none of these states chose to interst themselves in their quarrel, they applied at last to the Athenians, who joyfully accepted of the opportunity of again interfering in the affairs of Sicily. With the most sanguine expectations the Athenians landed 7000 men in Sicily, under Nicias, possessed themselves of a strong post, and put the Syracusans to flight.

(6.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEFEAT OF THE ATHENIANS. In the mean time the Syracusans received assistance from the Lacedæmonians under the command of an experienced officer named *Gylippus*, who arrived just in time to prevent Syracuse from surrendering. At the head of 7000 foot and 200 horse, he made directly for Epipolæ, where Nicias had fortified himself in a castle named *Labdalon*, he drew up his small army under the walls; and sent an herald to Nicias, to tell him that he would allow him only five days to leave Sicily. Nicias returned no answer; but Gylippus soon after stormed the fort, and put to the sword all the Athenians in it. This opened a way into the city, where he was received with loud acclamations. The fortune of the war was again changed. The Athenians gained an advantage by land, but were next day defeated with great loss. The Syracusans received fresh supplies from Corinth, and the Athenians from Attica. Many engagements both by sea and land took place, in which the success was ultimately in favour of the Syracusans. At last the Athenian affairs were totally ruined by the loss of a sea-fight, in which 60 of their ships were taken or destroyed, and the rest left quite unserviceable. In this desperate situation it was determined to abandon their ships, and retire that night to the city of their confederates. But this measure was delayed from a piece of false intelligence; and Nicias did not march out till the 3d day after. The Athenians and their allies also marched out to the number of 40,000; but finding themselves shut up on all sides, and being obliged to fight their way through every outlet, they soon sunk into despair. Nicias did his utmost to encourage them; and at last they marched out in two bodies. The vanguard led by Nicias continued to advance in good order; but half the rear, commanded by Demosthenes, lost their way in the night, and were obliged to surrender. Nicias being informed of this misfortune, offered to pay the whole expence of the war, provided he was allowed to march off with his men. But this being rejected he set out, though galled all the way by showers of darts from his enemies. Arriving at a river called *Amarus*, they rushed into it without order;

in which confusion the Syracusan cavalry attacked them so desperately, that 18,000 perished, and the river for many miles was dyed with their blood. The remainder surrendered, on condition of having their lives saved; but the terms were shamefully broken by the Syracusans. The generals were first ignominiously whipt, and then put to death: the soldiers were sent to labour in quarries, where they were allowed only two small measures of flour and one of water a day; and where, being crowded, they suffered inexpressible miseries for many months. Most of them perished by this cruel treatment, and the few who survived were sold for slaves.

(7.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF DIONYSIUS I. The war was scarce ended, when a new and formidable invasion by the Carthaginians took place; but the event of that expedition was as unfortunate to the Carthaginians as the former had been, of which a particular account is given under the article CARTHAGE, § 4. See also AGRIGENTUM. In the mean time, however, a considerable revolution had happened in Syracuse. DIONYSIUS, a man of great valour and eloquence acquired such influence with the populace, that step by step he attained to sovereign power, possessed himself of the citadel, where all the arms and provisions were kept; and publicly took the title of *king of Syracuse*, A. C. 404. The Syracusans did not tamely submit to their new master: but Dionysius managed matters so well, that their frequent revolts answered no other purpose than more certainly to entail slavery on themselves; and he was allowed to possess the throne without much opposition till his death, A. C. 366. See DIONYSIUS I, and SICILY, § 7.

(8.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEFEAT OF DIONYSIUS II. BY DION. On the death of Dionysius, he was succeeded by his son, DIONYSIUS II. He was naturally of a mild and peaceable temper, averse from cruelty, and inclined to learning; but his father, to whom all merit, even in his own children, gave umbrage, stifled as far as possible his good qualities by a mean education. He no sooner ascended the throne, than DION, brother to Aristomache the other wife of Dionysius the Elder, undertook to correct the faults of his education, and to inspire him with thoughts suitable to the high station in which he was placed. For this purpose he sent for the philosopher PLATO, under whose care he put the young king. This produced a reformation on Dionysius; but the courtiers, dreading the effects of the philosopher's instructions, prevailed on him to banish Dion, and to keep Plato himself in a kind of imprisonment in the citadel. At last, however, he set him at liberty; upon which Plato returned to his own country. Dion, in the mean time, visited several of the Grecian cities, and at last took up his residence in Athens; but the honours which were every where paid him, raised such jealousies in the breast of the tyrant, that he stopped his revenue, and caused it to be paid in to his own treasury. In a short time Dionysius again sent for Plato; but finding it impossible to dissolve the friendship between him and Dion, disgraced, and placed him in a very dangerous situation, in the midst of assassins who hated him.

(See

(See PLATO.) Not daring, however, to offer him any violence, he allowed him soon after to depart; revenging himself on Dion, whose estate he sold, and gave his wife Arete in marriage to Timocrates one of his own flatterers. Dion now resolved to revenge himself on the tyrant for the many injuries he had sustained, and at once to deliver his country from the oppression under which it groaned. He began with raising foreign troops privately, by proper agents. Many Syracusans of distinction entered into his scheme and gave him intelligence of what passed in the city; but of the exiles, only 25 joined him, with about 800 men. He arrived at the port of Minoa, near Agrigentum. Here they received intelligence that Dionysius had set sail for Italy, with a fleet of 80 galleys. On this Dion resolved to take advantage of the tyrant's absence; and immediately set sail for Syracuse. On his march he prevailed upon the inhabitants of Agrigentum, Gela, Camarina, and other cities, to join him. As soon as he entered the territories of Syracuse, multitudes flocked to him; and as nobody appeared to oppose him, he boldly entered the city, where he quickly found himself at the head of 30,000 men. Seven days after Dion's arrival, Dionysius returned and entered the citadel by sea. Finding his affairs in a desperate situation, he had recourse to artifice; and having amused the Syracusans by a feigned negotiation, until he observed that they kept a negligent guard, he attacked them all at once with such fury, that he had almost taken the city. But Dion encouraged the soldiers by his example so much, that he at last obtained a complete victory; for which they presented him with a crown of gold. Dionysius was obliged to fly to Italy.

(9.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TO THE MURDER OF DION. It was not long, however, before the ungrateful Syracusans began to confer quite different rewards on their benefactor. Dion having opposed a proposal for a new division of lands, was obliged to leave the city and reside some time at Leontini, where he was received with respect. In the mean time, the citadel still continued in the hands of the adherents of Dionysius. Being blocked up on all sides, they were reduced to great straits, and were actually making proposals of capitulation, when Nypsius, an experienced general, and greatly attached to Dionysius, appeared with a numerous squadron of galleys, and a large fleet of transports laden with provisions. The general landed his men, and got them into the citadel; but almost all his galleys and ships laden with corn were sunk or taken. This victory proved the ruin of the Syracusans; for, giving themselves up to riot and debauchery, the enemy sallied out in the night time from the citadel, and massacred the citizens without mercy. An embassy was then sent to Dion, intreating him to return and save the city a second time. To this he agreed, and instantly set out on his march; but in the mean time, as the soldiers of Dionysius, fatiated with the slaughter, had retired into their fortrefs, the ungrateful Syracusans began to repent of their having sent an embassy to Dion. The chief commanders, therefore, sent messengers to stop his march; but as some of his friends

sent deputies to him at the same time, contradicting this message, he proceeded on his journey. The insatuated mob seized the gates to dispute his entrance; but they paid dear for their frenzy. The Dionysians again sallied out upon them, and made a sad massacre. As they knew that Dion was hastening to the relief of the city, they endeavoured to destroy it entirely before his arrival; for, after they had murdered all the inhabitants they could find, they set fire to the houses, by which great numbers perished. But, during this confusion Dion arrived; and having briskly attacked the enemy, at last defeated them with great slaughter, driving the remainder into the citadel. The citadel soon after surrendered; and Dion allowed Apollocrates the tyrant's son, who commanded there, to retire with five galleys to his father. As soon as Dion entered the citadel, he was met by his sister and wife Arete, whom he received with affection, notwithstanding her having lived so long with Timocrates. He then left the Syracusans in possession of the citadel, rewarded his followers, dismissed his guards, and lived like a private citizen. In a short time after he lost his life, through the base treachery of Calippus, or Gylippus, who pretended to be his intimate friend, and who immediately after caused his wife and sister to be carried to prison. See DION, N° 1.

(10.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, TO THE TOTAL EXPULSION OF DIONYSIUS II. BY TIMOLEON. Calippus having thus removed Dion, soon made himself master of Syracuse, where he committed all manner of cruelties; but was driven out, and forced to fly to Rhegium, where he was murdered with the same dagger wherewith he had killed Dion. In 350 B. C. Dionysius again made himself master of Syracuse; and being exasperated by his past misfortunes, tyrannized worse than ever. The Syracusans first had recourse to Ictas tyrant of Leontini; but as the Carthaginians took this opportunity to invade them with a powerful fleet and army, they were obliged to apply to the Corinthians. By them Timoleon, a celebrated commander, was sent to assist the Syracusans, whom he found in a very distressed situation; Ictas being master of the city, the Carthaginians of the harbour, and Dionysius of the citadel. As all parties were equally the enemies of Dionysius, he found it impossible, to hold out, and therefore surrendered himself to Timoleon, by whom he was sent to Corinth; where at last he was reduced to the necessity of teaching a school for his support.

(11.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF TIMOLEON. After the expulsion of the tyrant, Timoleon withdrew to Catana, leaving only 400 Corinthians, under the command of an experienced officer named *Leas*, to guard the citadel. These were immediately besieged by Ictas and the Carthaginians, but Timoleon relieved them in spite of all opposition; and having dispersed emissaries through the army of Mago the Carthaginian general, exhorting the mercenary Greeks to forsake him, he was so much intimidated, that in spite of all the remonstrances Ictas could make, he set sail for Africa, leaving his colleague to carry on the war in the best manner he could. The day after the departure of Mago,

Timoleon

Timoleon assaulted the city so briskly, that the troops of Ictas were driven from the walls, and the Corinthians became masters of the place. Timoleon invited the inhabitants to assist in demolishing the citadel and other castles, which he called *nests of tyrants*; after which he caused edifices to be erected in the place where the citadel had stood, for the administration of justice. He found the city in a most miserable situation, and almost a desert. He supplied the city with inhabitants from Corinth and other cities of Greece, and distributed the lands among them *gratis*; but sold the houses, and with the money arising from the sale, established a fund for the support of the poor. Having thus restored Syracuse, he in like manner delivered all the Greek cities of Sicily from the tyrants who had taken possession of them, all of whom he put to death. After this he resigned his authority, and led a retired life, honoured in the highest degree by the Syracusans, and by all the cities in Sicily. After his death he was honoured as a god.

(12.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DESTRUCTION OF TUNIS BY AGATHOCLES. For 30 years the Syracusans enjoyed the fruits of Timoleon's victories; but, new disturbances arising, another tyrant started up, who exceeded all that had gone before him in cruelty and other vices. This was the celebrated Agathocles, of whose exploits against the Carthaginians, some account is given under the articles AGATHOCLES, AGRIGENTUM, CARTHAGE, § 1. and SICILY, § 2. But farther particulars belong to this article. In two years he subdued all the Greek part of Sicily. He next committed great devastations in the Carthaginian territories, their general Hamilcar not offering to disturb him. This perfidious conduct greatly incensed the people of those districts against Hamilcar, whom they accused before the senate. He died, however, in Sicily; and Hamilcar the son of Gisco was appointed to succeed him in the command of the forces. The last place that held out against Agathocles was Messina, whither all the Syracusan exiles had retired. Paphilus, Agathocles's general, cajoled the inhabitants into a treaty; which Agathocles paid no regard to, but, as soon as he was in possession of the town, cut off all those who had opposed his government; for, as he intended to prosecute the war with the utmost vigour, against Carthage, he wished to destroy as many of his Sicilian enemies as possible. The Carthaginians in the mean time having landed a powerful army in Sicily, an engagement ensued, in which Agathocles was defeated with the loss of 7000 men. After this defeat he was obliged to shut himself up in Syracuse, which the Carthaginians immediately invested, and most of the Greek states in the island submitted to them. Agathocles seeing himself stripped of almost all his dominions, and his capital itself in danger of falling into the hands of the enemy, determined to transfer the war into Africa, and lay siege to the enemy's capital. For this purpose he contrived to carry over 14,000 men, and land them with little opposition. As soon as his forces were landed, Agathocles burnt his fleet, that his soldiers might have no possibility of flying. He first advanced to a place called *the Great City*. This, after a

feeble resistance he took and plundered. From hence he marched to Tunis, which surrendered on the first summons; and Agathocles levelled both places with the ground.

(13.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF HAMILCAR. The Carthaginians were at first thrown into the greatest consternation; but recovering themselves, the citizens took up arms, and in a few days they had an army of 40,000 foot and 1000 horse, with 2000 armed chariots. The command of this army they entrusted to Hanno and Bomilcar, two generals between whom there subsisted a great animosity. This occasioned the defeat of their whole army, with the loss of their camp. Upon this defeat, the Carthaginians, according to their barbarous superstition, offered up 200 children and other 300 voluntary human sacrifices. In Sicily, Hamilcar, still resolved to storm the city, did his utmost to conceal from the Syracusans the intelligence of Agathocles's victory; but in vain, for Agathocles got it conveyed by a galley. Hamilcar then erected scaling ladders, and began his attack upon Syracuse, but though at first he was somewhat successful, he was soon repulsed with great loss. Raising the siege he over-ran the country and took some towns in alliance with Syracuse; after which he renewed his attack on the city in the night, but was completely defeated, his troops slaughtered, and himself taken prisoner, carried into Syracuse, and beheaded.

(14.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF OPHELLAS. About this period the Agrigentines, finding the Carthaginians and Syracusans had greatly weakened each other, thought it a proper time to seize the sovereignty of the whole island, and therefore commenced a war against both; in which they had such success, that they took many capital towns both from the Carthaginians and Syracusans.—In the mean time Agathocles was extremely successful in Africa. He took most of the towns of note in the Carthaginian territories; and hearing that Elymas king of Libya, their ally, was coming against him, he entered Upper Libya, and gave him a complete overthrow, slaughtering a great number of his troops with his general at their head. After this he advanced against the Carthaginians with such expedition, that he surprised and defeated them, with the loss of 2000 killed, and a great number taken prisoners. He next prepared for the siege of Carthage itself; and advanced within 5 miles of that city; but, notwithstanding the great losses they had sustained, the Carthaginians, with a powerful army, encamped between him and their capital. In this situation Agathocles received advice of the defeat of the Carthaginian forces before Syracuse, along with the head of Hamilcar. Upon this he immediately rode up to the enemy's camp, and showing them the head, gave them an account of the total destruction of their army before Syracuse. This threw them into such consternation, that in all human probability Agathocles would have made himself master of Carthage, had not an unexpected mutiny arisen in his camp, which gave the Carthaginians time to recover from their terror. The year following an engagement happened, in which neither party gained any great advantage; but soon after, the tyrant, notwithstanding, all his victories,

victories found himself unable to carry on the war alone; and therefore endeavoured to gain over Ophellas, one of the captains of Alexander the Great. In this he succeeded: Ophellas brought an army to his assistance through many trials; in reward for which Agathocles cut him off by treachery, and then by promises persuaded his troops to serve under himself.

(15.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE MURDER OF AGATHOCLES. Agathocles now finding himself at the head of a numerous army, assumed the title of *King of Africa*, intending to complete his conquests by the reduction of Carthage. He began with the siege of URICA, which was taken by assault. After this he marched against Hippo Diarrhytus, the *Biserta* of the moderns, which was also taken by storm; and after this most of the people bordering upon the sea coasts, and even those who inhabited the inland parts, submitted. But in the midst of this success, the Sicilians formed an association to recover their liberty; which obliged the tyrant to return home, leaving his son Archagathus to carry on the war in Africa. ARCHAGATHUS, after his father's departure, greatly extended the African conquests. He sent Eumachus at the head of a large detachment to invade some of the neighbouring provinces, while he himself, with the greatest part of his army, observed the motions of the Carthaginians. Eumachus falling into Numidia, first took the great city of TOCAS, and conquered several of the Numidian cantons. Afterwards he besieged and took Phellina; which was attended with the submission of the Aphodelodians, a nation, (says Diodorus,) as black as the Ethiopians. He then reduced several other cities; and being at last elated with such a run of good fortune, resolved to penetrate into the more remote parts of Africa. Here he at first met with success; but hearing that the barbarous nations were advancing in a formidable body to give him battle, he abandoned his conquests, and retreated with the utmost precipitation towards the sea-coasts, after having lost many men. This unfortunate expedition made a great alteration for the worse in the affairs of Archagathus. The Carthaginians hearing of Eumachus's bad success, resolved to repair their former losses. They divided their forces into 3 bodies; one they sent to the sea-coasts; another into the Mediterranean parts, and the last to upper Africa. Archagathus divided his forces likewise into 3 bodies: one he sent to observe the Carthaginian troops on the coasts; and to advance afterwards into Upper Africa; another, under Æschion, he sent into the heart of the country; and with the last, which he led in person, he kept nearer Carthage, preserving a communication with the other two, to send them succours, or recall them, as the exigency should require. The Carthaginian troops sent into the heart of the country were commanded by Hanno, a general of great experience, who being informed of the approach of Æschion, laid an ambuscade for him, into which he was drawn and cut off with 4000 foot and 200 horse. Himilco, who commanded the Carthaginian forces in Upper Africa, having advice of Eumachus's march, immediately advanced against him. An engagement ensued, in which the Greeks were almost totally

cut off, or perished with thirst after the battle; out of 8000 foot only 30, and of 800 horse only 40, having escaped. Archagathus receiving the news of these two defeats, immediately called in the detachments he had sent out. He was, however, soon hemmed in on all sides in such a manner as to be reduced to the last extremity for provisions, and ready every moment to be swallowed up by his numerous enemies. In this distress, he sent an express to his father informing him of his losses. Hereupon Agathocles, leaving the care of the Sicilian war to Leptines, procured the assistance of 18 Etruscan ships, with which he fought the Carthaginian squadron then on the coast, took 5 of their ships and made prisoners of their men. Having thus become master of the port, and secured a passage into it for trading vessels, plenty was soon restored; of which taking a sufficient supply for himself, he immediately sailed for Africa. Upon his arrival, he found his forces to consist of 25,000 Greeks, Samnites, Etruscans, Celtes, and Africans; besides 1500 horse. He offered the enemy battle, but they declined. He, however, forced them to action, attacked the camp with his usual bravery, and in all probability would have gained a complete victory, had not his mercenaries deserted him. The barbarous sacrifice made by the Carthaginians, and its dreadful consequences to their whole army are related under CARTHAGE, § 4; as well as its consequences to Agathocles, who with difficulty escaped from his enemies, and his own enraged soldiers, who murdered his sons, and made peace with Carthage. After all this reverse of fortune, Agathocles returned to Italy, gathered a new army, relieved CORCYRA, and forced Cassander to raise the siege of it; burned the Macedonian fleet; avenged the murder of his wives and children; met with his old troops, who had deserted him in Africa; defeated and massacred them all; ravaged the coasts of Italy, and took *Hipponium*. At last he was poisoned, some say by his grandson, others by one *Menon*, A. A. C. 289, in the 28th year of his reign, and 95th of his age.

(16.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEPARTURE OF PYRRHUS. After Agathocles's death, a succession of tyrants followed, till at last the city, being held by two rivals, TOENION and SOSTRATUS, who made war within the very walls, Pyrrhus king of Epirus was invited into Sicily, to put an end to these destructions. He willingly complied with the invitation; and was everywhere received with loud acclamations, as the deliverer not only of Syracuse, but of all Sicily. Puffed up with the expectation of reducing the whole island, he caused his son take upon him the title of *King of Sicily*; but in the mean time having displeased the Sicilians by his arbitrary behaviour, they deserted from him in such numbers that he was glad to set out for Italy. He embarked in the ships which he had brought with him from Italy; but was met at sea by the Carthaginians, who sunk 70 of his vessels, and dispersed or took the rest; so that he saved himself in Italy only with 12 vessels, the poor remains of a fleet of 200 sail.

(17.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF HIERO II. After the departure of Pyrrhus, Hiero II, the son of Hierocles, a descendant

of GELON the first king of Syracuse, was chosen general of the forces, along with another named *Artemidorus*. The two generals earnestly wished to put an end to the confusion and disorder which reigned in the city; for which reason they entered it at the head of their forces. On this occasion *Hiero* discovered extraordinary talents for government. By mere dint of insinuation and address, without shedding blood or hurting a single citizen, he so gained the affections of all, that he was invested with the whole civil as well as military power in the state. Soon after this, he married the daughter of one of the first citizens; and having distinguished himself by his exploits against the *Mamertines*, was unanimously elected king of Syracuse, A. A. C. 265. Some time after *Hiero's* accession to the throne, he again defeated the *Mamertines*, and reduced them to such straits, that they were obliged to call in the Romans to their assistance. The consequences of this have been fully related under the articles *ROME* and *CARTHAGE*, § 5. *Hiero*, who had allied himself with the Carthaginians, being himself defeated by the Romans, and finding his allies unable to protect him against the power of that republic, concluded an alliance with them, and continued faithful to them even in the time of the second Punic war, when they were in the greatest distress. In his reign flourished the celebrated mathematician *Archimedes*, whose genius he employed in fortifying the city of Syracuse, by innumerable machines, in such a manner as rendered it absolutely impregnable to every method of attack known at that time. See *ARCHIMEDES*. *Hiero II.* died about A. A. C. 211.

(18.) SYRACUSE, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF THE CITY, AND THE MURDER OF ARCHIMEDES. *Hiero* was succeeded by his grandson *Hieronymus*; but he imprudently forsook the counsels of his grandfather, and entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians. Soon after this he was murdered, in consequence of his tyranny and cruelty, and the greatest disorders took place in the city; which Hannibal, though then in Italy, found means to foment, in hopes of keeping the Syracusans in his interest. This indeed he effected; but as his own affairs in Italy began to decline, (see *CARTHAGE*, § 6.) he could not prevent *Marcellus* from landing in Sicily with an army, which the Sicilians were unable to resist. Syracuse was soon invested; but the machines invented by *Archimedes* baffled all attempts to take it by assault. These were so stupendous and powerful, that ships were dashed to pieces by the huge rocks they discharged, and the troops were more annoyed by the showers of arrows and stones than modern armies are by musketry. The consuls, finding themselves thus defeated in every attempt, turned the siege into a blockade, reduced most of the other places in the island, and defeated the forces which were sent against them; and at last *Marcellus* made himself master of Syracuse itself, of which the following account is given by Mr Hooke. "He took the opportunity of a festival, when the soldiers and citizens had drunk plentifully, to make a detachment scale the walls of Tyche, in that

part of it which was nearest to Epipolæ, and which was ill guarded. He presently after possessed himself of Epipolæ; whereupon the inhabitants of Neapolis, as well as Tyche, sent deputies to him and submitted. *Marcellus* granted life and liberty to all of free condition, but gave up those quarters of the city to be plundered. Notwithstanding this, there was a great deal yet to do. *Acradina* and *Ortygia*, which were strongly fortified, still held out; *Hippocrates* and *Himilco* arrived with their troops to the relief of the besieged; and the Romans were forced to exert all their bravery and skill to maintain the advantages they had gained. But now a plague made terrible havock in both armies. At the first breaking out of the pestilence, the Sicilians, who served under *Hippocrates* and *Himilco*, disbanded themselves, and returned to their respective homes; but all the Carthaginian soldiers perished together with those two generals. The Romans suffered less by the infection; because, having been a long time before Syracuse, they were seasoned to the air and water of the country. About this time *Bomilcar* arrived on the coast of Sicily from Carthage, with a fleet of 130 galleys and 700 ships of burthen: but was long hindered by contrary winds from doubling the cape of Pachynum. *Epicycles*, fearing the Carthaginians might sail back to Africa, left the command of *Acradina*, to the generals of the mercenaries, and went to *Bomilcar*, in order to persuade him to fight the Roman fleet. The admiral would not engage, but sailed away to Tarentum with all his galleys, ordering his ships of burden to return to Africa. *Epicycles*, thus frustrated of his hopes, and knowing himself unable to defend a city already half taken, retired to Agrigentum; whereupon the Syracusians massacred the commanders appointed by him, chose new prætors to govern in the town, and sent deputies to *Marcellus* to treat of peace. In the mean time, the deserters, fearing to be given up to the vengeance of the Romans, persuaded the mercenaries that they also would have the same fate. Instantly the soldiers ran to arms, put to death the new prætors, together with many of the Syracusans, and plundered part of the city. After this slaughter they chose six generals, three to command in *Acradina*, and three in *Ortygia*. Upon the return of the deputies from *Marcellus*, the mercenaries, finding that their case was different from that of the deserters, and that there was no design against their lives, became perfectly satisfied, and the negotiations went on. During the course of the treaty, *Marcellus* found means to corrupt *Mericus*, a Spaniard, one of the six generals chosen by the soldiers, and engaged him to admit the Romans into that part of the city where he commanded. *Mericus*, the better to accomplish this design, feigned an extraordinary zeal for the preservation of the place; pretended not to like that deputies should have leave to go out and in at pleasure; and proposed, that for the greater security of the town, each general should have a distinct quarter assigned him, and be responsible for any neglect of duty in it. The motion was agreed to; and upon the dissen-

fountain of Arethusa to the mouth of the great port fell to his care. Marcellus, informed of what was done, took his measures accordingly. He sent a body of troops to that side where Mericus commanded, and the Spaniards admitted them at the gate of Arethusa. At the same time, the proconsul ordered a false attack to be made on Acradina; which drawing almost all the soldiers of the garrison thither, Ortygia was in a manner left defenceless. Foreseeing this, he had detached another party of soldiers to take advantage of it. These entered Ortygia almost without fighting; upon which the deserters made their escape, the Romans giving them way; and the Syracusans in Acradina, thus delivered from the fear of the deserters, immediately opened their gates to Marcellus, who thereby became master of the whole city. And now the conqueror, who is said to have wept during the siege with compassion for the inhabitants, gave up both Ortygia and Acradina to be plundered by his army, after he had secured the late king's treasures for the use of the republic, and the statues, paintings, and principal ornaments of Syracuse to illustrate his triumph. The soldiers had orders to spare the lives of the citizens; but they were cruel in their avarice, slew many of them, and among the rest the incomparable Archimedes. He was very intent on a demonstration in geometry, and calmly drawing his lines, when a soldier entered the room, and clapped a sword to his throat. "Hold!" said Archimedes one moment, and my demonstration will be finished." But the soldier, equally regardless of his prayer and his demonstration, killed him instantly. There are different accounts of the manner of his death; but all agree that Marcellus regretted it extremely, and showed a singular favour to his relations for his sake."

(19) SYRACUSE, MODERN HISTORY OF. The apostle Paul spent 3 days in this city, in his voyage to Rome, and Christianity was early planted in it. It continued subject to the western empire till its declension, when the island of Sicily, being ravaged by different barbarians, the capital also underwent various revolutions. In 675, it was taken and plundered by the Saracens, who, about 827, had subdued all Sicily, and destroyed much of its ancient grandeur; (See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 10.) but in 1090, it was recovered by Roger, Earl of Sicily. (See SICILY, § 10.) It has since shared the fortune of the rest of Sicily. Near this port there was a sea engagement, in 1718, between the Spaniards and the British, in which the former were defeated, and obliged to leave Sicily; but, in 1735, they retook Syracuse. Like the rest of Sicily it is much subject to earthquakes; and, in 1693, was almost totally destroyed by one. (See EARTHQUAKE, § 6.)

(20) SYRACUSE, POPULATION OF. The present population of Syracuse is estimated, by Mr Swineburne, not to exceed 18,000.

(21.) SYRACUSE, PRESENT STATE OF. The relics of this ancient city now forms a bishop's see, in the valley of Noto. "At present, says Mr Swineburne, it is strongly fortified towards the land, and the ditches of the bastions form the communications between the two havens. It is

very weak towards the sea, but the shelves render it hazardous to debark on that side. The garrison is one of the best appointed in the kingdom, but the heights of Acradina command the works. The dwellings are far from being memorials of ancient Syracusan architecture or opulence.

SYRACUSIANS, *n. s.* an anomalous spelling of SYRACUSANS.

SYRAU, a town of Germany, in upper Saxony, in the Vogland; 4 miles NNW. of Plauen.

(1.) SYRE, a river of Norway, which runs into the North Sea; 20 miles SW. of Syre.

(2, 3.) SYRE, a town and lake of Norway, in the province of Christianland; the former 24 miles, the latter 30 NW. of Christianland.

SYREFORD, a small town of England, in Gloucestershire, in the parish of Whittington.

(1.) SYRIA, a very ancient country or kingdom of Asia, lying between the Mediterranean on the W. the Euphrates on the E. and Arabia Deserta, Phœnicia, and Palestine on the S. or, as Crutwell describes it, "this name is given to the whole space contained between two lines drawn, the one from Alexandretta to the Euphrates, and the other from Gaza in the desert of Arabia; bounded on the E. by this desert, and on the W. by the Mediterranean." But Mr Lempriere says, that ancient Syria; whose boundaries are not accurately ascertained by the ancients, was bounded on the E. by the Euphrates, N. by Mount Taurus, W. by the Mediterranean, and S. by Arabia.

(2.) SYRIA, ANCIENT DIVISIONS AND NAMES OF. This country appears in the patriarchal age to have been divided into a great number of cantons or petty principalities. Very early after the flood, it went by the general name of ARAM, from Aram the youngest son of SHEM, who settled in it. Hence the different cantons were named *Aram-nabarin*, *Aram-zobah*, *Aram-machab*, and *Aram-zebob*. Within a few centuries afterwards, it had obtained its present name of SYRIA; for we find *Zebul*, the nephew, and LABAN, the grand-nephew, of Abraham, styled SYRIANS, even in the patriarchal age. (See Gen. xxv. 20.) It is a piece of *learned folly*, therefore, to quote Plutarch's derivation of this name from the fabulous hero, SYRUS, the son of Apollo. Much more credit is due to those etymologists who suppose it to be a contraction of the name ASSYRIA, which the best historians, etymologists, and chronologists, derive from ASHUR, the 2d son of SHEM. (See ASSYRIA, § 1. and 2.) Mr Lempriere makes it so very extensive as to have comprehended "PHOENICIA, SELUCIA, JUDEA, or PALESTINE, MESOPOTAMIA, BABYLON, and ASSYRIA;" which last name, he adds, was used *indifferently* with SYRIA by some ancient authors. But be that as it may, all the petty states, provinces, principalities, and cantons, into which Syria Proper was originally divided, appear to have been afterwards reduced under subjection to the four principal ones, ZOBAB, DAMASCUS, Hamath, and Geshur. Afterwards the whole country was divided into two parts only, viz. COELESYRIA and PHOENICIA; though the Phœnicians, Idumeans, Jews, Gazites, and Azotites, inhabiting the whole country of the PHILISTINES, were

were included. After the death of Alexander, Syria, in the great extent of the word, was divided, according to Strabo, into COMAGENE, SELEUCIS of Syria, COELESYRIA, PHOENICE on the sea coast, and JUDEA in the midland. Ptolemy, however, subdivides these; and in the Proper Syria reckons only *Comagene, Pieria, Cyrrhastica or Cyrrhestica, Seleucis, Cassiotis or Caiotis, Chalybonitis, Chalcidice or Chalcidene, Apamene, Laodice, Phœnicia Mediterranea, Cœlesyria, and Palmyrene*. It has long been, and still is, named by the Arabs, the descendants of Ishmael, *Barr el Shâm, or the country of Shem*.

(3.) SYRIA, ANCIENT HISTORY OF. The history of the ancient Syrians, till the time of their being carried away by the king of Assyria, is altogether unknown, excepting a few particulars to be gleaned from Scripture, which it is unnecessary here to repeat. During the continuance of the empires of BABYLONIA and PERSIA, the history of Syria affords nothing peculiar, being involved in that of these countries; but after the death of ALEXANDER the Great, who had subdued all these empires, it became a very considerable kingdom, which makes a conspicuous figure in ancient history.

(4.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, FROM ITS ERECTION INTO A KINGDOM BY SELEUCUS I. TILL HIS DEATH. At the death of Alexander, the name of Syria was not confined to Syria properly so called, but comprehended all those vast provinces of Upper Asia, which formed the Persian empire; being, in its full extent, bounded by the Mediterranean upon one side, and the river Indus on the other. Seleucus, one of the generals of Alexander the Great, after the death of that conqueror, being made governor of Babylon, was tempted, by the example of Alexander's other captains, to set up for himself. Eumenes, who had sincerely at heart the interest of Alexander's family, solicited his assistance against Antigonus, who had openly revolted; but Seleucus not only refused his assistance, but attempted to destroy Eumenes himself with his whole army, by cutting the sluices of the Euphrates, and laying under water the whole plain where they were encamped. Eumenes, however, escaped the danger without the loss of a man. Upon this Seleucus endeavoured to gain over his troops; but finding that impossible, he made a truce with Eumenes, and granted him a safe passage through his province; but at the same time sent an express to Antigonus, desiring him to fall upon him before he was joined by the governors of Upper Asia. Antigonus did not fail to follow his advice; but having thus prevailed against Eumenes through treachery, he next thought of bringing Seleucus himself under subjection. On his return to Babylon, therefore, after having been feasted with his whole army by Seleucus, he demanded an account of the revenues of his province. This being refused, Antigonus was so much exasperated, that Seleucus, not thinking himself a match for him, fled into Egypt. By the flight of Seleucus, Antigonus was left master of all his provinces; but his son Demetrius being afterwards defeated by Ptolemy at Gaza, Seleucus began to think of recovering what he had lost. Being furnished by Ptolemy with

1000 foot and 200 horse, he set out with that slender force to attempt the recovery of Babylon. Nothing could have a more desperate appearance than this undertaking; yet Seleucus on his arrival at Carrhæ in Mesopotamia, partly by force and partly by persuasion, prevailed on the Macedonians, who garrisoned that place, to revolt from Antigonus and join him. Being thus reinforced, he entered the territories of Babylon, where new supplies were continually added to his army; his ancient subjects flocking to him from all parts, and declaring themselves ready to stand by him with their lives and fortunes. This happened in consequence of the lenity with which they had been treated by Seleucus; whereas Antigonus was universally detested on account of his severity. As he approached the city, those who favoured Antigonus retired into the citadel, but were soon obliged to surrender; and in that fortress Seleucus found his children, friends, and domestics, whom Antigonus had kept prisoners ever since his flight into Egypt. Seleucus having thus made himself master of Babylon, in A. A. C. 312, began to prepare for encountering Antigonus, who he knew would soon attack him with all his force. Nicanor, governor of Media under Antigonus, first advanced against him at the head of 10,000 foot and 7000 horse; but Seleucus with only 3000 foot and 400 horse, having drawn him into an ambush, cut off almost the whole of his army, and the surviving soldiers willingly enlisted under him. The consequence of this victory was the submission of all Media and Susiana; which, alarming Antigonus, he sent his son Demetrius with an army of 5000 Macedonian foot, 10,000 mercenaries, and 4000 horse. Seleucus was then in Media; and Patrocles, whom he had left to take care of Babylon, finding his force inadequate to that purpose, compelled the inhabitants to leave the city and disperse themselves in the adjacent countries, while he himself, with what troops he had, retired into two forts, which he thought could easily be defended. When, therefore, Demetrius entered Babylon, he was surprised to find it deserted, upon which he instantly attacked the forts. One was quickly reduced; but as the other held out till the expiration of the time which had been allowed him by his father, he left 5000 foot and 1000 horse under Archelaus to carry on the siege. With the rest he marched away, suffering his soldiers to live at discretion as he went along; which so provoked the Babylonians, that they were ever after attached to Seleucus as if he had been their natural prince. On the return of Seleucus to Babylon, he easily drove out the troops left by Antigonus, recovered the castle which he had garrisoned, and settled his authority on such a firm foundation, that it could never afterwards be moved. Having then marched again into Media, he defeated and killed with his own hand Nicanor, whom Antigonus had sent against him; after which, having settled the affairs in Media, he reduced all Persia, Bactria, and Hyrcania, subjecting to his new kingdom these and all the other provinces on this side the Indus which had been conquered. Seleucus being now master of all the countries which lie between the Euphrates and the Indus, took the title of *king of Babylon and*

Media. But, not satisfied with these possessions, ample as they were, he crossed the Indus, to conquer those regions which had submitted to Alexander beyond that river. But, during the time that the generals of Alexander had been making war upon his family and upon one another, Sandrocottus, a native of India, had driven out the Macedonians and made himself master of the whole country. (See SANDROCOTTUS.) He opposed Seleucus with an army of 600,000 men, and a prodigious number of elephants; which intimidated the Macedonian so much, that he offered to leave Sandrocottus in quiet possession of his dominions, provided he would furnish him with 500 elephants. To this Sandrocottus readily assented; upon which Seleucus marched back into the west against Antigonus, and, in conjunction with Lyfimachus and Ptolemy, engaged and totally defeated and killed him at Ipsus. (See ANTIGONUS I.) After this Seleucus marched into Upper Syria, which he reduced entirely, and built the city of Antioch on the Orontes. In the same country he built several other cities; one of which he called *SELEUCIA*, from his own name; another *APAMEA*, from his wife Apama, the daughter of one Artabazus a Persian; and a third *LAODICEA*, from his mother Laodice. He first entered into an alliance with Demetrius, and married Stratonice his daughter, (See STRATONICE;) but soon after assisted Lyfimachus and Ptolemy to deprive him of the best part of his dominions. Thus Demetrius being reduced so low that he could give him no farther jealousy, Seleucus built another city, called likewise *SELEUCIA*, seated where BAGDAD now stands. Besides these, he built many others; 16 of which he called *ANTIOCH*, from his brother or son Antiochus; 9 *SELEUCIA*; 3 *APAMEA*; 1 *STRATONICEA*, and 6 *LAODICEA*, from his relations above mentioned. In 284, Seleucus entered into a war with Lyfimachus, with whom he had hitherto lived in amity. Out of 36 general officers left by Alexander the Great, they two only survived, and both were upwards of 70 years old; yet both were filled with the ambition and animosity of young men. The two armies met at a place called *Curepidion* in Phrygia, where an obstinate engagement took place. Victory was long doubtful; but at last Lyfimachus was run through with a spear, and died on the spot; on which his troops fled, and left Seleucus master of all their baggage. This victory added to the possessions of Seleucus all those provinces which had formerly been subject to Lyfimachus. He exulted much in his good fortune; boasting that he was now the last of Alexander's captains, and by this victory became, as he styled it, *the conqueror of conquerors*; whence he is generally called *Nicator*, or *the conqueror*. His triumph, however, was but short lived; for, 7 months after, as he was marching towards Macedon to take possession of that kingdom, he was treacherously murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, on whom he had conferred innumerable favours. Philetæus, prince of Pergamus, purchased his body at a great price from Ptolemy, and sent it to his son Antiochus; who, with extraordinary pomp, burned it in Seleucia on the

sea-coast, erecting on the place a magnificent chapel, called from his surname *Nicatorium*.

(5.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF ANTIOCHUS I. Seleucus was succeeded by his son Antiochus Soter, who reigned 19 years. He resigned to Antigonus Gonatas all pretensions to the crown of Macedon; and having engaged in a war with Eumenes king of Pergamus, he was defeated by him, and obliged to yield up part of his dominions. He died in 261 B. C.

(6.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF ANTIOCHUS II. Antiochus I. was succeeded by his son Antiochus II. blasphemously surnamed *Theos*, or *the God*, who having engaged in a war with Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt, the Parthians and Bactrians took an opportunity to revolt, and could never afterwards be reduced. In 246 B. C. the *God* was poisoned by his wife Laodice, whom he had divorced for Berenice daughter to Ptolemy, with whom he made peace on the revolt of the Bactrians. On the death of Ptolemy, Antiochus had divorced Berenice, and took back Laodice; who, to secure herself against the effects of his fickle disposition, poisoned him, and raised to the throne her own son, named *Seleucus Callinicus*.

(7.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF SELEUCUS II. AND III. Laodice not thinking herself safe as long as Berenice lived, began immediately to concert measures for putting both her and her son to death. Berenice attempted to save herself by retiring to Daphne, where the stout herself up in an asylum built by Seleucus Nicator. There she was closely besieged by the sons of Seleucus; of which the cities of Asia having intelligence, formed a confederacy in her favour. Her brother the king of Egypt also hastened to her relief with a considerable army; but before either of these could come to her assistance, both she and her son were barbarously murdered, with all the Egyptians who attended them. Ptolemy, on hearing the melancholy news of his sister's death, determined to take the most severe vengeance on her murderers. Joining his forces to those of the Asiatics, he carried every thing before him. Having first killed the cruel Laodice, he made himself master of all Syria and Cilicia; then passing the Euphrates, he subdued all the country as far as Babylon and the Tigris; and had not the progress of his arms been interrupted by a sedition which obliged him to return to Egypt, it is probable that he would have subdued the whole Syrian empire. As soon as he was returned, Seleucus attempted to revenge himself; but his fleet being destroyed by a violent storm, and his army defeated by Ptolemy, he concluded a truce for ten years. During all this time Arsaces the prince of Parthia, had established himself so firmly on the throne, that it was in vain to think of dispossessing him. However, as soon as his other affairs would permit, Seleucus undertook an expedition against Arsaces, by whom he was utterly defeated, taken prisoner, and carried into Parthia, where he died four years after. He was succeeded by his eldest son Seleucus III. surnamed *Callinicus*, or *the Thunderer*, a weak prince and was poisoned by two of his officers, when he had reigned one year.

(8.) SYRIA

(8.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE EXPEDITION OF ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT INTO THE EAST. Antiochus, furnished the *Great*, brother of Seleucus III. ascended the throne in 215 B. C. In the beginning of his reign, two of his generals, Alexander and Molo, rebelled against him. The former had been appointed governor of Persia, and the latter of Media; but they, despising the king's youth, refused to obey. The occasion of this revolt is said to have been their dread of the cruelty of Hermias, the king's prime minister; and as they hoped to draw into their schemes Achæus governor of Asia Minor, they doubted not of success. In this, however, they failed. Epigenes, the commander of the troops about the king's person, advised him to march without delay against the rebels; but as Hermias reproached him with treachery, and a design to betray him into the hands of his enemies, Antiochus sent two of his generals into the east, while he himself undertook an expedition against Ptolemy Philadelphus, to recover Cœle Syria. In this attempt, however he was disappointed; and the generals whom he had sent into the east were totally defeated, and their troops cut off; upon which he determined to lay aside his Syrian enterprize, and march in person against the rebels. This was again opposed by Hermias; but as he found it impossible to alter the king's mind, the treacherous minister found means to get Epigenes, the author of this project, executed, under pretence of holding a correspondence with Molo one of the rebel chiefs. Antiochus in the mean time pursued his march against the rebels, whom he defeated in a pitched battle; upon which their chiefs killed themselves. On his return he received the submission of the Atropatii, a barbarous people in Media; and put to death his prime minister Hermias, whose treachery he at last discovered. During his life, however, the traitor, by accusing Achæus of treason, had obliged him to revolt in his own defence; so that the king had still two important wars on his hands, viz. that with Ptolemy king of Egypt, and the other against Achæus. After some deliberation, he resolved to march first against the king of Egypt; and was at first very successful, reducing many cities in Cœle Syria and Palestine, and defeating the Egyptians in a pitched battle; but in 217 B. C. being worsted in the battle of Raphia, he was obliged to abandon all his conquests; of which Ptolemy immediately took possession, and Antiochus was obliged to cede them to him, that he might pursue war against Achæus. Antiochus having made vast preparations for his expedition, soon reduced Achæus to such distress, that he was obliged to shut himself up in the city of Sardis, which he defended for some time with great bravery; till at last, being betrayed by two Cretans, he was delivered up to the king, and by his order put to death. Antiochus then undertook an expedition against the Parthians, whom he obliged to conclude a peace on very advantageous terms. He then turned his arms against the king of Bactria, whom he also compelled to agree to his terms; one of which was, that he should give him up all his elephants. For the confirmation of the treaty, the king of Bactria sent his son to Anti-

ochus; who being taken with his majestic mien and agreeable conversation, gave him one of his daughters in marriage. He then crossed Mount Caucasus, and entered India; where having renewed his alliance with Sophagafenus, the king of that country, he received also of his elephants, which increased his stock to 150. (See INDIA, § 5.) From India he marched into Arachosia, Drangiana, and Carmania, establishing order and discipline in all those countries; then passing through Persia, Babylonia, and Mesopotamia, he returned to Antioch, after an absence of seven years.

(9.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEFEAT OF ANTIOCHUS AT THERMOPYLÆ. In the year 204 B. C. Antiochus made an easy conquest of Judea; but treated the Jews with great kindness and humanity, as related under the article Jews, § 4. In the same year, he entered into a league with Philip V. of Macedon, on purpose to deprive Ptolemy Epiphanes, the infant king of Egypt, of all his dominions. The Egyptians, however, put the young king under the tuition of the Romans; who immediately required the confederate princes to desist from any enterprize against the king of Egypt, under the penalty of incurring the displeasure of the republic. After delivering this message M. Æmilius Lepidus, one of the ambassadors, repaired to Egypt, where he took upon himself the office of regent and guardian to the young king. Having regulated affairs there in the best manner he could, he returned to Rome, after having appointed one Aristomenes, an Acarnanian, to be chief minister to the king. Aristomenes, being a man of prudence and fidelity, acquitted himself very well in his new station. Having taken care to recruit his army as well as he could, he sent one Scopas, a man of great authority among the Ætolians, into that country, to raise auxiliaries. Scopas soon raised an army of 6000 Ætolians, at that time reputed the best soldiers in the world; and having joined the Egyptian army, reduced all Judea, put a garrison into the castle at Jerusalem, and, on the approach of winter returned to Alexandria loaded with booty. These exploits, however were performed when Antiochus was absent in Asia Minor; and no sooner was he returned, than the face of affairs was changed. Scopas was defeated in a pitched battle, where one half of his men were destroyed. He himself escaped to Sidon, where he shut himself up with 10,000 of his soldiers; but Antiochus having invested the place, Scopas was reduced to the necessity of surrendering at discretion. The king pursued his conquests; recovered all Palestine and Cœle Syria; after which he invaded Asia Minor, in hopes of reducing it also, and restoring the Syrian empire to the same extent it had in the time of Seleucus Nicator. The free cities in Asia Minor immediately had recourse to the Romans, who sent an embassy to Antiochus on the occasion; but as both parties treated each other haughtily, no satisfaction was given, but every thing tended to an open rupture. While matters were in this situation, HANNIBAL the Great, being obliged to leave his own country, fled to Antiochus: from whom he met with a gracious reception. As Hannibal had, while a child, sworn perpetual en-

imity

mity against the Romans, he used all his eloquence to persuade Antiochus to make war with them; and as the many victories which he had gained over them left no room to doubt of his capacity, Antiochus doubted nothing of being able, by his assistance, to conquer that haughty people. Several embassies passed between the two nations; but chiefly with a design, on the part of Antiochus, to gain time. Hannibal endeavoured to draw his countrymen into the confederacy against Rome, but without effect. Antiochus having strengthened himself by several alliances, at last resolved to begin the war in earnest. To consult on the measures proper to be taken, he called a council of war; but excluded from it the only man whose advice he ought to have followed; viz. Hannibal. The reason of this was, that he had become jealous of him from the too great intimacy, as he thought, which he had kept with the Roman ambassadors. However, in this council it was agreed that the war should be immediately commenced. The king himself was prevailed upon by the Ætolians to pass over into Greece, and entirely to reject the advice which Hannibal had formerly given, of sending him with an army into Italy. Here he was made generalissimo of the Greek forces; but made none of those efforts that had formerly obtained him the title of Great. Indeed it now plainly appeared, not only that he was incapable of carrying on war against such enemies as the Romans, but even of accepting proper advice when it was given him. In another council in which Hannibal was admitted, that commander advised the king, before he undertook any thing else, to use his utmost endeavours to gain over Philip V. of Macedon; which, he said, was a step so important, that if it could be gained, they might, without much ado, become masters of all Greece. But if Philip could not be prevailed on to make war on the Romans, he was of opinion that the king should send his son Seleucus into Macedon at the head of an army, and thus prevent Philip from giving the Romans any assistance. But he still maintained, that the only way to defeat the Romans was to send an army into Italy. This advice was again rejected; and the king imprudently became the aggressor, by falling on a body of 500 Romans before war had been declared. He also made Philip his enemy, by entertaining the regent of Athamania, who was a pretender to the crown of Macedon. To complete all, he himself fell in love, though above 50 years of age, with a beautiful young woman of Chalcis, whom he married; and became so great a slave to this passion, that he entirely neglected his affairs; the army gave themselves up to dissipation and debauchery, and every trace of military discipline vanished. In 191 B. C. Antiochus was roused from his lethargy by a declaration of war against him at Rome, and set out for Ætolia. His army at this time amounted to no more than 10,000 foot and 500 horse. He had been made to believe that he would receive a vast reinforcement in Ætolia; but all the troops he could raise there amounted to only 4000 men. With this force, so exceedingly inadequate to the purpose, he was obliged to oppose the Roman army, who were advancing in conjunction with

the Macedonians, and had already made surprising progress. Antiochus seized the Straits of Thermopylæ; but was driven from them by the Romans, the king himself being the first that fled. Almost his whole army was destroyed in the battle or in the pursuit, and Antiochus returned with disgrace into Asia.

(10.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE BATTLE OF MAGNESIA. Soon after his return, Antiochus equipped a fleet of 200 sail; on which he immediately embarked for the Thracian Cherfoneus, now Crim Tartary, where he fortified the cities of Lyfimachia, Sestus, and Abydos, with others in that neighbourhood, to prevent the Romans from crossing the Hellespont. In the mean time Polyxenidas the Syrian admiral sent intelligence to the king that the Roman fleet had appeared off Delos; upon which he desired him to seek them out and engage them at all events. He did so, and was defeated with the loss of 40 ships taken or sunk in the engagement. This was soon after revenged by the destruction of the Rhodian fleet by the artifice of Polyxenidas; but in the end the king's affairs went everywhere to wreck. Having laid siege to the city of Pergamus, he was obliged to raise it with loss; the Phœnician fleet commanded by Hannibal was defeated by the Rhodians; and soon after the Syrian fleet under Polyxenidas was utterly defeated by the Romans. Antiochus was so much disheartened by these repeated defeats, that he appeared like one infatuated. Instead of fortifying more strongly those cities which lay on the frontiers of his kingdom, he entirely deserted them; and thus Lyfimachia and Abydos, the two keys to Asia, fell into the hands of the Romans without the least resistance. The arrival of the Romans in Asia struck Antiochus with such terror, that he instantly sued for peace. The terms he offered were indeed very advantageous, but by no means agreeable to the expectations of the Romans. They therefore gave him this final answer: 1. That since he had drawn upon himself the war, he should defray the whole expence of it: 2. That he should restore liberty in general to all the Greek cities in Asia: and, 3. That, to prevent future hostilities, he should relinquish all Asia on this side Mount Taurus. These terms, however, still appeared to him so intolerable, that he resolved to continue the war; and determined also to take the most imprudent method of carrying it on, namely, by hazarding all on the event of a general engagement. The king encamped near Magnesia, and strongly fortified his camp. The Romans insulted him in his trenches, and proposed to attack his fortifications, if he continued to decline an engagement. At last the king, thinking it would be shameful for him longer to refuse an engagement, fought a battle, which issued in his entire defeat. No less than 50,000 foot and 4000 horse were killed; 1500 were taken prisoners, and 15 elephants. In the consular army there were but 300 foot killed, and 25 horse.

(11.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE PEACE WITH THE ROMANS. Antiochus retired to Sardis with as many of his forces that had escaped the slaughter as he could draw together. From Sardis he soon marched to rejoin his son Seleucus, who

who had fled to Apamea. As for the consul, he took advantage of the king's defeat and flight, making himself master of all the neighbouring countries. Deputies hastened to him from all parts: the cities of Thyatira, Magnesia, Trallis, Magnesia in Caria, all Lydia, and Ephesus itself, though highly favoured by Antiochus, declared for the Romans. Polyxenidas, upon the news of the king's defeat, left the port of Ephesus, and sailed to Patara, where he landed with a very small guard, and returned by land into Syria. The consul took the road to Sardis, which opened its gates to him. Antiochus finding his affairs in a bad situation both by sea and land, hastened to conclude a peace, which he obtained on the following terms: He was to confine his dominions within Mount Taurus; to pay 15,000 Euboic talents for the expenses of the war; to deliver up Hannibal and some other foreigners who were obnoxious to the Romans. For the fulfilment of these articles he gave 70 hostages, one of whom was his youngest son Antiochus. The peace being ratified by the Sarati, the Greek cities were by the Romans restored to their liberty, the provinces of Caria and Lydia given to the Rhodians, and all the rest that had belonged to Antiochus on that side of Mount Taurus bestowed upon Eumenes.

(12.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT. Antiochus did not long survive his misfortune at Magnesia. Some tell us, that being greatly puzzled how to raise the sum he had engaged to pay to the Romans, he seized on the riches which had for many ages been deposited in a temple of Jupiter Belus in the province of Elymais; upon which the populace rose in arms, and slew him and all his attendants. Others inform us that he was killed at an entertainment by one of his guests. Antiochus the Great died in 187, and with him the glory of the Syrian empire.

(13.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF ANTIOCHUS EPIPHANES. Antiochus the Great was succeeded by his son Seleucus IV. surnamed *Philopator*, A. A. C. 187, who reigned only 12 years, dying in 175, and leaving the Syrian throne to his son, or his brother according to Alftidius, ANTIOCHUS IV. surnamed EPIPHANES, the most barbarous and bloody tyrant that ever reigned in Syria. The Romans now gave laws to the kings of Syria; inasmuch, that when Antiochus Epiphanes hesitated at obeying the commands of the senate, one of the ambassadors drew a circle round him with a rod on the floor, and told him he should not go out of that spot before he had told him what he was to do. But the most horrible transactions of this prince are his wars with the Jews, and persecutions of them; of which a full account is given under the article Jews, § 5. and 6.

(14.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CONQUEST BY THE ROMANS. After the miserable death of the monster Epiphanes, at TABÆ, as related under the article Jaws, § 6, the Syrian throne fell a prey to a series of tyrants, impostors, and usurpers, of whom it is sufficient to give the following brief chronological list: ANTIOCHUS V. surnamed EUPATOR, succeeded his wicked father in 164; but reigned only 2 years. He was succeeded

in 162 by DEMETRIUS I. surnamed *Soter*, a brother of Antiochus Epiphanes, who had only reigned 11 years, when, in 151, the crown was claimed by Alexander Balas an impostor, who pretended to be a son of Epiphanes; and being supported in this false claim by Ptolemy Philometor king of Egypt, by the kings of Pergamus and Cappadocia, and by the Romans, defeated and killed Demetrius, and reigned 5 years, some say 6; but was at last killed in Arabia, A. A. C. 146. (See ALEXANDER BALAS.) Demetrius II. surnamed *Nicator*, the lawful heir, being the son of Demetrius I. then succeeded; but he being taken prisoner 2 years after by the Parthians, in 144, the throne was seized by ANTIOCHUS VI. surnamed *Antiochus*, who reigned 2 years along with an usurper named DIODOTUS TRYPHON, who afterwards assumed the sole power for other 3 years, till A. A. C. 139, when he was expelled by ANTIOCHUS VII. surnamed ZIDETES, and also *Pius* and *Soter*, the son of Demetrius I. and brother of Demetrius II. who reigned 10 years. But Demetrius II. being now liberated by the Parthians, was restored to his kingdom; but had reigned only 3 years, when *Alexander Zebina*, a new impostor, who pretended to be the son of the impostor Alexander Balas, being assisted and supported by Ptolemy Physcon, the tyrant of Egypt, expelled Demetrius a second time in 126, and reigned 3 years. In 123, however, the usurper Zebina was justly dethroned and killed by ANTIOCHUS VIII. surnamed *Grypus*, the son of Demetrius II. (See ALEXANDER ZEBINA.) Grypus reigned 19 years in all; but in his 9th year, his brother *Antiochus Cyzicenus* rebelled against him, and in his 11th, A. A. C. 112, erected COELESYRIA into a separate kingdom, wherein he reigned for 18 years, and hence is ranked as ANTIOCHUS IX. by chronologists. On the death of these two brothers, A. A. C. 94 and 93, Seleucus V. a 3d son of Antiochus VIII. claimed the crown of Syria, but was opposed by 4 other pretenders, viz. *Antionius Eusebes*, *Philip*, *Demetrius III.* surnamed *Eucerus*, and *Antiochus X.* surnamed *Pius*, all claiming as descendants of the royal house of the SELEUCIDÆ. These claimants involved the country in a civil war for 6 years; when Philip overcoming them all, reigned 2 years alone. But ARETAS seized Coelesyria in 85; and 2 years thereafter, TIGRANES king of Armenia, taking advantage of the dissensions of the Seleucide, and being invited by a party of the Syrians themselves, reduced the whole country in 83, and governed it for 13 years with more tranquillity than it had enjoyed for a long period. ANTIOCHUS XI. however, surnamed *Asaticus*, or the XIII. as he is styled by some, (for there were other 2 usurpers of the name,) the son of Cyzicenus, who had been skulking in Cilicia, claimed the crown, in A. A. C. 69, and was supported against Tigranes by Lucullus the Roman general, who defeated Tigranes, and declared Antiochus king of Syria. But his reign was short, only 4 years; for Tigranes attempting to recover the kingdom, was defeated by Pompey the Great, who, disregarding Antiochus's claim, reduced the whole kingdom to a Roman province, A. U. C. 691, and A. A. C. 65.

(15.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CONQUEST BY THE SARACENS. From being a province

vince of the Roman republic, Syria became, on the division of the Roman empire, subject to the emperors of the East; but in A. D. 634 it was invaded by the Saracens, who completed the conquest of it in 640, when it was confirmed to them by the treaty made with Constantine IV. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 10; and SARACENS, § 6.

(16.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CONQUEST BY THE TARTARS. In A. D. 970, Syria was conquered by the FATEMITE KHALIFS, soon after their conquest of Egypt. (See EGYPT, § 16. and 17.) But the emirs of Damascus revolted in 1067; and those of Aleppo in 1068. In 1096, the croisades from Europe commenced; and the Christians conquered that part of Syria called the *Holy Land*, which they kept possession of for above 100 years. (See CROISADES, § 3, 4.) In 1166, Nureddin, or Nuroddin, emir of Damascus, defeated the Egyptians, and conquered the greatest part of Syria, (see EGYPT, § 17.); and his nephew, the famous SALADIN, soon after, on the death of the khalif Aded, seized the government of Egypt, put an end to the power of the Fatemites, and erected a new dynasty. (See EGYPT, § 17, 18.) But in 1259 all Syria was over-run and conquered by the Tartars under Hulaku. See EGYPT, § 19.

(17.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CONQUEST BY THE TURKS. The Tartars did not long retain possession of Syria. It was soon recovered by the sultans of Egypt; who also, in 1291, totally expelled the Christian croisaders out of Syria. (See CROISADES, § 4.) Syria was again over-run and ravaged by TAMERLANE, in 1400; but he did not attempt to retain it. After this period it underwent the revolutions of Egypt, till both were conquered by the Turks under SELIM I. in 1517. See EGYPT, § 19.

(18.) SYRIA, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE PRESENT TIME, 1205. Ever since the above conquest by Selim, this country has continued in the undisturbed possession of the Turks, till the invasion of Egypt by the French in 1798, as related under EGYPT, § 21. Soon after that event, Bonaparte over-ran Syria, and took GAZA and JAFFA, or JOFFA, &c. as mentioned under these articles; but found a fatal blow put to his victorious career by British valour, at ACRE, or ST JEAN D'ACRE, the ancient PTOLEMAIS; where the brave Sir Sidney Smith gained immortal fame by the defence of that small town, as related under the article REVOLUTION, N° VI. § 41.

(19.) SYRIA, INHABITANTS, LANGUAGE, &c. OF. The inhabitants may be divided into three principal classes: the descendants of the Greeks of the Lower Empire; the Arabs, their conquerors, consisting of Motoualis, Druses, and Anlatians; and the Turks, the present ruling power; besides three wandering tribes of Turkomen, Curds, and Bedouin Arabs. The ancient inhabitants before the Greeks under Alexander are entirely lost. The inhabitants are of a middling stature, and the eyes of the women almost everywhere beautiful, and their shape correct and well proportioned. The general language is Arabic. Syriac is a dead language.

(20.) SYRIA, MOUNTAINS OF. This country abounds with many celebrated mountains, which will be found described in their order. See ANTI-

LIBANUS, LEBANON, LIBANUS, MORIAH, SINAI, ZION, &c.

(21.) SYRIA, PROVINCES AND CHIEF CITIES OF. Syria is at present divided into five provinces or governments, called *Pachalies*; viz. ALEPPO, TRIPOLI, DAMASCUS, ACRE, and PALESTINE; the capitals of which are ALEPPO, the ancient BEREA, TRIPOLI, DAMASCUS, or *Sham*, or *Sebam*, as the Arabs style it, PTOLEMAIS or ACRE, and JERUSALEM. See these articles.

(22.) SYRIA, REVENUE OF. The whole revenue of this extensive country is estimated by a modern traveller, to bring into the grand signior's treasury only the small sum of 312,500l. Sterling.

(23.) SYRIA, SOIL AND PRODUCE OF. Syria is exceedingly fertile, and the variety of its productions is very great. Besides wheat, rye, barley, beans, and the cotton plant, which is cultivated everywhere, Palestine abounds in fescum, from which oil is procured, and doura as good as that of Egypt. Maize thrives in the light soil of Balbec, and rice is cultivated with success on the borders of the marshy country of Havula. They plant sugar-canes in the gardens of Saide and of Bairout, equal to those of the Delta. Indigo grows without cultivating on the banks of the Jordan, in the country of Bisan, and only requires care to make it of an excellent quality. The hill sides of Latakia produce tobacco. Gaza produces dates and pomegranates; Tripoli affords oranges; Bairout, figs and bananas; Aleppo produces pistachios; and Damascus possesses all the fruits known in Europe: apples, plums, peaches, and twenty sorts of apricots are reckoned there, the stone of one of which contains a kernel highly valued through all Turkey. The cochineal plant, which grows on all that coast, contains that precious insect in as high perfection as it is found in Mexico and St Domingo.

(24.) SYRIA, SURFACE AND CLIMATE OF. Syria is in general a chain of mountains, varying in their levels, situation, and appearances. The country, however, next the sea, is low, and there are several extensive valleys. The climate on the sea-coast and in these valleys is very hot, but in the higher parts of the country it bears a good deal of resemblance to that of France.

(25.) SYRIA, TROOPS OF. All the Turkish troops in the above five pachalies (§ 21.) united, are said to amount to only 5700 men.

(1.) SYRIAC, *adj.* from Syria. Of or belonging to Syria: chiefly used of the language.

(2.) SYRIAC LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY, Sect. IV. and SYRIA, § 19.

SYRIACUM MARE, *the Syrian Sea*, that part of the MEDITERRANEAN which washes the coast of Syria.

(1.) SYRIAN. *adj.* Of or belonging to Syria; born, or produced, or made in Syria.

(2.) SYRIAN, *n. f.* in geography, a large town of Asia, in Regue, near the coast of the Bay of Bengal. Lon. 96. 40. E. Lat. 16. 50. N.

(3.) SYRIAN, a river of Asia, one of the extreme branches of the Ava, which runs into the Bay of Bengal at the above town.

SYRIANS. *n. f.* The natives of Syria, ancient and modern. See SYRIA, § 2. and 19.

SYRINGA, the LILAC, or PIPE TREE, in botany,

botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *diandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system ranking under the 44th order, *Sepiaria*. The corolla is quadrifid, and the capsule is bilocular. There are three species, viz.

1. *SYRINGA PERSICA*, the *Perfian lilac*, is a native of Persia. It has lanceolate leaves, and was cultivated in Britain in the middle of the 17th century, about 1658, or earlier.

2. *SYRINGA SUSPENS*A, the *hauging lilac*, is a native of Japan.

3. *SYRINGA VULGARIS*, the *common lilac*, is originally a native of Persia. It is distinguished by oval heart-shaped leaves, and was cultivated in Britain about 1597, by Mr John Gerard.

(1.) * *SYRINGE*. *n. f.* [*σῦριξ*]. A pipe through which any liquor is squirted.—The heart seems not designed to be the fountain or conservatory of the vital flame, but as a machine to receive the blood from the veins, and force it out by the arteries through the whole body, as a *syringe* doth any liquor. *Ray*.

(2.) The *SYRINGE* is a well-known instrument, serving to imbibe or suck in a quantity of fluid, and to squirt or expel the same with violence. It is formed from the Greek *σῦριξ*, or the Latin *syrix*, a pipe. A syringe is only a single pump, and the water ascends in it on the same principle as in the common sucking pump. See *HYDROSTATICS*, Part II. *Sett.* II.; and *PNEUMATICS*, *Sett.* I.

(3.) *SYRINGE*, CONDENSING. See *PNEUMATICS*, *Sett.* I. Page 699. Col. 1.

* *TO SYRINGE*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To spout by a syringe.—A flux of blood from the nose, mouth, and eye, was stopt by the *syrring* up of oxyerate. *Wifeman*. 2. To wash with a syringe.

SYRINGOIDES LAPIS, a fossil stone. See *PLATE CLXVIII*.

(1.) * *SYRINGOTOMY*. *n. f.* [*σῦριξ* and *τομή*]. The art or practice of cutting fistulas or hollow fores.

(2.) *SYRINGOTOMY*. See *SURGERY*, *Index*, under *FISTULA*.

SYRIX, in the mythology, a nymph of *Arvadia*, daughter of the river-god *Ladon*. *PAN*, the god of shepherds and rural economy, fell in love with her; but when he attempted to offer violence, *Syrinx* preyed to the gods for aid, and was changed into a reed, which thenceforth bore her name, *σῦριξ*. *Pan*, therefore, made a pipe with one of her reeds, and it became his favourite musical instrument. *Ovid. Met.* i. 691.

(1.) *SYRNA*, the wife of *PODALIRIUS*, the son of *Æsculapius*.

(2.) *SYRNA*, an ancient town of *Caria*, built by *PODALIRIUS*, where he was afterwards worshipped.

(1.) *SYRO-GRECIAN*, *adj.* [from *Syria* and *Grecian*], an epithet applied to the empire of the *SELEUCIDÆ* in *Syria*, being founded by the Greeks in *Syria*. See *SYRIA*, § 4—14.

(2.) *SYRO-GRECIANS*, *n. f.* the people of *Syria*, under the *Seleucidæ*, being a mixture of Greeks and Syrians.

(1.) *SYRO-MACEDONIAN*, *adj.* [from *Syria* and *Macedon*], a word synonymous with *SYRO-GRECIAN*.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

(2.) *SYRO-MACEDONIAN ERA*. See *SELEUCIDÆ*, § 4.

SYRO-PHOENICIA, a country lying between *Syria* and *Phoenicia*, inhabited, according to *Borchart*, by natives of both nations mixed.

SYRO-PHOENICIANS, the inhabitants of the above country. They were originally *CANAANITES*. The importunate woman, whose daughter our Saviour cured, after repeated seeming refusal, was a native of this country. See *Mat. xv. 23—28*. *Mark vii. 25—30*.

(1.) *SYROS*, in ancient geography, an island in the *Ægean Sea*, one of the *CYCLADES*; about 20 miles in circumference, and very fertile in corn, wine, and fruits. The climate is mild, and the inhabitants long-lived. *Hom. Od. xv. 504*. *Strabo*, 10.

(2.) *SYROS*, a town of *Caria*. *Paus. iii. c. 25*.

SYRTES, in ancient geography, two large sandbanks in the Mediterranean, on the coast of *Africa*; the one near *Leptis*, the other near *CARTHAGE*. As they often shifted, and were sometimes very high, sometimes very low under water, they were very dangerous, and often fatal to ships. *Mela*, i. c. 7. ii. c. 7.

SYRTICA REGIO, the } a country of *Africa*,
SYRTIC REGION, } one of the three great divisions of ancient *Libya*. (See *CYRENAICA*, *LIBYA*, § 1—4; *LYBIA*, and *MARMARICA*.) It comprehended the coast of *Barbary* between *Tripoli* and *Barca*; and was so named from

(1, 2.) *SYRTIS*, an island and a spacious gulf of *Africa*, on the coast of *Barbary*, between the above limits; now called *Sidra*. (See *SIDRA*, N° 2, 3.) The quicksands in the gulf shifted, whence the word was used as an appellative. See § 3.

(3.) * *SYRTIS*. *n. f.* [Latin.] A quicksand; a bog,—

A boggy *syrtis*, neither sea

Nor good dry land.

Milton.

SYRUP, *n. f.* in pharmacy, a saturated solution of sugar, made in vegetable decoctions or infusions. See *PHARMACY* and *MEDICINE Indexes*, *SIRUP*, and *SUGAR*, § 11. 13. and 19.

(1.) *SYRUS*, in fabulous history, the son of *Apollo* by the nymph *Sinope*. (See *SINOPE*, N° 1.) He is fabled to have given his name to *Syria*. *Plut. in Luc*.

(2.) *SYRUS*, *Publius*, a Syrian mimic poet, who flourished about 44 years B. C. He was originally a slave sold to a Roman patrician called *Domitius*, who brought him up with great attention, and gave him his freedom when of age. He gained the esteem of the most powerful men at *Rome*, and reckoned *J. Cæsar* among his patrons. He soon eclipsed the poet *Lælius*, whose burlesque compositions were in general esteem. There remains of *Syrus* a collection of moral sentences, written in iambics, and placed in alphabetical order.

(3.) *SYRUS*, an island. See *SYROS*, N° 1.

SYSIGAMBIS, or *SISYGAMBIS*, the mother of *DARIUS III.* king of *Persia*. She was so very kindly treated by *Alexander the Great*, that, though she had been able to survive the death of her son, and the overthrow of his empire, she could not survive that of *Alexander*, but killed herself when

N he

he died. See **MACEDON**, § 16; and **ORATORY**, § 267.

SYSONBY, a small town of England, in Leicestershire, near Melton-Mowbray.

SYSSARCOSIS. *n. f.* in anatomy, [from *συσ*, *with*, and *σάρξ*, *flesh*.] a kind of articulation by the intervention of flesh. *Ash*.

(1.) ***SYSTEM**. *n. f.* [*système*, Fr. *συσμα*.] 1. Any complexure or combination of many things acting together. 2. A scheme which reduces many things to regular dependence or co-operation. 3. A scheme which unites many things in order.—He presently bought a *system* of divinity. *Fell*.—Aristotle brings morality into *system*, by treating of happiness under heads, and ranges it in classes. *Baker*.—The best way to learn any science is to begin with a regular *system*. *Watts*.

(2.) **SYSTEM**, in general, [from *συσμα*, *composition*.] denotes a chain of principles and conclusions, or the whole of any doctrine, the several parts whereof are bound together, and depend on each other.

(3.) **SYSTEM**, in music, an assemblage of the rules for harmony, deduced from some common principle by which they are reunited; by which their connection one with another is formed; from whence, as from their genuine source, they natively flow; and to which, if we would account for them, we must have recourse. See **CHROMATIC**, **DIA TONIC**, **ENHARMONIC**, **HARMONY**, **INTERVAL**, and **MUSIC**.

(4.) **SYSTEMS**, in the animal economy, are the *vascular*, the *nervous*, and the *cellular*. See **ANATOMY**, § 389—526.

(5.) **SYSTEMS** of astronomy. See **ASTRONOMY**, *Index*.

(6.) **SYSTEMS** of botany. See **BOTANY**, *Index*.

(7.) **SYSTEMS** of chemistry, new and old. See **CHEMISTRY**, § 31, &c. *passim*; *Index*; and *Vocab.* I. and II.

(8.) **SYSTEMS** of medicine, new and old. See **BRUNonian SYSTEM**, § 4—10. **MEDICINE**, **PHARMACY**, and **SURGERY**, *Indexes*.

SYSTEMATIC *adj.* Systematical.

***SYSTEMATICAL**. *adj.* [*système*, Fr. *συσματικός*; from *system*.] Methodical; written or formed with regular subordination of one part to another.—It will be necessary, in a discourse about the formation of the world, to give you a brief account of some of the most principal and *systematical* phenomena that occur in it. *Bentley*.—Now we deal much in essays, and unreasonably despise *systematical* learning; whereas our fathers had a just esteem for regularity and systems. *Watts*.

***SYSTEMATICALLY**. *adv.* [from *systematical*.] In form of a system.—I treat of the usefulness of writing books of essay, in comparison of that of writing *systematically*. *Boyle*.—Aristotle brings morality into system, distinguishing virtues into their several kinds, which had not been handled *systematically* before. *Baker*.—

SYSTEMATIST. *n. f.* One who adopts a particular system in science; it is chiefly used of botanical writers.

(1.) ***SYSTOLE**. *n. f.* [*συστολή*, Fr. *συστολή*.] 1. [In anatomy.] The contraction of the heart.—The *syssole* resembles the forcible bending of a spring, and the diastole its flying out again to its

natural site. *Ray*. 2. [*συστολή*, Fr.] In Grammar, the shortening of a long syllable.

(2.) **SYSTOLE**, in anatomy, is the opposite state to the *diastole*, or *dilatation of the heart*. See **ANATOMY**, § 377.

SYSTYLE. *n. f.* in architecture, that manner of placing columns where the space between the two shafts consists of two diameters, or four modules. See **ARCHITECTURE**, *Index*.

SYSYGAMBIS. See **SYSGAMBIS**.

SYSYRINCHIUM. See **SISYRINCHIUM**.

SYTHAS, a river of Peloponnesus, running through Sicyonia, into the bay of Corinth. *Pauf.* ii. 7. **SYTHE**. *n. f.* (*Pope*, *Swiss*.) or *Scitbe*, (*Milton*.) or *Scitbe*, (*Shak.*) See **SITHE**, N° 1.

SYWELL, a small town of England, in Northamptonshire, NW. of Wellingborough.

SYXFORD, a town of England, in Yorkshire, on the Nyd; in Netherdale.

SYXHANDEMAN. *n. f.* [*Sax.*] a man of the middle rank, under the Anglo-Saxon government: a man worth 600 shillings. *Ash*.

SYZYCIA, *n. f.* [from *σύν*, *conjunction*.]

SYZYGY, } in astronomy, a term equally used for the conjunction and opposition of a planet with the sun. The word is formed from the Greek *σύν*, which properly signifies *conjunction*. On the phenomena and circumstances of the syzygies a great part of the lunar theory depends. See **ASTRONOMY**, § 627, 638.

SZACK, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Minsk; 24 miles S. of Minsk, now annexed to Russia.

SZADECK, a town of Great Poland, in the late palatinate of Siradia, 22 miles NE. of Siradia, now annexed to Prussia.

SZALGEN, an island in the Black Sea, opposite the mouth of the Danube. Lon. 48. 40 E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 20 N.

SZAMOSFALVA, a town of Transylvania, on the river Sáros, one mile N. of Colofvár. Lon. 45. 9 E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 18 N.

SZAMOSVIVAR. See **SAMOSVIVAR**.

SZASY, a town of Hungary, 4 miles ESE. of Schemnitz.

SZEBEN, a town of Hungary, on the Tereza, 30 miles N. of Căchău, and 48 NW. of Ungvár. In 1604, it was taken by Count Botkay; and in 1663, by the Turks.

SZEBENY, or **HERMANSTADT**. See **HERMANSTADT**.

SZEGED. See **ZEGEDIN**.

SZEKELY, a town of Hungary, formerly fortified, 7 miles NNW. of St Job, and 18 ESE. of Debreczyn. It stood a siege in 1660, but surrendered in 1664, to Abadî, prince of Transylvania, who dismantled it.

SZEKES-FEJERVAR. See **STULWEISENBURG**.

SZEKZARD, a town of Hungary, with a fort, on the Sarvitz, famed for its wine, 27 miles E. of Ziget.

SZELITZE, a town of Hungary, 5 miles W. of Căchău, with a large cavern, which is said to be hot in winter, and very cold in summer.

SZERBESTI, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 52 miles SW. of Jassy.

SZEREGNYI, a town of Hungary, 12 miles N. of Munkacs, and 12 S. of Ungvár.

SZERWENIK,

SZERWENTY, a town of Lithuania, in Wilna, 16 miles SE. of Wilkomierz, now annexed to Prussia.

SZINY, a town of Hungary, 14 miles E. of Căschau.

SZITES, a town of Transylvania, 4 miles W. of Schefburg.

SZITTKEMEN, a town of Prussian Lithuania, 14 miles E. of Goldapp.

SZOBOTISZA, a town of Hungary, on the Marich, 31 miles W. of Topoltzan.

SZOMBATH-HELY, or **STEINAM**, a town of Hungary, built on the ruins of an ancient Roman town, called *Subaria*, 43 miles SSW. of Presburg, and 48 S. of Vienna.

SZOMOLNOK. See **SMELNITZ**.

SZOMUS, a river of European Turkey, in Moldavia, which runs into the Siret, near Dubrada.

SZREBERNIK, a town of Bosnia, 36 miles NNW. of Zwarnik.

SZREDITS, a town of Croatia, 16 miles E. of Carlstadt.

SZRODKA, a suburb of Posnania.

SZTROPKO, a town of Hungary, 28 miles ESE. of Palotza.

SZUCCA, a town of Western Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm, on the Vistula. Lon. 19. 11. E. Lat. 53. 14. N.

SZULGO, a fort of Hungary, 5 miles E. of Bolefko.

SZYATY, a town of Lithuania, in the Palatinate of Troki, 48 miles NNW. of Troki, now annexed to Prussia.

SZYDLOW, a town of Samogitia, 8 miles NNE. of Rosicenne.

T

(1.) * **T** A mute consonant, which, at the beginning and end of words, has always the same sound, nearly approaching to that of *d*; but before an *i*, when followed by a vowel, has the sound of an obscure *s*: as, *notion*, *salvation*; except when *s* precedes *t*: as *Christian*, *question*.

(2.) **T** is used, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbreviation; 3. as a word; and 4. it was anciently used as a numeral. I. As a LETTER, **T**, or *t*, is the 19th of our alphabet, and the 15th consonant. The sound is formed by a strong expulsion of the breath through the mouth, upon a sudden drawing back of the tongue from the fore part of the palate, with the lips at the same time open. The proper sound of *t* is expressed in most words beginning or ending with that letter; as in *take*, *tell*, *bat*, *put*. *Ti* before a vowel has the sound of *fi*, or rather of *shi*, as in *creation*, except when *s* precedes, as in *question*; and in derivatives from words ending in *ty* as *mighty*, *mightier*. Anciently this syllable *ti* was considered as distinct from the vowel that followed it, and such words as *na-ti-on*, *sta-ti-on*, &c. formed trissyllables in poetry, as appears from the version of the Psalms still used in our churches. But now, in modern improved English, *ti* is not considered as a distinct syllable, but only as softening the *t* to the sound of *sh*, as if the words were spelt *na-shon*, *sta-shon*, &c. *Th* has two sounds; the one hard, as *than*, *father*; the other soft, as *thing*, *think*. The sound is hard, in these words, *the*, *then*, *than*, *there*, with their derivatives and compounds; and in the words *that*, *this*, *thus*, *thy*, *they*; and in all words in which *th* comes between two vowels, as, *whether*, *rather*; and between *r* and a vowel, as *broken*: but it is soft in *thane*, *thank*, *thatch*, *show*, *theatre*, *thrift*, *thence*, *theocracy*, and all other derivatives of **ΘΕΟΣ**, *theorem*, *theory*, *thesis*; and all other words of Greek derivation, *thick*, *thief*, *thigh*, *thin*, *third*, *thirst*, *thistle*, *though*, *thong*, *thorn*, *thorough*, *thought*, *thousand*, *thrall*, *thrash*, *thread*, *threat*, *three*, *thrice*, *thrift*, *thrive*, *throat*, *throne*, *throng*, *through*, *thruw*, *thrum*, *thrush*, *thrust*, *thump*, *thunder*, *thursday*, *thwack*, *thwart*, &c. and all their compounds and derivatives. But in the word *thither*, and its compounds, *th*

T A A

sounds soft in the first syllable and hard in the second: and in *thyme* the *h* is not sounded. II. As an ABBREVIATION, **T** was used among the Roman writers, for *Titus*, *Titus*, &c.; *Tab*, for *Tabularius*; *Tab. P. H. C.* *Tabularius Provincie Hispanie Citerioris*; *Tar. Targuinus*; *Ti. Tiberius*; *Ti. F. Tiberii filius*; *Ti. L. Tiberii libertus*; *Ti. N. Tiberii Nepos*; *T. J. A. V. P. V. D.* *tempore judicem arbitrumque postulat ut det*; *T. M. P. terminum posuit*; *T. M. D. D. terminum dedicavit*; *Ti. trans. tribunicus*; *Tr. M. or Mv. tribunus militum*; *TR. PL. DES. tribunus plebis designatus*; *TR. AER. tribunus aerarii*; *TRV. CAP. triumviri capitales*; *T. P. or TRIB. POT. tribunicia potestate*; *Tul. H. Tullus Hostilius*. In music **T** stands for *tutti*, "all or altogether." III. As a word it is used without a vowel, both in Surgery and Mechanics. (See N^o 3, and 4.) IV. As a NUMERAL, **T** was used among the ancients, for one hundred and sixty; and with a dash at top, thus, **T**, it signified one hundred and sixty thousand.

(3.) **T**, *adj.* is used as a distinction for a peculiar kind of bandage, in surgery. See **T BANDAGE**, under **SURGERY**, *Index*.

(4.) **T**, *n. f.* **T SQUARE**, or **TEE SQUARE**, in drawing and mechanics, an instrument so named from its resemblance to a capital **T**.

(1.) **TA**, a river of China, which runs into the East Sea, in Lon. 139. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 55. N.

(2.) **TA**, a town of China of the 2d rank, with a fortress, in the province of Setchuen: 650 miles SW. of Peking. Lon. 125. 1. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 18. N.

(3.) **TA**, or **LOUGH TA**, a lake of Ireland, on the S. coast of Wexford; 3 miles NW. of Carnfore Point, and 9 SSE. of Wexford. It receives several rivers, but having no outlet, would soon desolate the country, if they did not make an outlet by cutting off the bank next the sea; which soon fills up again.

(4.) **TA**, or **TASLOUSAC**, a town of Lower Canada. Lon. 69. 30. W. Lat. 48. 5. N.

TAAFE, or **TAVE**, a very rapid river of S. WALES, in Glamorganshire, which runs into the sea at Cardiff. Over this river, near N 2 Carphilly

Carphilly, there is a stone bridge of one arch, called *Pont y Pryddal*, which is supposed to be one of the widest in the world; being 140 feet in the span across the river, and 34 feet high. It was planned and executed, by a common mason of Glamorganshire, who had acquired all his skill without teaching. Why is not his name at least recorded?

TAAHNGE, an island of Denmark, 16 miles in circumference; with its capital so named; between the isle of Funen and Langeland.

TAAIF, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hedjaz, seated on a mountain in a pleasant and fertile country, 60 miles SE. of Mecca. It has a considerable trade to Mecca and Djidda in almonds, raisins, and other fine fruits.

TAANATH-SHILON, a town of Israel, in Ephraim, 10 miles E. of Shechem. It existed under the name of **THENATH**, as late as A. D. 400.

TAAS, a city of Arabia, in Yemen, at the foot of a fertile hill, called *Sabber*. It is surrounded with a strong wall, from 16 to 30 feet thick, and defended by several towers. It has also a fort, called *Kahbe*, in the circuit of the wall; 2 gates fortified with 3 towers, and a garrison of 600 men. It lies 48 miles NE. of Mocha. Lon. 44. 10. E. Lat. 13. 37. N.

TAATA, a town of Upper Egypt, a mile from the Nile, and 200 miles S. of Cairo. It has many curious relics of antiquity, and is the residence of a governor. It makes a grand appearance from the Nile. Lon. 31. 25. E. Lat. 26. 56. N.

TAAUT, } or **THOTH**, a Phœnician deity,
TAAITES, } the same with **Hermes** of Egypt,
TAAUTOS, } and **Mercury** of the Greeks and
TAAUTUS, } Romans. See **HERMES**, N° 1-3;
MERCURY, N° 1. **MYSTERIES**, § 35; **MYTHOLOGY**, § 10, 11; **POLYTHEISM**, p. 121, col. 2.
SANCHONIATHO, and **THOTH**. But Mr Lempriere makes him the same with **SATURN**, for which he quotes *Varro*.

TAAWIRRY, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, situated, along with the isle of *Bocourou*, on the E. side of Otaheite, and within the reef. Both have good anchorage within the reef. The French ships, under Bougainville, lay here.

TAB, a river of Persia, which separates the provinces of Chusistan and Farsistan, and falls into the Persian Gulf near Chiraz.

TABA, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coast.

TABACHASAN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, in the county of Bozoe, among mountains; seated on the Adena, near its source, 50 miles above the town of Adena.

TABACO, a province of Mexico, in Yucatan, where the **TOBACCO** plant was first discovered, and from which it was named. See **NICOTIANA**, and **TOBACCO**.

TAB/E, an ancient town of Pisidia, (*Liv.* 38. c. 13.), memorable for being the scene of the miserable death of the monster Antiochus Epiphanes. See **JEWS**, § 6; and **SYRIA**, § 14.

TABAGA, or } an island of the S. Pacific
 (1) **TABAGO**, } Ocean, in the bay of Panama, near the coast of Mexico, belonging to Spain; 4 miles long and 3 broad. It is mountainous, but the land slopes, with a gentle descent, on the N. side to the coast, where it is very fertile, and

resembles a garden of fruit and forest trees. The chief productions are plantains and bananas. It has a good road for vessels, from 16 to 18 fathoms water, a mile from the shore. Lon. 80. 16. W. Lat. 7. 50. S. (*Brookes*.) Lat. 82. 9. W. Lat. 8. 40. N. *Cruikwell*.

(2.) **TABAGO**. See **TOBAGO**.

(3) **TABAGO LITTLE**. See **TABAGUILLA**.

TABAGUILLA, a small islet, near **TABAGO**.

TABANIE, a town of Egypt, on the E. branch of the Nile, 6 miles SW. of Mansura.

TABANKA, or **TABARCA**. See **TABARCA**.

TABANUS, the **BREEZE-FLY**, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *diptera*. The mouth is extended in a fleshy proboscis, terminated by two lips. The rostrum is furnished with two pointed palpi placed on each side of the proboscis, and parallel to it. Gmelin has enumerated 38 species; of which three only are found in Great Britain; viz.

1. **TABANUS BOVINUS**, or *great horse fly*, has a grey head; the eyes almost of a black brown, occupying the greatest part of it. The thorax is of a grey colour; the abdomen is yellowish, with a triangular white spot on the middle of every ring, which constitutes a longitudinal band of spots, the point of which is directed towards the thorax. The thighs are blackish, and the legs yellow. The wings are dusky, with brown veins of a deeper dye. This insect is the terror of horned cattle, horses, &c. Its mouth is armed with two sharp hooks which penetrate their hide; while with its proboscis, which is shaped like a siphon, it sucks their blood, of which it is very greedy. The puncture of the tabanus is keen and painful. The insect is very common in damp woods and meadows, especially during the great heats, when it is most troublesome. The horned cattle are sometimes so molested by their stings, that they go mad, run down precipices, tear themselves on the stumps of trees, stones, &c.

2. **TABANUS CONCIUENS** has a brown head; eyes green and brown, with black spots; the thorax brown with black spots; the abdomen above, yellow with triangular brown spots; yellow legs, and white wings with black and brown spots. The length is four lines and a half.

3. **TABANUS PLUVIATILIS** is of an ashen grey colour; its eyes are green, with brown streaks. The thorax is brown, marked with about 7 longitudinal grey lines; the wings, which are brown and ash-coloured, are dotted over with small white spots, and have a black spot on the margin; the legs are surrounded with brown and white rings alternately. This species is very common in meadows, and is about 4 lines in length.

TABAQUER, or **TABARCA**. See **TABARCA**.

TABARA, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, 14 miles N. of Zamora.

(1.) **TABARCA**, an island in the Mediterranean, 2 miles from the coast of Africa, at the mouth of the Zeine, which separates Algiers from Tunis. It was long possessed by the *Lamellini*, or *Lomellini*, a noble family of Genoa, to whom it was given by the celebrated Andrew Doria, to whom the Tunisians had given it in ransom for one of their princes, whom Doria had taken prisoner. It is defended by a castle, well armed, which

which long protected the coral fishery on its coasts. But, in 1740, Ali Bey, the tyrant of Tunis, took it by treachery, massacred part of the Genoese citizens, and carried the rest, about 400, captives. Lon. 9. 16. E. Lat. 36. 50. or 55. N.

(2.) **TABARCA**, a town of Africa, in Tunis, on the coast, opposite the above island.

TABARIA, or **TABERAYAN**, a town of Palestine, anciently called **TIBERIAS**, seated on the W. bank of the Sea of Tiberias, or lake of **GENESARETH**; at the foot of a high mountain, surrounded with walls, except towards the lake. (See **TIBERIAS**.) It has some warm baths. The Christians have a church in it, and the Jews a seminary. It is 30 miles NNE. of Jerusalem, and 70 SSW. of Damascus.

TABAS, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 34 miles S. of Degnizlu.

(1.) **TABASCO**, a province of N. America, in Mexico; bounded N. by the Gulf of Mexico, or bay of Campeachy; E. by Yucatan; S. by Chiapa; and W. by Guaxaca. It is 100 miles long, and equally broad, but Cruttwell says it is narrow. It is fertile in various herbs, maize, rice, barley, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, vines, lemon, orange, and fig trees; also the largest cabbage and cotton trees in the world grow on the banks of the river, N^o 2. The climate is moist and unhealthy, as it rains 9 months in the year. The other three, February, March, and April, are extremely hot, and give birth to numberless swarms of insects. From September to March, tempestuous winds are frequent from the N. Cattle and fish abound. Extensive woods of cedar, brasil wood, mangroves, bamboos, &c. are much frequented by lions, tigers, deer, wild bears, rabbits, apes, squirrels, &c.

(2.) **TABASCO**, a river in the above province, which rises in the mountains of Chiapa, and runs into the Gulf of Mexico; in Lon. 75. 52. E. Ferro. Lat. 17. 40. N.

(3.) **TABASCO**, an island in the above river, N^o 2. 36 miles long, and from 7 to 10 broad; abounding with cattle, mountain cows, and other animals. It is near the bay of Campeachy, but 10 miles from the sea, and 160 SW. of Campeachy. Cortes gained a victory in it, on his first arrival.

(4.) **TABASCO**, a well built town in the above island, (N^o 3.) capital of the island and province, (N^o 1.) much frequented and enriched by merchants and tradesmen. It is seated at the mouth of the Grijalva. Lon. 76. 0. W. Ferro. Lat. 17. 40. N.

TABASHEER, *n. s.* a Persian word, signifying a hard substance found in the cavities of the bamboo or Indian reed, and highly valued as a medicine in the East Indies. From the experiments of Dr Ruffel, it appears, that the tabasheer is the juice of the bamboo thickened and hardened. Its medical effects are mentioned in a Persian work of *Mahammed Monein Hosemy*, by Mr Williams, a surgeon in the East Indies. It is useful in bilious vomitings, the bloody flux, palpitations of the heart, faintings, cases of debility from heat; also in the piles, acute burning fevers, pustules in the mouth, thrush; and, with oxymel, is of great service against restlessness, melancholy, and hypochondriacal affections. The habitual internal use of it is prejudicial to the vile powers, and to the

lungs. Its correctives are the gum of the pine and honey.

TABBAY, one of the Western islands of Scotland, near the E. coast of the isle of Sky. Lon. 2. 37. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 57. 15. N.

(1.) * **TABBY**, *adj.* Brinded; brindled; varied with different colours.—

A tabby cat sat in the chimney corner. *Addison*.

On her tabby rival's face,

She deep will mark her new disgrace. *Prior*.

(2.) * **TABBY**, *n. s.* [*tabis, tabino*, Italian; *tabis*, French.] A kind of waved silk.—

Brocades, and tabbies, and gaufes. *Swift*.

(3.) **TABBY**, in commerce, is a rich silk which has undergone the operation of tabbaying.

TABBYING, *n. s.* a passing the silk or stuff under a calendar, the rolls of which are made of iron or copper variously engraven, which bearing unequally on the stuff renders the surface thereof unequal, so as to reflect the rays of light differently, making the representation of waves thereon.

* **TABEFACTION**, *n. s.* [*tabefactio*, Latin.] The act of wasting away.

* **To TABEFY**, *v. n.* [*tabefacio*, Latin.] To waste; to extenuate.—Meat eaten in greater quantity than is convenient *tabefies* the body. *Harvey*.

TABELLARIÆ LEGES, in Roman antiquity, laws made by *suffrages delivered upon TABELLÆ, tablets*, and not *viva voce*. There were 4 of them, *viz.* the *Gabinian*, by Gabinus, A. U. C. 614; the *Cassian*, by Cassius, A. U. C. 616; the *Papirian*, by Papirius Carbo, A. U. C. 622; and the *Cælian*, by Cælius, A. U. C. 646. *Cic. de Legg.* iii. c. 16.

TABELLIO, in the Roman law, an officer or scrivener, much the same with our notaries-public, who are often called *tabelliones*. See **STIPULATION**, § 2.

TABENE, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Curdistan, 50 miles ESE. of Kerkuk.

TABERAYAN. See **TABARIA**, and **TIBERIAS**.

* **TABERD**, *n. s.* [*taberda*, low Latin; *tabard*, French.] A long gown; a herald's coat: sometimes written *tabard*.

* **TABERDER**, *n. s.* [from *taberd*.] One who wears a long gown.

TABERG, a town of Sweden, in Smaland, near a mountain so named, which abounds in iron ore; 8 miles S. of Jonkioping.

TABERISTAN, a province of Persia, which forms part of **MEZANDERAN**.

(1.) * **TABERNACLE**, *n. s.* [*tabernacle*, French; *tabernaculum*, Latin.] A temporary habitation; a casual dwelling.—

They sudden rear'd

Cælestial tabernacles. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

2. A sacred place; a place of worship.—His works, though consecrated to the *tabernacle*, became the national entertainment, as well as the devotion of his people. *Addison*.

(2.) **The TABERNACLE**, under the Hebrew theocracy, was a kind of building, in the form of a tent, set up, by command of God, for the performance of religious worship, sacrifices, &c. during the journeying of the Israelites in the wilderness: and, after their settlement in Canaan, used for the same purpose till the building of the temple. It was divided into two parts: the one covered,

vered, and properly called the *tabernacle*; and the other open, called the *court*. See *Exod.* xxv-xxvii.

(3.) **TABERNACLES, FEAST OF**, a solemn festival of the Hebrews, observed after harvest, on the 15th day of the month Tisri, instituted to commemorate the goodness of God, who protected the Israelites in the wilderness, and made them dwell in booths, when they came out of Egypt. On the first day of the feast, they began to erect booths of the boughs of trees, and in these they continued 7 days. The booths were placed in the open air, and were not covered with cloths, nor made too close by the thickness of the boughs; but so loose that the sun and the stars might be seen, and the rain descend through them. For further particulars, see *Levit.* xxiii.

* **To TABERNACLE.** *v. n.* [from the noun.] To enshrine; to house.—The Word was made flesh, and tabernacled among us. *John*, i. 14.

TABERNÆ. *n. s. plur.* [Lat.] in Roman antiquity, were houses made of boards, shops, or ware-houses. Such shops set up in conquered countries, gave rise to towns; as,

1. **TABERNÆ RHENANÆ**, a town of Germany, at the conflux of the Rhine and the Felsbach: now called RHINE-ZABERN.

2. **TABERNÆ RIGUÆ**, a town of ancient Gaul, on the Moselle; now called BERN CASTLE.

3. **TABERNÆ TRES.** See **TRES TABERNÆ.**

4. **TABERNÆ TRIBOCORUM**, a town of Gaul, in the ci-devant province of Lower Alsace, now in the department of the Lower Rhine; called *Saverne*. See **SAVERNE**, N° 1.

TABERNÆMONTANA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 30th order, *Contorta*. There are two horizontal folioides, and the seeds are immersed in pulp. There are 8 species, all foreign plants.

TABERNAS, a town of Spain, in Grenada; 15 miles NNE. of Almeria.

TABES. See **MEDICINE, Index.**

TABEYRO, a town of Spain, in Galicia, 5 miles SE. of St Jago.

TABIANA, a town of the Italian kingdom in Parma: 13 miles W. of Parma.

* **TABID.** *adj.* [*tabide*, Fr. *tabidus*, Lat.] Wasted by disease; consumptive.—The *tabid* disposition, or the ulcer of the lungs, is very different from a diminution of the body. *Blackmore*.—In *tabid* persons milk is the best restorative. *Arb*.

* **TABIDNESS.** *n. s.* [from *tabid*.] Consumptiveness; state of being wasted by disease.

TABINSK, a town of Russia, in the province of Upa, on the Bielaia; 40 miles S. of Upa. Lon. 74. o. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. o. N.

TABITHA, or *Dorcas*, a Christian widow at Joppa, who abounded in works of charity, and after dying, was raised to life by St Peter. *Acts* ix, 36-42.

TABLANATZ, a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria, 24 miles NE. of Pedena.

* **TABLATURE.** *n. s.* [from *table*.] Painting on walls or ceilings,

(1.) * **TABLE.** *n. s.* [*table*, Fr. *tabula*, Latin.]

1. Any flat or level surface.—Upon the castle hill there is a bagnio paved with fair *tables* of marble.

Sandys. 2. A horizontal surface raised above the ground, used for meals and other purposes.—

We may again

Give to our *tables* meat. *Shak.*
—If I find not what I seek, let me for ever be your *table* sport. *Shak.*—Children at a *table* never asked for any thing. *Locke.*—This shuts them out from all *table* conversation. *Addison.*—We may safely come to the Lord's *table*. *Kettlewell.*—Differing from other apples, yet is a good *table* fruit. *Mortimer.*

The nymph the *table* spread. *Pope.*
3. The persons sitting at table, or partaking of entertainment.—

To the general joy of the whole *table*. *Shak.*
4. The fare or entertainment itself: as, *he keeps a good table.* 5. A tablet; a surface on which any thing is written or engraved.—He was the writer of them in the *tables* of their hearts. *Hooker.*

To see him every hour; to fit and draw
His arched brows, his hawking eye, his curls,
In our hearts *table*. *Shak.*

All these true notes of immortality
In our hearts *table* we shall written find. *Dav.*
Ev'n this had been your elegy which now
Is offer'd for your health, the *table* of my vow. *Dryden.*

—There are books extant which the Atheist must allow of as proper evidence; even the mighty volumes of visible nature, and the everlasting *tables* of right reason. *Bentley.*—The prætor granted administration, not only according to the *tables* of the testament, but even contrary to those *tables*. *Ayliffe.*—By the twelve *tables*, only those were called into succession of their parents that were in the parents power. *Ayliffe.* 6. [*Tableau*, Fr.] A picture, or any thing that exhibits a view of any thing upon a flat surface.—

Now, infixed, I beheld myself
Drawn in the flat'ring *table* of her eye. *Shak.*
—His Bacchus he so esteemed, that he had rather lose all his father's images than that *table*. *Peach.*
—Saint Anthony has a *table* that hangs up to him from a poor peasant. *Addison.* 7. An index; a collection of heads; a catalogue; a syllabus.—It might seem impertinent to have added a *table* to a book of so small a volume, and which seems to be itself but a *table*. *Evelyn.*—Their learning reaches no farther than the *tables* of contents. *Watts.* 8. A synopsis; many particulars brought into one view.—

No forged *tables*
Of long descents. *Ben Jonson.*
9. The palm of the hand.—
Mistress of a fairer *table*
Hath not history nor fable. *Ben Jonson.*
10. Draughts; small pieces of wood shuted on squares.—

Monsieur the nice,
When he plays at *tables*, chides the dice. *Shak.*
—We are in the world like men playing at *tables*. *Taylor.* 11. To turn the **TABLES.** To change the condition or fortune of two contending parties: a metaphor taken from the vicissitude of the fortune at gaming-tables.—They that are honest would be arrant knaves, if the *tables* would be turned. *L'Estrange.*—If it be thus, the *tables* would be turned upon me. *Dryden.*

(1.) **A TABLE** is a moveable piece of furniture, usually made of wood or stone, and supported on pillars or feet, for the reception of things placed on it.

(3.) **TABLE**, in mathematics, a system of numbers calculated to be ready at hand for expediting astronomical, geometrical, and other operations.

(4.) **TABLES, LAWS OF THE TWELVE**, were the first set of laws of the Romans; thus called either because the Romans then wrote with a style on thin wooden tablets covered with wax; or rather, because they were engraved on tables or plates of copper, to be exposed in the most noted part of the public forum. After the expulsion of the kings, as the Romans had no fixed system of law, ample enough to take in the various cases that might occur, they resolved to adopt the best laws of the Greeks. One Hermodorus was appointed to translate them, and the decemviri arranged them in ten tables. After much care, they were enacted and confirmed by the senate and people, A. U. C. 303. In 304 they found something wanting, which they supplied from the laws of the kings, and from certain customs which use had authorized: all these being engraven on two other tables, made the law of the XII. tables, so famous in the Roman jurisprudence, the source of the civil or Roman law.

(5.) **TABLES OF THE LAW**, in Jewish antiquity, two tables on which was written the decalogue, or ten commandments, given by God to Moses on mount Sinai.

(1.) * **To TABLE. v. a.** [from the noun.] To make into a catalogue; to set down.—I could have looked on him without admiration, though the catalogue of his endowments had been *tabled* by his side. *Shak.*

(2.) * **To TABLE. v. n.** To board; to live at the table of another.—He lost his kingdom, was driven from the society of men to *table* with the beasts. *South.*—You will have no notion of delicacies if you *table* with them. *Felton.*

(1.) **TABLE BAY**, a bay of Africa, on the W. coast of the S. extremity, which washes the foot of **TABLE MOUNTAIN**, near the Cape of Good Hope. See **GOOD HOPE**, N° 2. and **HOTTENTOTS**, § 2.

(2.) **TABLE BAY**, a bay of America, on the N. Atlantic Ocean, on the E. coast of Labrador. Lon. 20. 57. W. Lat. 53. 45. N.

* **TABLEBED. n. s.** [from *table* and *bed*.] A bed of the figure of a table.

* **TABLEBEER. n. s.** [*table* and *beer*.] Beer used at victuals; small beer.

(1.) * **TABLEBOOK. n. s.** [*table* and *book*.] A book on which any thing is graven or written without ink.—

What might you think,

If I had play'd the desk or *table book*? *Shak.*
—Nature wipes clean the *table-book* first. *Merr.*
Put into your *table-book* whatsoever ye judge worthy. *Dryden.*

Nature's fair *table-book*, our tender souls,
We scrawl all o'er. *Swift.*

(2.) **TABLE BOOK.** See **WRITING**.

(1.) * **TABLECLOTH. n. s.** [*table* and *cloth*.] Linen spread on a table.—I will end with Odo hold-

ing master doctor's mule, and Anne with her *tablecloth*. *Camden.*

(2.) **TABLE CLOTH**, in meteorology, a white cloud resembling a table-cloth, often seen on the top of **TABLE MOUNTAIN**. See **GOOD HOPE**, N° 2.

(1.) **TABLE ISLAND**, an island in the North Sea, near the coast of Spitzbergen. Lon. 20. 30. E. Lat. 80. 57. N.

(2.) **TABLE ISLAND**, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, one of the New Hebrides. Lon. 167. 7. E. Lat. 15. 38. S.

TABLE LAND. See **GOOD HOPE**, N° 2.

* **TABLEMAN. n. s.** A man at draughts.—In clericals the keys are lined, and in colleges they use to line the *tablemen*. *Bacon.*

(1.) **TABLE MOUNTAIN**, a mountain of Africa, the most westerly cape in that part of the world, and near the Cape of Good Hope. See **GOOD HOPE**, N° 2. and **HOTTENTOTS**, § 2. It is so called from its flat summit, which resembles a *table*: Yet by its height it is seen at 30 miles distance at sea, in clear weather, being 3,567 feet above the sea level.

(2.) **TABLE MOUNTAIN**, a mountain of Ireland, in Wicklow; 15 miles W. of Wicklow.

(3.) **TABLE MOUNTAINS**, a range of Mountains in the United States, in N. Carolina. Lon. 81. 40. W. Lat. 36. 0. N.

* **TABLER. n. s.** [from *table*.] One who boards. *Ainsworth.*

(1.) * **TABLET. n. s.** [from *table*.] 1. A small level surface. 2. A medicine in a square form.—It hath been anciently in use to wear *tablets* of arsenick, or preservatives, against the plague. *Bac.* 3. A surface written on or painted.—It was by the authority of Alexander, that through all Greece the young gentlemen learned to design upon *tablets* of boxen wood. *Dryden.*

The pillar'd marble, and the *tablet* brass,
Mouldering, drop the victor's praise. *Prior.*

(2.) **TABLET**, in confectionary, a cake of sugar, ginger and other spiceries, made thin and in a level form, to be cut into small squares, of about 2 inches each.

* **TABLETALK. n. s.** [*table* and *talk*.] Conversation at meals or entertainments; table discourse. Let me praise you while I have a stomach.

—No; let it serve for *tabletalk*. *Shak.*

His fate makes *tabletalk*. *Dryden's Juvenal.*
—He improves by the *tabletalk*. *Guardian.*—No fair adversary would urge loose *tabletalk* in controversy. *Atterbury.*

TABLE VALLEY, a valley of Africa, at the Cape of Good Hope, surrounded by 3 mountains, called **TABLE MOUNTAIN**, *Devil's Tower*, and *Lion's Head*. The *Cape Town* is seated in it: See **GOOD HOPE**, N° 2. and **HOTTENTOTS**, § 2.

TABLIER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vendée; 6 miles SSE. of Roche sur Yon, and 9 NW. of Luçon.

(1.) **TABO**, a town of Africa, on the Ivory coast.

(2.) **TABO DAGROU**, a town of Africa, in Quoja.

(3.) **TABO DUNE**, a town of Africa on the Ivory Coast.

TABOA, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the Mondego: 9 miles S. of Viseu.

TABOGA. See **TABAGO**.

TABOGUILLA,

TABOGUILLA, or **LITTLE TABAGO**, an island in the bay of Panama, near Tabago. The channel between them is narrow, but good. Ships pass by it to Point Chama.

(1.) **TABOO**, *adj.* a word used by the South Sea islanders, nearly of the same import as prohibited or interdicted. It applies equally to persons and things, and is also expressive of any thing sacred, devoted, or eminent.

(2.) **TABOO**, in geography, a kingdom of Africa, SW. of Fezzan.

TABOOYAMANOO, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, subject to HUAHEINE, one of the SOCIETY ISLANDS.

(1.) **TABOR**, in ancient geography, a mountain of Galilee, near Kadeth, about 12 miles from TIBERIAS. It has the form of a sugar-loaf, in the midst of an extensive plain, and is 30 stadia in height. (*Josephus*.) The ascent is so easy, that one may ascend on horseback. On the top there is a plain two miles in circumference. Flavius Josephus, the historian and governor of Galilee, caused the summit of this mountain, for two miles and a half, to be surrounded with walls. The inhabitants of Tabor long braved the power of the Roman armies; but being deprived of water, they were forced to surrender to Placidius the general of Vespasian. Several churches and monasteries were built upon this mountain by St Helen. Tabor was also the seat of a bishop, dependant on the patriarch of Jerusalem. When Godfrey of Bouillon seized on this mountain, he repaired the ancient churches. Under Baldwin I. in 1113, the Saracens retook Tabor. It again fell into the hands of the Christians; but the Catholic standard was by Saladin pulled down the year after, and all the churches destroyed. The Christians retook it in 1253; and rebuilt them. Pope Alexander IV. granted Tabor to the Templars, who fortified it again. At length, in the course of 1290, the sultan of Egypt destroyed and laid waste the buildings of this mountain, which could never be repaired afterwards; so that it is now uninhabited.

(2.) **TABOR**, a city given by the Zebulonites to the Merarites. 1 *Chron.* vi. 77.

(3.) **TABOR**, in modern geography, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Bechin, founded by the Hussites, under John Ziska; who, after plundering and razing the town of *Austi*, in 1420, built Tabor, in the form of a *camp of houses* out of its ruins, whence the Hussites were named **TABORZI**, or **TABORITES**. Being seated on a steep mountain, on the river **LUZNICE**, it is naturally strong. It is also fortified with a ditch, walls, and bulwarks. The emperor Sigismund made it a royal borough. Albert of Austria in vain attempted to take it. But Rodolph II. took it by stratagem, in 1611. It was also taken in 1621, 1648, and 1744. It is 10 miles NNE. of Bechin, and of Budweis.

TABORITES. See **TABOR**, N° 3.

TABORNOST, a town of Africa, in Darah.

TABORO, a mountain of Naples, in the W. part of the Principato Citra; near Lavora.

TABOROWKA, a town of Poland, in the Palatinate of Kiow; 16 miles WNW. of Bialacerkiew.

TABORZI. See **TABOR**, N° 3.

* **TABOUR**, *n. f.* [*tabourin*, *tabour*, old French.]

A small drum; a drum beaten with one stick to accompany a pipe.—If you did but hear the pedlar at door, you would never dance again after a *tabour* and pipe. *Shak.*

The shepherd knows not thunder from a *tabour*. *Shak.*

The *tabour* and the pipe some take delight to sound. *Drayton*

—Morrice dancers danced a maid marian, and a *tabour* and pipe. *Temple.*

* To **TABOUR**. *v. n.* [*taborer*, old French, from the noun.] To strike lightly and frequently.—And her maids shall lead her as with the voice of doves, *tabouring* upon their breasts. *Nab. ii. 7.*

* **TABOUREK**. *n. f.* [from *tabour*.] One who beats the *tabour*.—

Would I could see this *tabourer*. *Shak.*

* **TABOURET**. *n. s.* [from *tabour*.] A small *tabour*.—They shall depart the manor before him with trumpets, *tabourets*, and other minstrelsy. *Spenser.*

* **TABOURINE**. *n. f.* [French.] A *tabour*; a small drum.

Make it mingle with our rattling *tabourines*. *Shak.*

TABOUROT, Stephen, a French poet, born at Dijon, in 1549. He was king's advocate, in the parliament of Dijon; and was a man of genius, but addicted to trifles; and his poetry was licentious, agreeably to the taste of the times. He published *Les Bigarreaux*, Paris, 1582; and *Les Touches*, Paris, 1585; with some other pieces; in all of which he assumed the whimsical title of *Lord of Accords*. See **ACCORDS**. He died 24th July, 1563, aged 46.

TABRACA, an ancient sea-port town of Africa, near Hippo. It was made a Roman colony. The forests abounded with monkeys. *Plin. v. 3.*

* **TABRERE**. *n. f.* *Tabourer*. Obsolete.—

Before them yode a lusty *tabrere*,

That to the merry hornpipe plaid. *Spenser.*

* **TABRET**. *n. f.* A *tabour*.—I might have sent thee away with mirth and with *tabret*. *Gen. xxxi. 27.*

TABRISTAN, a province of Persia, on the S. coast of the Caspian Sea.

TABUDA, in ancient geography, a river of Germany, now called the **SCHELD**. *Ptol.*

TABUE, a town of Egypt, on the Nile; 9 miles SW. of Menuf.

TABUK, a town of Asia, in Palestine; 208 miles ESE. of Jerusalem.

* **TABULAR**. *n. f.* [*tabularis*, Lat.] 1. Set down in the form of tables or synopses. 2. Formed laminae.—Most of the spotted ones, and indeed all whatever, except those that are *tabular* and plated. *Woodward.* 3. Set in squares.

* To **TABULATE**. *v. a.* [*tabula*, Lat.] 1. To reduce to tables or synopses. 2. To shape with a flat surface.

* **TABULATED**. *adj.* [*tabula*, Lat.] Having a flat surface.—Many of the best diamonds are pointed with six angles, and some *tabulated* or plain. *Grew.*

TABURNUS, a mountain of Italy, in Campania, abounding with olives. *Virg. Geor. ii. 38.*

TABY, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland; 14 miles SE. of Nordkiöping.

TACALAPPO, a town of Mexico, in Tabasco; 23 miles SW. of Tabasco.

TACAMAHAC

TACAMAHAU, } in pharmacy, a solid re-
TACAMAHAU, } sin, improperly called a
 gum in the shops. It exudes from a species of
 poplar; and is in repute for mitigating pains and
 aches, and is also reckoned a vulnerary. See **MAT-
 TERIA MEDICA**.

(1.) **TACAMES**, or *Atacames*, a province of
 S. America, in Terra Firma, N. of Guayaquil,
 and W. of the Andes. It contains 20 towns, 5
 of which are on the sea-coast. The inhabitants
 of these 5 are Spaniards, mestizoes, negroes, and
 various casts, sprung from these. Those of the
 other 15 are mostly American Indians. The cli-
 mate and produce are similar to those of Gua-
 yaquil. It also produces grain, fruits, cocoa nuts,
 vanilla, sarsaparilla, indigo, and much honey and
 wax; and the forests abound with trees of great
 height and bulk, very thick set.

(2.) **TACAMES BAY**, a bay of the Pacific Ocean
 on the coast of Peru. Lat. 1. 6. N.

TACAPE, an ancient town of Africa.

TACATUA, a sea port town of Numidia.

TACAZZE, a river of Africa, in Abyssinia,
 and, next to the Nile, the largest in that empire.
 It rises from 3 sources in the district of Angot, a-
 bout 200 miles SE. of Gondar; runs between Sire
 and the mountains of Samen, and joins the Nile,
 at Nak, in Nubia. Mr Bruce says, that it carries
 near one third of the water which falls on the
 whole empire; and when passing it, he saw the
 marks of its stream, the preceding year, 18 feet
 perpendicular above the bottom; nor could it be
 ascertained whether this was the highest point to
 which it had reached. It is extremely pleasant;
 being shaded with fine lofty trees, the water ex-
 tremely clear, and the banks adorned with the
 most fragrant flowers. At the ford where they
 crossed, this river was fully 200 yards broad, and
 about three feet deep; running very swiftly over a
 bottom of pebbles. At the edge of the water the
 banks were covered with tamarisks, behind which
 grew tall and stately trees, that never lose their
 leaves. It abounds with fish, and is inhabited by
 crocodiles and hippopotami; the former often
 carry off people who attempt to cross the river
 upon blown up skins. The neighbouring woods
 are full of lions and hyænas. The Tacazze is
 marked by Mr Bruce in his map as a branch of
 the Atfaboras, which falls into the Nile. The
 Lat. of the ford was 13° 42' 45" N.

TACCA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging
 to the class of *dodecandria*, and order of *trigynia*.
 The flower is above. The corolla has six petals,
 and is vaulted. The calyx is hexaphyllous; the
 fruit a dry, angular, three-celled berry. There is
 only one species; viz.

TACCA PINNATIFIDA.

TACHAR, a town of Asia, in Thibet; 43
 miles S. of Tourfan.

TACFARINAS, a Numidian who, after serving
 some time in the Roman legions, became a gene-
 ral in his own country, and commanded an army
 against its conquerors in the reign of Tiberius.
 In the course of this war he repeatedly defeated
 Tiberius's generals. Tacfarinas was at last killed
 in battle, performing heroic deeds of valour, by
 Dabala. Tac. Ann. ii.

TACHA. See **TACHAU**.

TACHAMPSO, an island in the Nile, near
 Thebais. The Egyptians held one half of it, and
 the Ethiopians the other. Herodot. ii.

TACHARD, Guidon, or Guy, a traveller, and
 writer, who accompanied M. De Chaumont, as
 missionary, in his embassy to Siam, in 1686, and
 returned to Europe in 1688. He again went to
 India, in his apostolic function; and died there
 in 1694. He published *Voyage de Siam, en 1685*.

TACHAR SEGHIN, a town of Asia, in Thi-
 bet; 50 miles S. of Tourfan.

TACHAU, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of
 Pilsen, 22 miles S. Embogen, and 28 W. of Pilsen.
 It was besieged by Zisca, in 1421, without suc-
 cess; in 1427, he took it by storm, and sacked it.
 In 1431, it was besieged by the Germans in vain.

* **TACHE**. *n. f.* [from *tack*.] Any thing taken
 hold of; a catch; a loop; a button.—Make fifty
taches of gold, and couple the curtains together
 with the *taches*. Exod. xxv. 6.

TACHENS, a lake of Bavaria, in Saltzburg, 5
 miles long and 1 broad; 14 m. NW. of Saltzburg.

TACHIFI, a cape on the coast of Mexico; 12
 miles from Pomaro.

TACHOW, or **TACHAU**. See **TACHAU**.

TACHUS, or **TACHOS**, a king of Egypt, who
 flourished in the reign of Artaxerxes Ochus, but
 was dethroned by NECTANEBUS II.

* **TACHYGRAPHY**. *n. f.* [ταχυς and γραφο.]
 The art or practice of quick writing.

TACINA, a river of Italy, in the country of
 the Brutii.

* **TACIT**. *adj.* [tacite, Fr. tacitus, Latin.] Sil-
 lent; implied; not expressed by words.—There
 is a natural and *tacit* confederation amongst all
 men, against the common enemy of human socie-
 ty, pirates. Bacon.—In elective governments there
 is a *tacit* covenant, that the king of their own
 making shall make his maker's princes. L'Esrange.
 —Capacioufness not only produces misbecoming
 expressions and carriage but is a *tacit* reproach of
 some incivility. Locke.

TACITA, in the Roman mythology, the god-
 des of Silence. King Numa Pompilius paid par-
 ticular veneration to her.

* **TACITLY**. *adv.* [from *tacit*.] Silently; with-
 out oral expression.—While they are exposing an-
 other's weaknesses, they are *tacitly* aiming at their
 own commendations. Addison.—Indulgence to the
 vices of men can never be *tacitly* implied. Rogers.

* **TACITURNITY**. *n. f.* [taciturnité, French;
taciturnitas, Lat.] Habitual silence.—

The secretest of natures

Have not more gift in *taciturnity*. Shaks.
 Some women have some *taciturnity*. Donne.
 —Too great loquacity, and too great *taciturnity* by
 fits. Arbuthnot.

(1.) **TACITUS**, Caius Cornelius, a celebrated
 Roman historian, and one of the greatest men of
 his time, born about A. U. C. 809. He applied
 himself early to the bar, in which he gained high
 reputation. Having married the daughter of A-
 GRICOLA, the road to public honours was open
 to him, under Vespasian and Titus; but during
 the sanguinary tyranny of Domitian, he and his
 friend Pliny retired from public affairs. The
 reign of Nerva restored these luminaries of litera-
 ture to Rome, and Tacitus was engaged, in 850,

to pronounce the funeral oration of the venerable Virginius Rufus, the colleague of the emperor in the consulship, and afterwards succeeded him as consul A. D. 97. It is supposed that he died in the end of the reign of Trajan. His works which remain are, 1. Five books of his History. 2. His Annals. 3. A Treatise on the different Nations who then inhabited Germany. 4. The Life of Agricola. 5. A Treatise on Eloquence. No ancient author has obtained a more splendid reputation than Tacitus. Kings, princes, and authors of all ranks have read and admired him; though a spirit of liberty runs through his whole works. Never were description and sentiment so beautifully blended; nor the actions and characters of men delineated with such precision. In short, he has all the merits of other authors without their defects. There have been 5 translations of his works into English.

(2.) **TACITUS**, M. Claudius, an excellent emperor of Rome, who succeeded Aurelian, A. D. 275. See **ROME**, § 77.

(1.) * **TACK**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A small nail. 2. The act of turning ships at sea.—

At each *tack* our little fleet grows less. *Dryden*.
5. To hold **TACK**. To last; to hold out. *Tack* is still retained in Scotland, and denotes hold or persevere in cohesion.—

Martinmas beefe doth bear good *tack*. *Thf.*

If this twig be made of wood

That will hold *tack*, I'll make the fur
Fly 'bout the ears of that old cur. *Hudibras*.

(2.) **TACK**, in Scots law, § 1. *def* 3. See **LAW**, Part III. *Chap.* II. *Sec.* vi. 8; and **LEASE**, § 3.

(3.) **TACK**, in ship-building, a rope used to confine the foremast lower corners of the courses and stay-sails in a fixed position, when the wind crosses the ship's course obliquely; also the rope employed to pull out the lower corner of a studding-sail or driver to the extremity of its boom. The main-sail and fore-sail of a ship are furnished with a tack on each side, which is formed of a thick rope tapering to the end, and having a knot wrought upon the largest end, by which it is firmly retained in the clew of the sail. One tack is thus always fastened to the windward, at the same time that the sheet extends the sail to the leeward.

(4.) **TACK** is also applied, by analogy, to that part of any sail to which the tack is usually fastened. A ship is said to be on the starboard or larboard tack, when she is close-hauled, with the wind upon the starboard or larboard side; and in this sense the distance which the sails in that position is considered as the length of the tack; although this is more frequently called **BOARD**. See that article.

(1.) * To **TACK**. *v. a.* [*tacher*. Breton] 1. To fasten to any thing. It has now a sense approaching to contempt.—

Thy great arm, which spans the East and West,
And *tacks* the centre to the sphere! *Herbert*.

But living as you list, and to your mind,
And loosely *tack'd*, all must be left behind.

Dryden.

—The symmetry of cloathes fancy appropriates to the wearer, *tacking* them to the body as if they belonged to it. *Grew*.—Frame so as to be covered with the hair-cloth, or a blanket *tacked* about the edges. *Mortimer*.—They serve every turn that

shall be demanded, in hopes of getting some commendam *tacked* to their fees. *Swift*. 2. To join to unite; to stitch together.—The half shirt is two napkins *tack'd* together. *Shak*.—I *tack'd* two plays together for the pleasure of variety. *Dryden*.

(2.) * To **TACK**. *v. n.* [probably from *tackle*.] To turn a ship.—This verbifier they continue to be the compass, which is better interpreted the rope that turns the ship; as we say, makes it *tack* about. *Brown*.—Seeing Holland fall into close measures with us and Sweden, upon the triple alliance, they have *tacked* some points nearer France. *Temple*.

On either side they nimbly *tack*. *Dryden*.

They give me signs

To *tack* about, and steer another way. *Addison*.

(3.) To **TACK**, (§ 2.) is to change the course from one board to another, or turn the ship about from the starboard to the larboard tack, in a contrary wind. Thus a ship being close hauled on the larboard tack, and turning her prow suddenly to windward, receives the impression of the wind on her head-sails, by which she falls off upon the line of the starboard tack. **TACKING** is also used in a more enlarged sense, to imply the manoeuvre in navigation by which a ship makes an oblique progression to the windward, in a zigzag direction. This, however, is more usually called *beating*, or *turning to windward*. See **NAVAL TACTICS**, **NAVIGATION**, and **SAILING**.

TACKING, *part. n. f.* See last article, and the references there pointed out.

(1.) * **TACKLE**. *n. f.* [*tackel*, Welsh, an arrow.

1. An arrow.—

The *takil* smote, and in it went. *Chaucer*.

2. Weapons; instruments of action.—

She to her *tackle* fell,

And on the knight let fall a peal

Of blows so fierce, and press'd so home,

That he retir'd. *Hudibras*.

—He resolved to take up his *tackle* and be gone. *L'Estrange*. 3. [*Tackel*, a rope, Dutch.] The ropes of a ship; in a looser sense, all the instruments of sailing.—

The sails of gold, of silk the *tackle* were.

A seeming mermaid steers; the silken *tackle*
Swell with the touches of those flower-soft
hands

That yarely frame the office. *Shak*.

Though thy *tackle's* torn,

Thou shew'st a noble vessel. *Shak*.

A stately ship

With all her bravery on, and *tackle* trim. *Mil-*
—As for *tackle*, the Boeotians invented the oar.
Dædalus and his son Icarus, the masts and sails.
Heylyn.—

Ere yet the tempest roars

Stand to your *tackle*, mates. *Dryden*.

—If he drew the figure of a ship, there was not a rope among the *tackle* that escaped him. *Addison*.

(2.) **TACKLE**, (§ 1. *def* 3.) in ship-building. See **MAST**, § 2; **ROPE-MAKING**, *Sec.* III.—VIII. **SHIP**, § 15; and **SHIP-BUILDING**.

TACKLE-BOARD. *n. f.* [*tackle* and *board*.] See **ROPE-MAKING**, *Sec.* V.

* **TACKLED**. *adj.* [from *tackle*.] Made of ropes *tacked* together.—

My man shall

Bring the cords, made like a *tackled* stair. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TACKLING.** *n. s.* [from *tackle*.] 1. Furniture of the mast. They wondered at their ships and their *tacklings*. *Abbot.*—*Tackling*, as sails and cordage, must be foreseen. *Bacon.*—

Our *tackling* yields, and wrecks at last succeed.

Garth.

2. Instruments of action: as *fishing* tackling, *kitchen* tackling.—I will furnish him with a rod, if you will furnish him with the rest of the *tackling*, and make him a fisher. *Walton.*

(2.) **TACKLING.** See **FISHERY**, **FISHING**, **FISHING-FLOAT**, **FISHING-HOOK**, **NET**, &c. also **TACKLE**, § 2. and the articles there referred to.

TACKSMAN, *n. s.* See **TENURE**.

TACKUMBRET, a town of Africa, anciently called *Siga* or *Sigeum*, and once the capital of Mauritania; seated on the coast of the Mediterranean, 44 miles SW. of Oran.

TAC-CONG-LOCHE, a town of the Chinese empire, in the island of Formosa. Lon. 137. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 22. 22. N.

TAC-COU, a river of China, in Chan-tong, which runs into the East Sea; 7 miles ENE. of Kiao.

TAC-POU-CHAI, } 2 towns of Thibet; the one
TAC-POU-NAI, } 255 miles SE. of Lassa; the other 240.

TACPOY, a city of Thibet, and capital of a district so named; 126 miles SE. of Lassa, and 150 NNW. of Ghergong. Lon. 92. 52. E. Lat. 28. 13. N.

TACQUET, Andrew, a Jesuit of Antwerp, who flourished in the 17th century. He was a most labourious writer in mathematics; and published *A treatise on Astronomy*, an edition of *Euclid*, and many other tracts. His works were collected, and printed at Antwerp, in one large volume, folio, 1669. He died in 1660.

TACSAI RAKI, a lake of Asia, in Thibet, 36 miles in circumference. Lon. 16. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 32. 0. N.

* **TACTICAL.** } *adj.* [*tacticos*, *tattuo*, *tac-*
(1.) * **TACTICK.** } *ique*, Fr.] Relating to the art of ranging a battle.

(2.) * **TACTICKS**, *n. s.* [*tactica*.] The art of ranging men in the field of battle.—When Tully had read the *tacticks*, he was thinking on the bar, which was his field of battle. *Dryden.*

(3.) **TACTICS**, in the art of war, is the method of disposing forces to the best advantage in order of battle, and of performing the several military motions and evolutions.

(4.) **TACTICS**, **NAVAL.** See **NAVAL TACTICS**.—It is to the late ingenious and justly celebrated Mr **CLERK**, that Great Britain owes the present highly improved state of her Naval Tactics, in which she is superior to all the other powers of Europe; and for which she is chiefly indebted for the glory of all our naval victories, obtained since the 12th of April, 1782, when these improved tactics were first carried into practice. Rodney, Howe, Duncan, Jervis, Nelson, and all our other brave naval heroes, have been highly and deservedly honoured and rewarded, for their important services in this line. But *what honours, what rewards*, have been conferred on Mr Clerk, whose astonishing genius laid

the foundation of all these brilliant victories, which have contributed, at such a critical period, to preserve our free constitution, and all the liberty and independence Britons still boast and enjoy?

* **TACTILE.** *adj.* [*tañile*, Fr. *tañilis*, *tañum*, Lat.] Susceptible of touch.—

She on the scene her *tactile* sweets presented.

Braumont.

—We have iron, sounds, light, figuration, *tactile* qualities. *Hale.*

* **TACTILITY.** *n. f.* [from *tactile*.] Perceptibility by the touch.

* **TACTION.** *n. f.* [*tañion*, Fr. *tañio*, Lat.] The act of touching.

TACUBA, a town of Mexico, NW. of the city. **TACUMADAARS**, or **TIGUMEDS**, a town of Africa, in Darah, the original country of the reigning sheriffs of Morocco.

TACUNGA, a populous city of Peru, in Quito, 20 miles S. of Quito. The inhabitants drive a great trade in woollen cloths, which they manufacture. It has the ruins of a noble palace of the yncas. It had also a grand temple of the Sun.

TACZLI, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Danube, near Kilia, in Bessarabia.

TADAMERI, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore: 100 miles NE. of Chittadroog, and 140 NNE. of Seringapatam.

TADAPOOLY, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore: 5 miles SE. of Sattimungulam.

TADCASFER, a town of England in the W. Riding of Yorkshire, noted for plenty of limestone dug up near it; and for being one of the first places in which a building was erected for Sunday schools. It is 9 miles SW. of York, and 188 N. of London.

TADCUL, a town of Hindoostan, in the Myfore; 6 miles SE. of Caveripatara.

TADEN, a town of Holstein; 14 miles E. of Meldorp.

TADER, a river of Spain near New Carthage.

(1.) **TADIVAN**, or **TADOUN**, a town of Asiatic Turkey in Armenia, on lake Van, with a harbour: 120 miles SSE. of Erzerum.

(2.) **TADIVAN**, or **TADUAN**, a town of Persia, in Farshitan, seated in a beautiful plain, among springs, and surrounded with excellent fruit-trees: 60 miles S. of Schirau.

TADMOK. See **PALMYRA**.

TADORNA. See **ANAS**, N° 36.

TADOUN. See **TADIVAN**, N° 1.

TADOUSAC, a town of N. America, in Lower Canada, at the mouth of the **SAGUENY**, on the left side of the St Lawrence. It is a place of great resort for the American Indians, who give furs in exchange for cloth, and other European goods. It was first settled by the French, but was taken by the English in 1529. It was retaken by the French in 1633; but ceded to Britain with the rest of Canada, at the peace in 1763. It is 100 miles NE. of Quebec. Lon. 69. 40. W. Lat. 48. 5. N.

(1.) * **TADPOLE.** *n. f.* [*tad*, *toad*, and *pola*, a young one, Saxon.] A young shapeless frog or toad, consisting only of a body and a tail; a porwiggle.—

I'll broach the *tadpole* on my rapier's point. *Shak.*

—Poor Tom eats the toad and the *tadpole*. *Shak.*

—The result is not a perfect frog but a *tadpole*.

O 2

Eay.

Ray.—A black and round substance began to dilate, and after awhile the head, the eyes, the tail to be discernible, and at last become what the ancients called *gyrinus*, we a porwiggle or *tadpole*. *Brown*.

(2.) A *TADPOLE* is a young frog before it has disengaged itself from the membranes that envelope it in its first stage of life. See *RANA*, N° 3, and 9; and *SPALLANZANI*.

TADUAN. See *TADIVAN*, N° 2.

TADWORT, a town of England in Surrey; S. of Banstead.

TÆDIUM VITÆ, [Lat.] Weariness of life. See *ENNUI*, and *SUICIDE*.

TÆL-PE, in zoology. See *TARTARY*, N° III.

* *TA'EN*, the poetical contraction of *taken*.

TENARIA, festivals held in honour of Neptune, at Tænarus.

TENARIUS, a name of Neptune; from

(1.) *TENARUS*, a promontory of Laconia, the most southern point of the Morea, where Neptune had a temple. It is now called *MATAPAN*. It had a large and deep cavern, whence issued a black unwholesome vapour, (probably *FIXED AIR*, or *CARBONIC ACID GAS*), whence the poets feigned that it was one of the entrances to hell, through which Hercules dragged the triple-headed infernal dog, *CERBERUS*, up to the earth. Pausanias says, that this cavern was the resort of a large serpent, whose bite was mortal, and which Hercules killed and carried to Eurytheus; and that this gave rise to the story of his chaining the dog of hell.

(2.) *TENARUS*, a town of Laconia, 40 stadia from the cape, (N° 1.) famous for beautiful green marble.

(3.) *TENARUS*, a son of Neptune, who gave name to the cape, town, and festivals.

(I.) *TÆNIA*, in architecture, a member of the Doric capital, resembling a square fillet, serving instead of a cymatium, being made fast to a capital below the triglyphs, whereof it seems the base.

(II.) *TÆNIA* in entomology, the *TAPE-WORM*, a genus of animals belonging to the class of *vermes*, and order of *intestina*. The body is long, depressed, and jointed like a chain, and contains a mouth and viscera in each joint. According to Cmelin, there are 92 species; all which inhabit the intestines of various animals, particularly of quadrupeds. The *tænia* appears destined to feed on such juices of animals as are already animalized, and is therefore most commonly found in the alimentary canal, and in the upper part, where there is the greatest abundance of chyle; for chyle seems to be the natural food of the *tænia*. As it is thus supported by food which is already digested, it is destitute of the complicated organs of digestion. Seven species of *tænia* are peculiar to man: viz.

1. *TÆNIA CELLULOSA*, which is inclosed in a cartilaginous vesicle, inhabits the cellular substance of the muscles; is about an inch long, half an inch broad, and one fourth of an inch thick, and is very tenacious of life.

2. *TÆNIA DENTATA*, has a pointed head; the large joints are streaked transversely, and the small joints are all dilated; the osculum or opening in the middle of both margins is somewhat raised. It is narrow, 10 or 12 feet long, and broad in the

foreparts; its ovaria are not visible to the naked eye; and the head underneath resembles a heart in shape. It inhabits the intestines.

3. *TÆNIA LATA*, is white with joints very short and knotty in the middle; the osculum is solitary. It is from 18 to 120 feet long; its joints are streaked transversely; its ovaria are disposed like the petals of a rose.

4. *TÆNIA SOLIUM*, has a marginal mouth, one on each joint. This species is most frequent in this country. It is from 3 to 30 feet long, some say 60. It is composed of a head, in which is a mouth adapted to drink up fluids, and an apparatus for giving the head a fixed situation. The body is composed of a great number of distinct pieces articulated together, each joint having an organ whereby it attaches itself to the neighbouring part of the inner coat of the intestine. The joints nearest the head are always small, and they become gradually enlarged as they are farther removed from it; but towards the tail a few of the last joints again become diminished in size. The extremity of the body is terminated by a small semicircular joint, which has no opening in it. The head is composed of the same materials as the other parts of its body; it has a rounded opening at its extremity, which is considered to be its mouth. (See *Plate CCCXXVIII. fig. 1, 2.*) This opening is continued by a short duct into two canals; these canals pass round every joint of the animal's body, and convey the aliment (*fig. 3.*) Surrounding the opening of the mouth are placed a number of projecting radii, which are of a fibrous texture, whose direction is longitudinal. These radii appear to serve the purpose of tentacula for fixing the orifice of the mouth, as well as that of muscles to expand the cavity of the mouth, from their being inserted along the brim of that opening: (See *fig. 1.*) After the rounded extremity or head has been narrowed into the neck, as is represented in *fig. 2.* the lower part becomes flattened, and has 2 small tubercles placed upon each flattened side; the tubercles are concave in the middle, and appear destined to serve the purpose of suckers for attaching the head more effectually. The internal structure of the joints composing the body of this animal is partly vascular and partly cellular; the substance itself is white, and somewhat resembles in its texture the coagulated lymph of the human blood. The alimentary canal passes along each side of the animal, sending a cross canal over the bottom of each joint, which connects the two lateral canals together. See *fig. 3.* The *tænia* seems to be one of the simplest vascular animals in nature. The way in which it is nourished is singular; the food being taken in by the mouth, passes into the alimentary canal, and is thus made to visit in a general way the different parts of the animal. As it has no excretory ducts, it would appear that the whole of its alimentary fluid is fit for nourishment; the decayed parts probably dissolve into a fluid which transudes through the skin, which is extremely porous. This animal has nothing resembling a brain or nerves, and seems to have no organs or sense but that of feeling. It is most probably propagated by ova, which may easily pass along the circulating vessels of other animals.

We cannot otherwise explain the phenomena of worms being found in the eggs of fowls, and in the intestines of a fœtus before birth, except by supposing their ova to have passed through the circulating vessels of the mother, and thus been conveyed to the fœtus. Another mode of increase possessed by tænia (if we may call it *increase*), is a species of vegetation, by an addition to the number of their joints. If we consider the individual joints as distinct beings, it is so; and when we reflect upon the power of generation given to each joint, it makes this conjecture the more probable. We can hardly suppose that an ovum of a tænia, which at its full growth is 30 feet long and composed of 400 joints, contained a young tænia composed of this number of pieces; but we have seen young tænia not half a foot long, and not possessed of 50 joints, which still were entire worms. We have also many reasons to believe, that when a part of this animal is broken off from the rest, it is capable of forming a head for itself, and becoming an independent being, like the polypus. (See POLYPUS, § II. N^o 1—8.) Plate 328. *fig. 1.* shows the head of the tænia magnified; the mouth is in the middle of the circular plane, where the body becomes flatted and broad; there are two hollow tubercles represented by the two dark shaded spots. *Fig. 2.* is the same head of its natural bigness, and which belonged to a tænia 20 feet in length. *Fig. 3.* shows the alimentary canals, in a portion of the same tænia, of their natural bigness. The dark shaded undulating lines are the alimentary canals, which are seen to their full extent in this portion of the worm. *Fig. 4.* shows the middle system of vessels, in two joints, which are represented by the dark lines. *Fig. 5.* shows two joints, from one side of which a slip was torn down to show the vessels underneath, and also the direction of the fibres in the slip, which are accumulated into little fasciculi like muscular fibres. *Fig. 6.* exhibits three joints, having the ducts leading from the lateral oscula injected; the dark transverse lines leading from each osculum show the size, direction, and extent of these ducts. *Fig. 7.* shows the edge of two joints turned forwards, and the appearance of the oscula in this point of view. *Fig. 8.* represents the whole of these canals in their relative situations. See Mr Carlisle's ingenious account of the tænia, in the *Linnæan Transactions*.

5. *TANIA TRUTÆ*, which chiefly inhabits the liver of the trout, is also to be found in the intestines of the human species.

6. *TANIA VISCERALIS*, which is inclosed in a viticæ broad in the fore-part, and pointed in the hinder part, inhabits the liver, the placenta uterina, and the sack which contains the superfluous fluid of dropical persons.

7. *TANIA VULGARIS*, or common *tape-worm*, has two lateral mouths in each joint; it attaches itself so firmly to the intestines, that it can scarcely be removed by the most violent medicines; it is slender, and has the appearance of being membranaceous; it is somewhat pellucid, from 10 to 16 feet long, and about 4 and a half lines broad at one end.

TENIAS, a part of lake MOEOTIS. *Strabo*.

TÆNSA, a town and settlement of W. Florida,

on the E. channel of the Mobile, on the side of an ancient Indian town. The wax tree abounds near it. See MYRICA.

TAFAL. See *TAFU*.

TAFALA, or *TAFALLA*, a city of Spain, in Navarre; with a palace, built in the 15th century by Charles II. king of Navarre. It has also an university, and a castle; and is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Cidazzo, in a fertile country, famous for good wine. It lies 15 miles NW. of Sanguesa, and 15, 12, or 22 miles S. of Pampluna. Lon. 1. 36. W. Lat. 42. 29. N.

TAFALÉ, a river of Africa, which runs into the sea, between the rivers Senegal and Nunez.

TAFALIOGA, a town of Africa, in Calam.

TAFALISGA, a town of Africa, in Senegal.

TAFALIA. See *TAFALA*.

TAFAR, a town of Arabia, in Yemen; 80 miles NE. of Sanaa.

TAFFAREL. *n. f.* in ship-building, the uppermost part, frame, or rail, abaft over the poop. See *SHIP-BUILDING*, Part II.

TAFFAROWY, a mountain of Africa, in Algiers; 15 miles SE. of Oran.

TAFFAREL. See *TAFFEREL*.

(1.) *TAFFETA*. *n. f.* [*taffetas*, Fr. *tafetar*, Spanish.] A thin silk.—

Beauties no richer than rich *taffeta*. *Sbak.*

Taffeta phrases, silken terms precise. *Sbak.*

—The changeable *taffety*, whose colours the philosophers call not real but apparent. *Boyle.*

(2.) *TAFFETA*, or } in commerce, a fine
TAFFETY, } smooth silken stuff, remarkably glossy.

There are taffeties of all colours, some plain, and others striped with gold, silver, &c. others chequered, others flowered, &c. according to the fancy of the workmen.

TAFFI, Andrew, an eminent Italian artist, born at Florence in 1213. Having learned the art of designing in MOSAIC, from some Greek artists, employed in decorating the church of St Mark in Venice, the chief of whom was *Apollonius*, he introduced it into Italy. His chief work is a Mosaic piece of our Saviour dead, in a chapel at Florence. He died in 1294.

(1.) *TAFILET*, a kingdom of Africa, in Barbary, belonging to the emperor of Morocco, lying along the E. side of Mount Atlas; bounded on the N. by the kingdoms of Fez and Tremesen; E. by Desiberies; S. by the Desert of Barbary; and W. by Fez, Morocco, and Sus. It is mountainous, and is divided into three provinces, viz. *Dras*, *Sarro*, and *Tuet*; which contain about 2000 scattered houses, some of them with towers, and each in the midst of an inclosure of gardens, palm tree plantations, and cultivated grounds; forming a beautiful and variegated appearance, and intersected by many rivers and rivulets flowing from Mount Atlas and fertilizing the whole. Their dates are very small but excellent, and like our OATS, are a principal food both of the people and their horses. They also make a very strong brandy from them, of which their sheriffs drink to such excess, though prohibited by the Koran, that wine has no effect on them. They likewise feed upon camels flesh. The country abounds with ostriches and dromedaries.

(2.) *TAFILET*, the capital of the above kingdom.

dom, is a good trading city, and has a castle, and manufactures of stuffs and carpets. It is seated on the river (N° 3.), 275 miles SE. of Morocco, but Cruttwell makes it only 140 ESE. and 340 S. of Fez. Lon. 5. 45. W. Lat. 28. 2. N.

(3.) **TAFILET**, a river of Africa, which rises in Mount Atlas, passes the city of Taflet, and falls into a lake, 149 miles S. of that city.

TAFNA, a river of Africa, in Algiers, which runs into the Mediterranean near Tackumbreet.

TAFU, a town of Africa, on the Gold Coast.

* **TAG**. *n. f.* [*tag*, Mandick, the point of a lance.] 1. A point of metal put to the end of a string. 2. Any thing paltry and mean.—If *tag* and *rag* be admitted, learned and unlearned, it is the fault of some, not of the law. *Whigifite*.—

Will you hence

Before the *tag* return, whose rage doth rend

Like interrupted waters. *Shak.*

—The *tag*-*rag* people did not clap him and hiss him. *Shak.*—He invited *tag*, *rag*, and bob-tail, to the wedding. *L'Estrange*. 3. A young sheep.

* **To TAG**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To fit any thing with an end, or point of metal: as, *to tag a lace*. 2. To fit one thing with another appended.—

His courteous host

Tags every sentence with some fawning word,

Such as my king, my prince. *Dryden.*

'Tis *tagg'd* with rhyme. *Dryden.*

3. The word is here improperly used.—

Compell'd by you to *tag* in rhymes. *Swift.*

4. To join. This is properly to *task*.—Resistance, and the succession of the house of Hanover, the whig writers perpetually *tag* together. *Swift.*

TAGADEMPT, } or **TIGEDENT**, a town of
TAGADEONT, } Africa, in Algiers, 63 miles
ESE. of Oran, and 315 SW. of Algiers.

TAGAL, a town of Russia, in Simbirskoe, 48 miles W. of Simbirsk. Lon. 64. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 20. N.

TAGANROG, a town and fort of Russia, on the sea of Azoph, built by Peter the Great in 1696. In 1711 the fort was demolished by treaty, but rebuilt in 1769. It is 32 miles WNW. of Azoph.

TAGAOST, or **TAGAST**, or **TAGAOAST**, a town of Morocco, in Sus, where a great number of Jews reside and carry on a considerable trade. It is defended by a garrison of 400 men. The Rev. Mr Cruttwell makes it the birth-place of St Augustine; others place that town in Algiers. (See **TAGASTA**.) It is seated on a fertile plain, 37 miles S. of Tarudant, 50 from the sea-coast, and 140 SW. of Morocco. Lon. 8. 5. W. Lat. 29. 23. N.

TAGAPIPE, a fort of Brazil, on a point of land, in the bay of All Saints, near St Salvadore.

TAGARA, a city of ancient India, the metropolis of a large district called *Ariaca*, which comprehended the greatest part of the Subah of Aurengabad, and the S. part of CONCAN. Arrian says that it was situated about ten days journey to the E. of Pultanah; which, according to the rate of travelling in that country with loaded carts, might be about 100 British miles. This fixes its situation at *Deogbir*, a place of great antiquity, and famous through all India on account of the pagodas of Elousa. It is now called *Dowlat-abad*.

See **AMEDNAGUR**, **AURENGABAD**, and **DOWLAT-ABAD**, N° 2.

TAGASTA, a town of Africa, in Fez, on a river, 9 miles from the Mediterranean, and 60 W. of Melilla.

TAGAST. See **TAGAOST**.

TAGASTA, a town of Algiers, in the province of Constantia, formerly considerable, but now much reduced. It is famous for having been the birth-place of St AUGUSTINE.

TAGASTE, an ancient town of Numidia. *Plin. v. c. 4.*

TAGAVOST. See **TAGAOST**.

TAGAZONTE, a town of Algiers, 45 miles SE. of Oran.

TAGE, a large town of Arabia Felix, on the road from Mecca to Yemen, with a castle on a mountain which commands the town. Lon. 42. 5. E. Lat. 21. 50. N.

TAGES, in the mythology, a son of GENIUS, and grandson of Jupiter, who first taught the Etrurians augury. He was found by a Tuscan plowman in the form of a *clod*, and immediately assumed a human shape to teach them augury. (*Cicero*.) Had this *divine clod* taught them *agriculture* instead of *augury*, it would have been a better allegory.

TAGETES, **MARIGOLD**, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *syngenesia*, and order of *polygamia superflua*; and in the natural system ranging under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is naked; the pappus consists of five erect awns or beards; the calyx is monophyllous, quinqueadentate, and tubular; and there are four persistent florets of the ray. There are three species; viz.

1. **TAGETES ERRECTA**, the *African marigold*, is a native of Mexico, but has been cultivated in British gardens since 1596. It has a stem subdivided and spreading. There are many varieties: 1. *Pale yellow*, or brimstone colour, with single, double, and fistulous flowers. 2. *Deep yellow*, with single, double, and fistulous flowers. 3. *Orange-coloured*, with single, double, and fistulous flowers. 4. *Middling African*, with orange coloured flowers. 5. *Sweet-scented African*. These are all very subject to vary; so that unless the seeds are very carefully saved from the finest flowers, they are apt to degenerate: nor should the same seeds be too long sown in the same garden. Those who wish to have these flowers in perfection should exchange their seeds with some person of integrity at a distance, where the soil is of a different nature, at least every other year. If this is done, the varieties may be continued in perfection. They flower from the beginning of July till the frost sets in.

2. **TAGETES MINUTA**, the *small marigold*.

3. **TAGETES PATULA**, the *French marigold*, has a simple erect stem, and the peduncles are scaly and multiflorous. It has been cultivated in the British gardens since 1596. There are several varieties: some have larger flowers than others, and their colour varies greatly: some are beautifully variegated, and others quite plain: but all these are accidents arising from culture, for seeds saved from the most beautiful flowers will degenerate, if they are sown in the same garden for several years together, without changing the seed. These plants

plants have a strong disagreeable scent, especially when handled; for which reason they are not planted near habitations: the flowers of the sweet-scented sort being preferred, especially for small gardens.

PAGGIA, a town of Italy, in the ci-devant republic of Genoa, and late Ligurian republic, now annexed to the French empire; 14 miles NE. of Ventimiglia.

TAGHAIRM. See **NECROMANCY**, § 2.

TAGHMON, a town of Ireland, in Wexford, Leinster; 7 miles W. of Wexford. It sent two members to the ci-devant Irish parliament.

TAGIE, a river of Algiers, which runs into the Mediterranean, 24 miles E. of Oran.

TAGIDOG, a river of N. Wales, which runs into the **ALEN**, 4 miles N. of Wrexham, in Flintshire.

TAGIL, a river of Russia, which runs into the Tura, 48 miles W. of Turinsk.

TAGILSKOI, **VERSCHEI** and **NIZNEI**, or *Old and New*, two towns of Russia, in Ekaterinenburg; the former 52, and the latter 60 miles N. of Ekaterinenburg.

TAGLARET, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late province of the Four Valleys; 7 miles W. of Ligueroles.

TAGLESSE, a town of Morocco; 120 miles W. of Morocco.

TAGLIACIOCI, Gaspar. See **TALIACTIUS**.

TAGLIACCOZZO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra; 18 miles SW. of Aquila, and 33 ENE. of Rome.

TAGLIAMENTO, a river which rises in Friuli, and falls into the Adriatic, 16 miles SSE. of Concordia. On its banks Bonaparte, in 1797, defeated and killed a party of 3000 Austrians. This river, on the 12th November 1805, was the scene of a brisk cannonade across it, between the French and Austrians, who were posted on each side of it, and which lasted the whole day; but was attended with such loss to the latter, that the archduke Charles retreated with his whole troops early on the morning of the 13th, when the French troops crossed it, but found their enemies fled.

TAGLIO DEL PO, a district of Austria, in the Dogado, containing 2300 souls.

TAGNON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes; 6 miles SW. of Rethel.

TAGO, **ST TAGO**, or **POINT TIAGO**, a town of New Mexico, on the W. coast, near Salagua.

TAGOAST. See **TAGAOST**.

TAGODAST, or **ISADAGAS**, a town of Morocco, near the foot of Mount Atlas; 60 miles NE. of Morocco.

TAGOMAGO, an island in the Mediterranean, near the E. coast of the Isle of Yvica.

TAGONIUS, a river of Hispania Tarraconensis. *Lempriere*.

TAGOVAST. See **TAGAOST**.

TAGOURIE, a town of Chinese Tartary, in Hami; 50 miles NNE. of Ham-tamtam.

TAGRIN, or **SIERRA**. See **SIERRA**, N° 5.

* **TAG-TAIL**. *n. f.* [*tag* and *tail*.] A worm which has the tail of another colour.—They feed on *tag* worms and lugges. *Carew*.—There are other worms, as the marsh and *tag tail*. *Walton*.

TAGVA. See **TAGUVA**.

(1.) **TAGUMADERT**, a town of Africa, in Darah; 20 miles S. of Tattah.

(2.) **TAGUMADERT**, a town of Morocco, in Taflet, on the Dras, with a strong castle on a mountain. Lon. 6. 43. W. Lat. 27. 10. N.

TAGUS, in ancient geography, a river of Spain, which, after crossing Lusitania, falls into the Atlantic. Its sands abound with gold dust. *Mela*, iii. c. 1. *Sil. Ital.* iv. 234. It is now called **TAJO**.

TAGUVA, a town of Africa, in Gaoga.

TAHAL, a town of Spain, in Granada; 8 miles NNE. of Purchena.

TAHATE, a town of Arabia, in Yemen.

TA-HEAN, a town of China, of the 2d rank, in Yun-nan; 1130 miles SW. of Peking. Lon. 119. 36. E. Ferro. Lat. 25. 52. N.

TAHEJ, a town of Hindostan, 150 miles W. of Amedabad, and 400 S. of Moultan. Lon. 69. 58. E. Lat. 43. 16. N.

TAHIAO, a town of Asia, in Corea; 35 miles SSE. of Long-Kouang.

TAHMURAS. See **MYTHOLOGY**, § 24.

TAHOERWA, one of the Sandwich islands. It is small, destitute of wood, and its soil sandy and unfertile. See **COOK**, N° III. and **SANDWICH ISLANDS**. Lon. 203. 27. E. Lat. 20. 38. N.

TAHOORA, one of the Sandwich islands, in the South Sea. It is uninhabited. See **SANDWICH ISLANDS**. Lon. 199. 36. E. Lat. 21. 43. N.

TAHOOROWA. See **TAHOERWA**.

TAHPANHES, or **TENAPHNEHES**, or *Hanes*, an ancient city of Egypt, supposed to be the same with *Daphne*, about 16 miles S. of **PELUSIUM**, on the E. bank of the Nile. To this city the remnant of the Jews left by Nebuchadnezzar retired, after the murder of Gedaliah. It was afterwards taken by Nebuchadnezzar. Jer. xliii. 1—11. Ezek. xxx. 18.

TAHTA, a town of Egypt, on the Nile; 32 miles S. of Siut, and 187 S. of Cairo. Lon. 49. 8. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 57. N.

(1.) **TAI**, a large lake of China, 150 miles in circumference, in the provinces of Kiang-nan and Tche-kiang; 75 miles SE. of Nan-king.

(2.) **TAI**, a town of China, of the 2d rank, in Chan-fi; 175 miles WSW. of Peking. Lon. 130. 16. E. Ferro. Lat. 39. 6. N.

(3.) **TAI**, a town of China, of the 2d rank, in Kiang-nan; 22 miles E. of Yang-tcheou. Lon. 137. 22. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 30. N.

TAJACU, **TAJASSU**, or **PECARY**, in zoology, a species of hog. See **SUS**, § III. N° 4.

TAJAMENTA, a river which rises in the NW. part of Friuli, and falls into the Gulf of Venice, 16 miles SSE. of Concordia.

TAJASSU. See **SUS**, § III. N° 4.

TAI-CHAN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Tche-kiang; 60 miles SW. of Ouen-tcheou.

TAJE-ELT, a town of Algiers, 35 miles SSE. of Bona.

TAIEF, or **TAIF**, a town of Arabia Felix, in the province of Hedjas, abounding in fruits. It was a strong town in the time of Mahomet, who besieged it for 20 days in vain. It is seated on the S. of Mount Gazuan, 48 miles E. of Mecca.

TAIEZA, a town of Croatia, 44 miles E. of Bihacz.

TAJF. See **TAIEF**.

TAI-HO,

TAI-HO, two towns of China, of the 3d rank: 1. in Kiang nan, 17 miles NW. of Hing: 2. in Kiang-si, 20 miles S. of Kingan.

TAI-KANG, a town of China, in Ho-nan; 30 miles E. of Hlu.

(1.) * **TAIL**. *n. f.* (*tegl*, Sax.) 1. That which terminates the animal behind; the continuation of the vertebrae of the back hanging loose behind.—

Of't have I seen a hot o'erweening cur,

Who, having suffer'd with the bear's fell paw,

Hath clapt his tail betwixt his legs. *Shak.*

Men and boats his active tail confounds.

Waller.

—The lion will strike such a stroke with his tail, that will break the back of his encounterer. *Mare.*

Rou'd by the lash of his own stubborn tail,

Our lion now will foreign foes assail. *Dryden.*

—The tail fin is half a foot high, but underneath, level with the tail. *Grew.* 2. The lower part.—

The Lord shall make thee the head, and not the tail. *Deut. xxviii. 13.* 3. Any thing hanging long; a catkin.—Durtius writes a great praise of the distilled water of those tails that hang upon willow trees. *Harvey.* 4. The hinder part of any thing.—

With the helm they turn and steer the tail.

Butler.

5. To turn **TAIL**. To fly; to run away.—Would she turn tail to the heron? *Sidney.*

(2.) **TAIL**, in anatomy, is the train of a beast, bird, or fish; which in land animals serves to drive away flies, &c. and in birds and fishes to direct their course, and assist them in ascending or descending in the air or water.

(3.) **TAIL**, or **FREE-TAIL**, in law, is a conditional estate or fee, opposed to *fee-simple*. See **FREE**, § II. N° 1.; and **TAILLE**. A conditional fee, at the common law, was a fee restrained to some particular heirs exclusive of others; as to the heirs of a man's body, by which only his lineal descendants were admitted, in exclusion of collateral heirs; or to the heirs male of his body, in exclusion both of collaterals and lineal females also. It was called a *conditional fee*, by reason of the condition expressed or implied in the donation of it, that if the donee died without such particular heirs, the land should revert to the donor. For this was a condition annexed by law to all grants whatsoever, that on failure of the heirs specified in the grant, the grant should be at an end, and the land return to its ancient proprietor. With regard to the condition annexed to these fees by the common law, it was held, that such a gift (to a man and the heirs of his body) was a gift upon condition that it should revert to the donor if the donee had no heirs of his body; but if he had, it should then remain to the donee. They therefore called it a *fee-simple* on condition that he had issue. So that as soon as the grantee had any issue born, his estate was supposed to become absolute by the performance of the condition; for these three purposes: 1. To enable the tenant to alienate the land, and thereby to bar the donor of his interest in the reversion. 2. To subject him to forfeit it for treason. 3. To empower him to charge the land with rents, commons, and other encumbrances, so as to bind his issue. But if the tenant did not alienate the land, the course of descent was not

altered; for if the issue had afterwards died, and then the tenant or original grantee had died, without making any alienation, the land, by the terms of the donation, could descend to none but the heirs of his body, and therefore must have reverted to the donor. To subject the lands therefore to the ordinary course of descent, the donees of these conditional fee-simples took care to alienate as soon as they had issue; and afterwards repurchased the lands, which gave them a fee-simple absolute, that would descend to the heirs-general, according to the common law. And thus stood the old law with regard to conditional fees: which things, says Sir Edward Coke, are necessary to be known, for the sake of annuities, and such like inheritances as are not within the statutes of entail, and therefore remain as the common law. The inconveniences which attended these fettered inheritances induced the judges to give way to this subtle *finess*, to shorten the duration of these conditional estates. But, on the other hand, the nobility, who wished to perpetuate their possessions in their own families, procured the statute of Westminster the 2d, *de donis conditionalibus*, to be made; which paid a greater regard to the intentions of a donor, than to the propriety of such intentions. This restraint revived the ancient feudal restraints originally laid on alienations, by enacting, that from thenceforth the will of the donor be observed; and that the tenements so given (to a man and his heirs) should at all events go to the issue, or if none, should revert to the donor. Upon this act the judges determined that the donee had no longer a conditional fee-simple, but they divided the estate into two parts, leaving in the donee a new kind of particular estate, which they denominated a *fee tail*; and vesting in the donor the ultimate fee-simple of the land, *expectant* on the failure of issue; which expectant estate is what we now call a *reversion*. And hence Littleton says, that tenant in fee-tail is by virtue of this statute. We now proceed to consider what things may or may not be entailed under the above statute. "*Tenements*" is the only word used in the statute; and this Sir Edward Coke expounds to mean all *corporeal* hereditaments; and also all *incorporeal* hereditaments which issue out of corporeal ones, or may be exercised within them; as rents, advowsons, commons, &c. Also offices and dignities, which concern lands, may be entailed. But mere personal chattels, which favour not at all of the *reality*, cannot be entailed. Neither can an office, which relates to such chattels; nor an annuity, which charges only the person of the granter. But in these last, if granted to a man and his heirs, the grantee hath still a fee conditional at common law, and by his alienation may bar the heir or reversioner. An estate to a man and his heirs for another's life cannot be entailed. Neither can a copyhold estate be entailed; but, by the special custom of the manor, a copyhold may be limited to the heirs of the body. As to the several species of estates tail, and how they are respectively created; they are either general or special. *Tail-general* is where lands and tenements are given to one, and the heirs of his body begotten: which is so called, because, how often soever such do-

nee in tail be married, his issue in general, by all such marriages, is, in successive order, capable of inheriting the estate tail, *per formam doni*. Tenant in tail-special is where the gift is restrained to certain heirs of the donee's body, and does not go to all of them in general. Here no issue can inherit but such special issue as is engendered between the two persons specially mentioned: and therefore it is called *special tail*. The words of inheritance, to him and his heirs, give him an estate in fee; but they being heirs to be by him begotten, this makes it a *fee-tail*; and the person being also limited, on whom such heirs shall be begotten (*viz.* Mary his present wife) this makes it a *fee-tail special*. Estates in general and special tail are farther diversified by the distinction of *sexes*, for both of them may either be in tail male or tail female. If lands be given to a man, and his heirs male, this is an estate in tail male general; but if to a man, and his heirs female, this is an estate in tail female special. And in case of an entail male, the heirs female shall never inherit, nor any detail from them; nor the heirs male in case of a gift in tail female. If the donee in tail male hath a daughter, who dies leaving a son, such grandson in this case cannot inherit the estate tail. And as the heir male must convey his descent *wholly by males*, so must the heir female *wholly by females*. And therefore if a man hath two estates tail, the one in tail male, and the other in tail female, and he hath issue a daughter, which daughter hath issue a son; this grandson can succeed to neither of the estates, for he cannot convey his descent *wholly* either in the male or female line! As the word *heirs* is necessary to create a fee, so the word *body* is necessary to make it a *fee-tail*, and ascertain to what heirs in particular the fee is limited. If, therefore, either the words of inheritance or words of procreation be omitted, this will not make an estate tail. As if the grant be to a man and the issue of his body, or his *seed*, his children or offspring; all these are only estates for life, there wanting the words of inheritance, *his heirs*. So a gift to a man, and his heirs male or female, is an estate in fee-simple and not in fee-tail; for there are no words to ascertain the *body* out of which they shall issue. But in last wills and testaments, wherein greater indulgence is allowed, an estate tail may be created by a devise to a man and his *seed*, or his heirs male, or by other irregular modes of expression. There is still another species of entailed estates, now indeed grown out of use, yet still capable of subsisting in law; which are estates in *libero maritagio*, or FRANK MARRIAGE. See FRANK, § 1. N. 6. The incidents to a tendency in tail, under the stat. Westminster 2. are chiefly these: 1. That a tenant in tail may commit waste on the estate tail, by selling timber, pulling down houses, or the like, without being impeached or called to account for the time. 2. That the wife of the tenant in tail shall have her dower, or thirds, of the estate tail. 3. That the husband of a female tenant in tail may be tenant by the curtesy of the estate tail. 4. That an estate tail may be barred, or destroyed, by a fine, by a common recovery, or by lineal warranty descending with assets to the heir. See ASSETS. Such is the nature of estates tail:

the establishment of which *family law* (as it is properly styled by Pigott) occasioned infinite difficulties and disputes. Children grew disobedient when they knew they could not be set aside: farmers were ousted of their leases made by tenants in tail; creditors were defrauded of their debts; innumerable latent entails were produced to deprive purchasers of the lands they had fairly bought; of suits in consequence of which, our ancient books are full: and treasons were encouraged, as estates were not liable to forfeiture longer than for the tenant's life. So that they were justly branded as the source of new contentions and mischiefs unknown to the common law; and almost universally considered as the common grievance of the realm. But as the nobility were always fond of this statute, because it preserved their family estates from forfeiture, there was little hope of procuring a repeal by the legislature; and therefore, by the connivance of an active and politic prince, a method was devised to evade it. About 400 years intervened between the making of the statute *de donis*, and the application of common recoveries to this intent, in the 12th of Edward IV.; which were then openly declared by the judges to be a sufficient bar of an estate tail. For though the courts had, so long before as the reign of Edward III. very often hinted that a bar might be effected upon these principles, yet it was never carried into execution; till Edward IV. observing (in the disputes between the houses of York and Lancaster) how little effect attainders for treason had on families whose estates were protected by the sanctuary of entails, gave his countenance to this proceeding, and suffered Taltarum's case to be brought before the court; wherein, in consequence of the principles then laid down, it was in effect determined, that a common recovery suffered by tenant in tail should be an effectual destruction thereof. These common recoveries are *filitious* proceedings, introduced by a kind of *pin fraud*, to elude the statute *de donis*, which was found so intolerably mischievous, and which yet one branch of the legislature would not then consent to repeal; and that these recoveries are now become by long use a most common assurance of lands; and are looked upon as the legal mode of conveyance, by which a tenant in tail may dispose of his lands and tenements; so that no court will suffer them to be shaken or reflected on, and even acts of parliament have by a *side-wind* countenanced and established them. This expedient having greatly abridged estates tail with regard to their duration, others were soon invented to strip them of other privileges. The next that was attacked was their freedom from forfeitures for treason. For, notwithstanding the large advances made by recoveries, in the compass of about 60 years, towards unfettering these inheritances, and thereby subjecting the lands to forfeiture, the rapacious prince then reigning, finding them frequently reflected in a similar manner to suit the convenience of families, had address enough to procure a statute, whereby all estates of inheritance (under which estates tail were covertly included) are declared to be forfeited to the king upon any conviction of high-treason. The next attack which they suffered, was by statute 32 Hen. VIII. c. 28. whereby

certain leases made by tenants in tail, which do not tend to the prejudice of the issue, were allowed to be good in law, and to bind the issue in tail. But they received a more violent blow in the same session of parliament, by the construction put upon the statute of fines, by stat. 32. Hen. VIII. c. 36. which declares a fine duly levied by tenant in tail to be a complete bar to him and his heirs, and all persons claiming under such entail. This was agreeable to the intention of Henry VII. whose policy it was to lay the road as open as possible to the alienation of landed property, to weaken the overgrown power of his nobles. But as they were not easily brought to consent to such a provision, it was couched, in his act, under obscure expressions. And the judges, though willing to construe that statute as favourably as possible for the defeating of entailed estates, yet hesitated at giving fines so extensive a power by mere implication, when the statute *de donis* had expressly declared that they should not be a bar to estates tail. But the stat. Hen. VIII. when the doctrine of alienation was better received, and the king's will more implicitly obeyed, established that intention. Yet, to preserve the property of the crown from infringement, all estates tail created by the crown are excepted. And the same was done with regard to common recoveries, by stat. 34. and 35. Hen. VIII. c. 20. which enacts, that no feigned recovery had against tenants in tail, where the estate was created by the crown, and the reversion continues in the crown, shall be of any force and effect; which is allowing, indirectly, their full force and effect with respect to ordinary estates tail, where the royal prerogative is not concerned. Lastly, by stat. 36 Hen. VIII. all estates tail are rendered liable to be charged for payment of debts due to the king by record or special contract; as since, by the bankrupt laws, they are also subjected to be sold for the debts contracted by a bankrupt. And, by the construction put on the stat. 43 Eliz. c. 4. an appointment by tenant in tail of the lands entailed to a charitable use is good without fine or recovery. Estates tail being thus by degrees unfettered, are now reduced again to almost the same state, even before issue born, as conditional fees were in at common law, after the condition was performed by birth of issue. For, 1. The tenant in tail is now enabled to alienate his lands and tenements by fine, by recovery, or by certain other means; and thereby to defeat the interest as well of his own issue, though unborn, as also of the reversioner, except in the case of the crown: 2. He is now liable to forfeit them for high treason; and, lastly, He may charge them with reasonable leases, and also with such of his debts as are due to the crown on specialties, or have been contracted with his fellow subjects in a course of extensive commerce.

* *TO TAIL*. *v. n.* To pull by the tail.—

First Trulla flay'd and Cerdon tail'd. *Hudib.*

* *TAILED*. *adj.* [from *tail*.] Furnished with a tail.—Snouted and *tailed* like a boar. *Greiv.*

* *TAILLAGE*. *n. s.* [tailleur, French.] *Taillage* originally signified a piece cut out of the whole; and, metaphorically, a share of a man's substance paid by way of tribute. In law, it signifies a roll or tax. *Cowel.*

(L.) * *TAILLE*. *n. s.* *Taille*, the fee which is opposite to fee-simple, because it is so minced or parcel, that it is not in his free power to be disposed of who owns it; but is, by the first giver, cut or divided from all other, and tied to the issue of the donee. This limitation, or *taille*, is either general or special. *Cowel.*

(2.) *TAILLES*. See *TAIL*, § 3; and *TAILZIE*.

TAILLEBURG, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente, and ci-devant prov. of Saintonge; memorable for a victory obtained by Lewis IX. over the count of Marche, in 1242. It is seated on the Charente, 6 miles N. of Saintes, 74 SSW. of Saint Jean d'Angely, and 30 SE. of Rochelle. Lon. 0. 40. W. Lat. 45. 46. N.

TALOOR, a town of Hindostan, in the Mysore, 10 miles NNW. of Venicatighery.

* *TAILOR*. *n. s.* [tailleur, from *tailer*, French, to cut.] One whose business is to make clothes.—I'll entertain a score or two of *tailors*. *Shak.*—Here's an English *tailor* come for stealing out of a French house; come, *tailor*, you may roast your goose. *Shak.*—The knight came to the *tailor's*. *Camden.*—The *tailor* and shoemaker may cut out what religion they please. *Howel.*—It was prettily said by Seneca, that friendship should not be unript, but unlight, though somewhat in the phrase of a *tailor*. *Collier.*

In Covent-Garden did a *tailor* dwell. *King.*

TAILZIE. *n. s.* in Scots law, the same with *TAIL*. See *LAW*, Part. III. Chap. II. S. 3. XX. § 3—14.

TAIMURSKAIA, a gulf of Russia, in the Frozen Ocean, between the capes Sievero Vostochno, and Sievero Zapadno. Lon. 112. to 116. E. Ferro. Lat. 75° to 77° N.

(1.) *TAIN*, a town of France, in the dep. of the Drome, 9 miles N. of Valence, and 9 WNW. of Romans.

(2.) *TAIN*, or *TAYNE*, a district of Scotland in Ross-shire, comprehending the greater part of that county. See *ROSS*, N° 1. and *TAYNE*, N° 1.

(3.) *TAIN*, *TAYNE*, or *THANE*, an ancient royal borough of Scotland, in the above district, (N° 2.) seated on the S. bank of the FRITH of *TAIN*. It is irregularly built, but has many new and elegant houses, for public assemblies, &c. lately erected towards the E. The church is an elegant ancient building, erected in 1471, and dedicated to St Duthus. It has a large square tower, with 5 spires. *Tain* joins with Dingwall, Dornoch, Kirkwall, and Wick, in electing delegates to choose a representative in the British parliament. It contained 1250 inhabitants in 1791.

(4.) *TAIN*, a parish of Scotland, in the above district, extending 8 miles along the Frith of *Tain* or Dornoch in length, and 2 in breadth. The surface is mostly level, but rises into small eminences towards the W. coast, which is flat and sandy; about one 5th of it is arable, and the soil various but fertile. The chief seats are *Ankerville*, the seat of David Ross, late lord of session by that title, and *Little Turrel*, the seat of Mr Baillie. The population, in 1791, was 2100; increase 230, since 1755.

(5.) *TAIN*, or *TAYNE*, FRITH OF, or the *Frith* of Dornoch. See *TAYNE*, N° 3.

TAINACH, a river of Germany, which runs

1810

into the Nagold, 2 miles S. of Caw, in the duchy of Württemberg.

TAI-NGAN, a town of China, of the 2d rank in Chantong, 235 miles SSE. of Pekin. Lon. 134. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 15. N.

TAI-NHING, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Fo-kien, 32 miles SSW. of Shaf-ou.

TAINING, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Se-tchuen, on the Tong-ki-ho, 20 miles N. of Kwei-tcheou.

* **TAINT**. *n. s.* [*teinte*, Fr. from the verb.]
1. A tincture; a stain. 2. An insect.—There is found in the summer a spider called a *taint*, of a red colour, and so little that ten of the largest will hardly outweigh a grain. *Brown*—

As killing as the canker rofe,
Or *taint* worm to the weaning herds. *Milton*.

3. Infection; corruption; depravation.—
Your forevouch'd affection

Fall'n into *taint*. *Shak.*

Man's polluting sin with *taint* hath shed
On what was pure. *Milton*.

—A father that breeds his son at home, can keep him better from the *taint* of servants than abroad. *Locke*—

But is no rank, no station, no degree,
From this contagious *taint* of sorrow free? *Prior*.

4. A spot; a soil; a blemish.—

The *taints* and blames I laid upon myself.

Shak.

(1.) * **To TAINT**. *v. a.* [*teindre*, Fr.] 1. To imbue or impregnate with any thing.—

The spaniel struck
Stiff by the *tainted* gale. *Thomson*.

2. To stain; to soil.—

We come not by the way of accusation,
To *taint* that honour. *Shak.*

Sirens *taint*
The minds of all men. *Chapman*.

They the truth

With superstitions and traditions *taint*. *Milton*.

Those pure immortal elements

Beet him *tainted* now. *Milton*.

3. To infect; to poison; to disease.—Nothing
taints found lungs sooner than inspiring the breath

of consumptive lungs. *Harvey*.—The *tainted* air
may affect the lungs by its heat. *Arbuthnot*.—

Vegetable venom *taints* the plain. *Pope*.

4. To corrupt.—A sweet-bread you found it
tainted. *Swift*.—

The yellow tingling plague

Internal vision *taints*. *Thomson*.

5. A corrupt contraction of *attaint*.

(2.) * **To TAINT**. *v. n.* To be infected; to be touched with something corrupting.—

Till Birnam wood remove to Dunsinane
I cannot *taint* with fear. *Shak.*

* **TAINTLESS**. *adj.* [from *taint*.] Free from infection; pure.—

No humours grofs, or frowzy steams,
Could from her *taintless* body flow. *Swift*.

TAINTON, a small town of Gloucestershire, 4 miles SE. of Newent, and 7 W. of Gloucester.

There is a mine near it, which contains some gold.

* **TAINTURE**. *n. s.* [*teinture*, Lat. *teinture*, Fr.] Taint; tinge; defilement.—

See here the *tainture* of thy nest. *Shak.*

TAJO, the largest river of Spain; which rises on the confines of Arragon, runs SW. through New Castile and Estremadura; and passing by the cities of Aranjuez, Toledo, Talavera, and Alcantara, enters Portugal at Montalva, forms the harbour of Lisbon, where it is about 3 miles over; and crossing Portuguese Estremadura, passes Abrantes, Santarem, &c. and falls into the Atlantic ocean 10 miles below Lisbon. It was anciently called **TAGUS**.

TA-JOH, a town of China, in Kiang-si, famous for its magnificent temples, and two very high towers. Lon. 114. 41. E. Lat. 27. 38. N.

(1.) **TAI-OUAN**, or **TAY-OUAN**, the Chinese name of the island of Formosa. See **FORMOSA**, N° 1.

(2.) **TAI-OUAN**, or **TAY-OUAN**, the capital of the island of **FORMOSA**, is seated on the W. coast. The streets are regular, in straight lines; and are covered, during the 7 or 8 hot months of the year, with bamboos and straw, to keep off the rays of the sun. They are from 30 to 40 feet broad, and some of them near 3 miles long. They abound with elegant shops, where silks, China wares, and other goods, made chiefly in China, are sold. This city is neither fortified nor walled. The harbour is well sheltered from all winds, but the entrance into it becomes daily more difficult. It had formerly 2 entries, but the best, called **TA-KIANG**, where large vessels floated easily, is now almost useless, there being often hardly 5 feet water in it, and at no tide above 8; and the other, called *Louthmen*, having a rocky bottom, and never above 10 feet at high water. Lon. 3. 30. E. of Pekin. Lat. 23. 0. N.

TAI-PIN, a town of China, in Tchekiang.

(1.) **TAI-PING**, a city of China, of the first rank, in Kiang-nan, on the Yang-tse, 525 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 136. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 38. N.

(2.) **TAI-PING**, a city of China, of the first rank in Quang-li, on a peninsula, nearly surrounded by a river, and fortified by a wall on the land-side, besides many forts, as it is near the kingdom of Ton-king. The whole territory is fertile and very populous. It is 1175 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 124. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 22. 25. N.

(3—6.) **TAI-PING**, 4 towns of China, of rank 3d, in Chan-fi, Kiang-nan, Nankin, and Se-tchuen.

TAI-SANG, a town of Corea, 17 miles SSE. of Hoang-tcheou.

TAI-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Tchekiang, in a mountainous country. It has 6 cities of the 2d rank in its district. The people have a great trade in scabbards for cutlasses, which they make of the skins of a peculiar species of thornback, and export through the whole empire. It is 712 miles SSE. of Pekin. Lon. 138. 48. E. Ferro. Lat. 28. 55. N.

TAI-TCHIN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, with a fine harbour, 260 miles SE. of Nankin. Lon. 121. 16. E. Lat. 29. 10. N.

TAI-TCHING, 2 towns of China, of the 3d rank, in the provinces of Pe-tche-li and Se-tchuen.

TAI-TING, a city of the 2d rank, in Kwei-tcheou, 967 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 123° E. Ferro. Lat. 27. 5. N.

TAI-TONG, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Chan-fi, in a mountainous country; abounding

with medicinal and other plants. As it is the only city of the empire that is exposed to the Tartars, it is very well fortified, and has a strong garrison. It has 4 cities of the 2d rank, and 7 of the 3d in its jurisdiction. Its territories abound with lapis lazuli, and a particular kind of jasper called *gyieck*, which is as white and beautiful as agate; marble and porphyry are also common; and a great revenue is produced from the skins which are dressed here. Lon. 130. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 40. 5. N.

TAI-TSANG, a city of China of the 2d rank, in Kiang-nan; 567 miles SSE. of Peking. Lon. 138. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 30. N.

TAJUNA, a river of Spain, which rises in the N. part of New Castile; and runs into the Xarantina above its junction with the Tajo.

TAI-Y, a city of China of the 2d rank, in Quang-si, on the S. bank of the Pofoi: 1125 miles SSW. of Peking. Lon. 124. 4. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 4. N.

TAI-YUEN, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Chan-li: 130 miles WSW. of Peking. Lon. 129. 42. E. Ferro. Lat. 37. 54. N.

(1.) * **To TAKE**. *v. a.* [preterite *took*, part. pass. *taken*, sometimes *took*; *taka*, Islandick; *cy tek*, I take; *cy took*, I took.] 1. To receive what is offered; correlative to *give*; opposed to *refuse*.—Then *took* I the cup at the Lord's hand. *Jer. xxv. 17.*—

Death, or this counsel, from Leucippus *take*. *Waller.*

An honest man may *take* a knave's advice. *Dryden.*

Madam, were I as you I'd *take* her counsel. *Philips.*

Distress'd myself, like you, confin'd I live,
And therefore can compassion *take* and give. *Dryden.*

2. To seize what is not given,—
In fetters one the barking porter ty'd,
And *took* him trembling. *Dryden.*

3. To receive.—No man shall *take* the netlier or upper millstone to pledge. *Deut. xxiv. 6.* 4. To receive with good or ill will.—

Why should we, in our peevish opposition,
Take it to heart. *Shak.*

—Let them *take* it as they list. *Shak.*—If you speak ill of the devil, how he *takes* it to heart! *Shak.*—Damasco yielded unto the Turks; which the bassa *took* in for good part, that he would not suffer his soldiers to enter it. *Knolles.*—The king being in a rage *took* it grievously that he was mocked. 2. *Mac. vii. 39.*—The queen *took* it so ill as she would never after bear of the other's suit. *Bacon.*—A following hath ever been a thing civil, and well *taken* in monarchies. *Bacon.*—The diminution of the power of the nobility they *took* very heavily. *Clarendon.*—I hope you will *take* it well that I should offer at a new thing. *Graunt.*—If I have been a little pilfering, I *take* it bitterly of thee—*to tell me of it.* *Dryden.*—The sole advice I could give him in conscience, would be that which he would *take* ill. *Swift.* 5. To lay hold on; to catch by surprise or artifice.—Who will believe a man that hath no house, and lodgeth wheresoever the night *takes* him? *Exclus. xxxvi. 26.*—They silenced those who opposed them, by *taking* ad-

vantage against them in the house. *Clar.*—Wife men are overborn when *taken* at a disadvantage. *Collier.*—

Men in their loose unguarded hours they *take*. *Pope.*

6. To snatch; to seize.—I am contented to dwell on the Divine Providence, and *take* up any occasion to lead me to its contemplation. *Hale.* 7. To make prisoner.—

Appoint a meeting with this old fat fellow,
Where we may *take* him. *Shak.*

King Lear hath lost, he and his daughter
to 'em. *Shak.*

—This man was *taken* of the Jews. *Acts. xxii. 27.*—They entering with wonderful celerity, flew and *took* 300 Janizaries. *Knolles.* 8. To captivate with pleasure; to delight; to engage.—

More than history can pattern, tho' devis'd
And play'd to *take* spectators. *Shak.*

To hear the story of your life, which must
Take the ear strangely. *Shak.*

—Let her not *take* thee with her eyelids. *Prev. vi. 25.*—*Taken* by Perkin's amiable behaviour, he entertained him. *Bacon.*—

His song was partial, but the harmony
Suspended hell, and *took* with ravishment

The thronging audience. *Milton.*

—I do it yet more, when she is thus beautified on purpose to allure the eye and *take* the heart. *Decay of Piety.*—This beauty shines through some men's actions, sets off all that they do, and *takes* all they come near. *Locke.*—Cleombrotus was *taken* with this prospect, that he had no patience.

Wake. 9. To entrap; to catch in a snare.—*Take* us the foxes, that spoil the vines. *Cant. ii. 15.* 10. To understand in any particular sense or manner.—

The words are more properly *taken* for the air or ether than the heavens. *Raleigh.*—You *take* me right Eupolis; for there is no possibility of an holy war. *Bacon.*—I *take* it, and iron brags, called white brags, hath some mixture of tin to help the lustre. *Bacon.*—

Why, now you *take* me; these are rites
That grace love's days, and crown his nights;—
These are the motions I would see. *Ben Jonson.*

—Give them one simple idea, and see that they *take* it right, and perfectly comprehend it. *Locke.*

—Charity *taken* in its largest extent, is nothing else but the sincere love of God and our neighbour. *Wake.* 11. To exact.—*Take* no usury of him. *Lev. xxv. 36.* 12. To get; to have; to appropriate.—*Take* the goods to thyself. *Gen. xiv. 21.* 13. To use; to employ.—This man always *takes* time. *Watts.* 14. To blast; to infect.—

Strike her young bones,
You *taking* airs, with lameness. *Shak.*

15. To judge in favour of; to adopt.—
The nicest eye could no distinction make,
Where lay the advantage or what side to *take*. *Dryden.*

16. To admit any thing bad from without.—
I ought to have a care
To keep my wounds from *taking* air. *Hudibras.*

17. To get; to procure.—Striking stones they *took* fire out of them. 2. *Mac. x. 3.* 18. To turn to; to practise.—If any be subject to vice, or *take* ill courses, they are reprov'd. *Bacon.* 19. To close in with; to comply with.—

Old as I am, I take thee at thy word. *Dryd.*
 You, kind lover, took her at her word. *Dryd.*
 I take thee at thy word. *Rowe.*
 20. To form; to fix.—Resolutions taken upon full debate, were seldom prosecuted. *Clarendon.*
 21. To catch in the hand; to seize.—He took me by a lock of my head. *Ezek. viii. 3.*

I took not arms till urg'd by self defence.

Dryden.

22. To admit; to suffer.—

Now take the mould.

Dryden.

23. To perform any action.—Peradventure we shall take our revenge on him. *Jer. xx. 10.*—Uzzah put forth his hand to the ark, and took hold of it. *2 Sam. vi. 6.*—Taking my leave of them, I went into Macedonia. *2 Cor.*—Before I proceed, I would take some breath. *Bacon.*—His wind he never took whilst the cup was at his mouth. *Hakewill.*

A long sigh he drew,

And his voice failing, took his last adieu. *Dryd.*

The Sabine Clausus came,

And from afar, at Dryops took his aim. *Dryden.*

Her lovers names in order to run o'er,

The girl took breath full thirty times. *Dryden.*

Highten'd revenge he should have took.

Prior.

—The husband's affairs made it necessary for him to take a voyage to Naples. *Speñ.*—I took a walk in Lincoln's Inn Garden. *Tatler.*—The Carthaginian took his fest. *Taylor.*—I can gratify my favourites, and take vengeance on my enemies. *Swift.* 24. To receive into the mind.—They took knowledge of them that they had been with Jesus. *Matt. iv.*—He took great contentment in this our question. *Bacon.*—Dr Moore reckons this particular inclination, to take a prejudice against a man for his looks, among the smaller vices in morality, and names it a propoleptia. *Speñator.*—A student should never satisfy himself with bare attendance on lectures, unless he clearly takes up the sense. *Harris.* 25. To go into.—He posted to the sea-coast to take ship. *Gardner.*—Tigers and lions are not apt to take the water. *Hale.* 26. To go along; to follow; to pursue.—

The joyful short-liv'd news soon spread around,

Took the same train.

Dryden.

Observing still the motions of their flight,

What course they took.

Dryden.

27. To swallow; to receive.—Consider the insatiation of several bodies, and of their appetite to take in others. *Bacon.*—Turkeys take down stones, having found in the gizzard of one no less than 700. *Brown.* 28. To swallow as a medicine.—Tell an ignoramus in place to his face that he has a wit above all the world, and as fullsome a dose as you give him he shall readily take it down. *South.*—Upon this assurance he took physic. *Locke.* 29. To choose one of more.—

Take to thee from among the cherubim

Thy choice of flaming warriors. *Milton.*

—Either but one man, or all men are kings: take which you please. *Locke.* 30. To copy.—

Beauty alone cou'd beauty take so right.

Dryden.

31. To convey; to carry; to transport.—

Take all his company along with him. *Shak.*

—No man took them into his house to lodging. *Judges, xix. 15.* 32. To fatten on; to seize.—Wherefore he taketh him he teareth him. *Mark. ix. 18.*—No temptation hath taken you, but such as is common. *1 Cor. x. 13.*—When the frost and rain have taken them, they grow dangerous. *Temple.*

At first they warm, they scorch, and then they take.

Dryden.

—No beast will eat four grafs till the frost hath taken it. *Mortimer.*—In burning of stubble, take care that the fire may not take the hedges. *Mortimer.* 33. Not to refuse; to accept.—Take no satisfaction for the life of a murderer. *Num. xxxv. 31.*

Thou tak'st thy mother's word too far. *Dryd.*

—We are to take his word for this. *Locke.*—Who will not receive clipped money whilst he sees the bank and goldsmiths will take it of him? *Locke.* 34. To adept.—I will take you to me for a people. *Exod. vi. 7.* 35. To change with respect to place.—He took out twopence, and gave them to the host. *Luke, x. 35.*—When he took it out, it was leprous. *Exod. iv. 6.*—The artery will not beat below the ligature; yet do but take it off, and it will beat immediately. *Roy.*—Lovers flung themselves from the top of the precipice into the sea, where they were sometimes taken up alive. *Addison.* 36. To separate.—Still there remains as much to be added as if none were taken out. *Locke.*

The living fabrick now in pieces take,

Blackmore.

37. To admit.—Let not a widow be taken into the number under threescore. *1 Tim. v. 9.*

The foulest impressions I easily take. *Swift.*

38. To pursue; to go in.—

He alone,

To find where Adam shelter'd, took his way.

To the port she takes her way. *Milton.*

Injur'd Nifas takes his airy course. *Dryden.*

Let eternal justice take the way. *Dryden.*

It was her fortune once to take her way

Along the sandy margin of the sea. *Dryd.*

39. To receive any temper or disposition of mind.—

They shall not take shame. *Mic. ii. 6.*—Thou hast taken pity on me. *Tob.*—They take delight in approaching to God. *Isaiah, lviii. 2.*—Take a good heart, O Jerusalem. *Bar. iv. 30.*—Men die in desire of some things which they take to heart. *Bacon.*

Few are so wicked as to take delight

In crimes unprofitable. *Dryden.*

—Children take a pride to behave themselves prettily, perceiving themselves esteemed. *Locke.* 40.

To endure; to bear.—I can be as troublesome as another when I meet with those that will take it.

L'Estrange.—Won't you then take a jest? *Speñator.*

—He met with such a reception as those only

deserve who are content to take it. *Swift.* 41.

To draw; to derive.—The firm belief of a future

judgment, is the most forcible motive to a good

life; because taken from this consideration of the

most lasting happiness and misery. *Tillotson.* 42.

To leap; to jump over.—

To cudgel you, and make you take the hatch.

Shak.

43. To assume.—

Fit you to the custom.

And *take* t'ye, as your predecessors have,

Your honour with your form. *Shak.*

—I *take* liberty to say, that these propositions to a great part of mankind are not known. *Locke.*

44. To allow; to admit.—*Take* not any term to stand for any thing till you have an idea of it. *Locke.*—Chemists *take* something for granted, which they ought to prove. *Boyle.*—

I *took* your weak excuses. *Dryden.*

45. To receive with fondness.—

I lov'd you still, and

Took you to my bosom. *Dryden.*

46. To carry out for use.—They should *take* nothing for their journey save a staff. *Mark* vi. 8.

47. To suppose; to receive in thought; to entertain in opinion.—

This I *take* it

Is the main motive of our preparations. *Shak.*

—The spirits that are in all tangible bodies are scarce known; sometimes they *take* them for vacuum. *Bacon.*—He *took* himself to have deserved as much as any man. *Clarendon.*—He was deceived; and so *took* that for virtue and affection which was nothing but vice in a disguise. *South.*—Depraved appetites cause us often to *take* that for true imitation of nature which has no resemblance of it. *Dryden.*—

So soft his tresses, fill'd with trickling pearl,

You doubt his sex and *take* him for a girl. *Tate.*

—Time is *taken* for so much of infinite duration as is measured out by the great bodies of the universe. *Locke.*—They who would advance in knowledge, should lay down this rule, not to *take* words for things. *Locke.*—Few will *take* a proposition which amounts to no more than this, that God is pleased with the doing of what he himself commands. *Locke.*—Some stories will *take* you for a whig, some whigs will *take* you for a tory. *Pope.*—As I *take* it, the two principal branches of preaching are, to tell the people what is their duty, and then to convince them that it is so. *Swift.* 48. To separate for one's self from any quantity; to remove for one's self from any place.—I will *take* of them for priests. *Isaiah* lxvi. 21.—Hath God assayed to *take* a nation from the midst of another? *Deut.* iv. 34.—I might have *taken* her to me to wife. *Gen.* xii. 19.—Enoch was not, for God *took* him. *Gen.* v. 24.—

Four heifers from his female store he *took.* *Dryd.*

49. Not to leave; not to omit.—The discourse here is about ideas, which he says are real things; in *taking* this along with me, to make it prove any thing to his purpose, the argument must stand thus. *Locke.*—Young gentlemen ought not only to *take* along with them a clear idea of the antiquities on medals and figures, but likewise to exercise their arithmetic in reducing the sums of money to those of their own country. *Arbutnot.*

50. To receive payments.—Never a wife leads a better life than she does; do what she will, *take* all, pay all. *Shak.* 51. To obtain by mensuration.—The knight coming to the tailor's to *take* measure of his gown, perceived the like gown cloth lying there. *Camden.*—With a two foot rule he *took* the dimensions of the room. *Swift.* 52. To withdraw.—Honeycomb, on the verge of thinesters, *took* me aside, and asked me, whether

I would advise him to marry! *Spellator.* 53. To seize with a transitory impulse; to affect so as not to last.—Tiberius, noted for his niggardly temper, only gave his attendants their diet; but once he was taken with a fit of generosity. *Arb.* 54. To comprise; to comprehend.—We always *take* the account of a future state into our schemes about the concerns of this world. *Atterbury.*—Had those who would persuade us that there are innate principles, not *taken* them together in gross, but considered separately the parts, they would not have been so forward to believe they were innate. *Locke.* 55. To have recourse to.—A sparrow *took* a bull just as an eagle made a stoop at an hare. *L'Estr.*—The cat presently *takes* a tree, and sees the poor fox torn to pieces. *L'Estrange.* 56. To produce; or suffer to be produced.—No purposes whatsoever which are meant for the good of that land will prosper, or *take* good effect. *Spenser.* 57. To catch in the mind.—These do best who *take* material hints to be judged by history. *Locke.* 58. To hire; to rent.—

If three ladies, like a luckless play,

Take the whole house upon the poet's day. *Pope.*

59. To engage in; to be active in.—

Imagine me *taking* your part,

And in your pow'r to silencing your son. *Shak.*

60. To incur; to receive as it happens.—

In streams, my boy, and rivers, *take* thy chance. *Addison.*

Now *take* your turn. *Dryden.*

61. To admit in copulation.—

Five hundred asses yearly *took* the horse
Producing mules of greater speed. *Sandys.*

62. To catch eagerly.—

Drances *took* the word. *Dryden.*

63. To use as an oath or expression.—Thou shalt not *take* the name of the Lord in vain. *Exodus.*

64. To seize as a disease.—They that come abroad after these showery, are commonly taken with sickness. *Bacon.*—I am *taken* on a sudden with a swimming in my head. *Dryden.* 65. To *TAKE* away. To deprive of.—If any *take* away from the book of this prophecy; God shall *take* away his part out of the book of life. *Rev.* xxii. 19.—The bill for *taking* away the votes of bishops was called a bill for *taking* away all temporal jurisdiction. *Clarendon.*—Many dispersed objects breed confusion, and *take* away from the picture that grave majesty which gives beauty to the piece. *Dryden.*—

By your own law I *take* your life away. *Dryd.*

The fun'ral pomp which to your kings you pay,

Is all I want, and all you *take* away. *Dryden.*

—One who gives another any thing, has not always a right to *take* it away again. *Locke.*—

Not does nor fortune *takes* this power away. *Pope.*

66. To *TAKE* away. To set aside; to remove.—If we *take* away consciousness of pleasure and pain, it will be hard to know wherein to place personal identity. *Locke.* 67. To *TAKE* care. To be careful; to be solicitous for; to superintend.—Doth God *take* care for oxen? 1 Cor. ix. 9. 68. To *TAKE* care. To be cautious; to be vigilant. 69. To *TAKE* care. To have recourse to measures.—They meant to *take* a course to deal with particulars by reconciliations. *Bacon.*—The violence

violence of storming is the *course* which God is forced to *take* for the destroying of sinners. *Hammond*. 70. To *TAKE* down. To crush; to reduce; to suppress.—Do you think that it is so hard to *take him down* as some suppose? *Spenser*.—*Take down* their mettle: keep them lean.

Dryden.

—Lacqueys were never so saucy as now, and he should be glad to see them *taken down*. *Addison*. 71. To *TAKE* down. To swallow; to take by the mouth.—We cannot *take down* the lives of living creatures, which some of the Paracelsians say, if they could be *taken down*, would make us immortal. *Bacon*. 72. To *TAKE* from. To derogate; to detract.—It *takes* not from you, that you were born with principles of generosity. *Dryden*. 73. To *TAKE* from. To deprive of.—Conversation will add to their knowledge, but be too apt to *take* from their virtue. *Locke*.—

Gentle gods *take* my breath from me. *Shak*.—I will smite thee, and *take* thine head from thee. 1 Sam. 74. To *TAKE* heed. To be cautious; to beware.—*Take heed* of a mischievous man. *Ecclesiast*. xi. 33.—

Take heed lest passion
Sway thy judgment to do ought. *Milton*.
Take heed what doom against yourself you give. *Dryden*.

75. To *TAKE* heed to. To attend.—*Take heed* unto the commandments of the Lord. *Ecclesiast*. xliii. 27. 76. To *TAKE* in. To inclose.—Upon the sea coast are parcels of land that would pay him well for the *taking in*. *Mortimer*. 77. To *TAKE* in. To cheat; to gull; as, the cunning ones were *taken in*. A low vulgar phrase. 79. To *TAKE* in hand. To undertake.—Nothing would prosper that they *took in hand*. 80. To *TAKE* in. To comprise; to comprehend.—These heads are sufficient for the explication of this whole matter; *taking in* some additional discourses. *Burnet*.—This love of our country *takes in* our families, friends, and acquaintance. *Addison*.—The disfigure of the tucker has enlarged the neck of a fine woman, that at present it *takes in* almost half the body. *Addison*.—Of these matters no satisfactory account can be given by any mechanical hypothesis, without *taking in* the superintendence of the great Creator. *Derham*. 81. To *TAKE* in. To admit.—An opinion brought into his head by *course*, because he heard himself called a father, made him *take in*. *Sidney*.—A great vessel full being drawn into bottles, and then the liquor put again into the vessel, will not fill the vessel again so full as it was, but that it may *take in* more. *Bacon*.—Porter was *taken in* as a bed-chamber servant. *Watson*.—

Let fortune empty her whole quiver on me,
I have a soul, that, like an ample shield,
Can *take in* all. *Dryden*.

—The sight and touch *take in* from the same object different ideas. *Locke*.—I *take in* none that do not naturally rejoice in the soil. *Spektator*. 82. To *TAKE* in. To win by conquest.—He sent Alabaga with the Janizaries, to *take in* the other cities of Tunis. *Knolles*.—Should a great beauty resolve to *take me in* with the artillery of her eyes, it would be as vain as for a thief to set upon a new robbed passenger. *Suckling*.—Open places are

easily *taken in*. *Felton*. 83. To *TAKE* in. To receive, locally.—We failed unto Affos, there intending to *take in* Paul. *Acts*, xx. 13.—That which men *take in* by education is next to that which is natural. *Tillotson*.—As no acid is in an animal body but must be *taken in* by the mouth, so if it is not subdued it may get into the blood. *Arbuthnot*.

84. To *TAKE* in. To receive mentally.—A created understanding can never *take in* the fulness of the divine excellencies. *Hale*.—The idea of extension joins itself so inseparably with all visible qualities, that it suffers to see no one without *taking in* impressions of extension too. *Locke*.—It is not in the power of the most enlarged understanding to frame one new simple idea in the mind, not *taken in* by the ways afore-mentioned. *Locke*.—A man can never have *taken in* his full measure of knowledge before he is hurried off the stage. *Addison*.—Let him *take in* the instructions you give him in a way suited to his inclination. *Watts*.—Some genius can *take in* a long train of propositions. *Watts*. 85. To *TAKE* notice. To observe. 86. To *TAKE* notice. To shew by any act that observation is made.—At that time they *took little notice* of it. *Clarendon*. 87. To *TAKE* oath. To swear.—The king of Babylon hath *taken* of the king's feed, and of him *taken* an oath. *Exek*.—We *take* all oath of secrecy, for the concealing of those inventions which we think fit to keep secret. *Bacon*. 88. To *TAKE* off. To invalidate; to destroy; to remove. When it is immediately to be followed by *from*, without an accusative, it may be considered either as elliptically suppressing the accusative, or as being neutral.—

Your power and your command is *taken off*,
And Cassio rules in Cyprus. *Shak*.

The cruel ministers
Took off her life. *Shak*.
—If the heads of the tribes can be *taken off*, and the misled multitude return to their obedience, such an extent of mercy is honourable. *Bacon*.—Subtle or windy spirits are *taken off* by incension or evaporation. *Bacon*.—To stop schisms, *take off* the principal authors by winning and advancing them, rather than enrage them by violence. *Bacon*.—What *taketh off* the objection is, that in judging scandal we are to look to the cause whence it cometh. *Sanderfon*.—All force of these is *taken off* by this doctrine. *Hummond*.—It will not be unwelcome to these worthies, who endeavour the advancement of learning, as being likely to find a clear progression when so many untruths are *taken off*. *Brown*.—This *takes not off* the force of our former evidence. *Still*.—The melting pot can easily *take it off*. *Locke*.—A man's understanding failing him, would *take off* that presumption most men have of themselves. *Locke*.—It shews virtue in the fairest light, and *takes off* from the deformity of vice. *Addison*.—When we would *take off* from the reputation of an action, we ascribe it to vanity. *Addison*.—This *takes off* from the elegance of our tongue, but expresses our ideas in the readiest manner. *Addison*.—The justices decreed, to *take off* a halfpenny in a quart from the price of ale. *Saunders*.—How many lives have been lost in hot blood, and how many likely to be *taken off* in cold. *Blount*.—Favourable names are put upon ill ideas, to *take off* the odium. *Watts*. 89. To *TAKE*

off. To withhold; to withdraw.—He in great courtesy *took us off*, and condescended to ask us questions. *Bacon.*—Your present ditterper is not so troublesome, as to *take you off* from all satisfaction. *Wake.*—There is nothing more ungo-vernable than our thoughts: they will not be directed what objects to pursue, nor be *taken off* from those they have once fixed on. *Locke.*—Keep foreign ideas from *taking off* our minds from its present pursuit. *Locke.* He has *taken you off*, by his mercy, from the vanities and temptations of the world. *Wake.* 9. To *TAKE off.* To swallow.—Were the pleasure of drinking accompanied, the moment a man *takes off* his glass, with that sick stomach which, in some men, follows not many hours after, no body would ever let wine touch his lips. *Locke.* 92. To *TAKE off.* To purchase.—Corn the labourer will have at his own rate, else he'd not *take it off* the farmer's hands for wages. *Locke.*—The Spaniards have no commodities that we will *take off*, above the value of 100,000*l.* per annum, cannot pay us. *Locke.*—There is a project on foot for transporting our best wheat straw to Dunstable, and obliging us to *take off* yearly so many ton of straw hats. *Savist.* 92. To *TAKE off.* To copy.—*Take off* all their models in wood. *Addison.* 93. To *TAKE off.* To find place for.—The multiplying of nobility brings a state to necessity; and, in like manner, when more are bred scholars than preferments can *take off.* *Bacon.* 94. To *TAKE off.* To remove.—When Moses went in, he *took the veil off.* *Exod.* xxiv. 34.—If any would reign and *take up* all the time, let him *take them off* and bring others on. *Bacon.* 95. To *TAKE order with.* To check; to take course with.—Though he would have turned his teeth upon Spain, yet he was *taken order* with before it came to that. *Bacon.* 96. To *TAKE out.* To remove from within any place.—

All thy friends which thou must make thy friends

Have but their stings and teeth newly *ta'en out.*

Shak.

97. To *TAKE part.* To share.—*Take part* in rejoicing for the victory over the Turks. *Pope.*

98. To *TAKE place.* To prevail; to have effect.—

Where arms *take place*, all other pleas are vain.

Dryden.

—The debt a man owes his father *takes place*, and gives the father a right to inherit. *Locke.* 99. To *TAKE up.* To borrow upon credit or interest.—The smooth pates now wear nothing but high shoes; and if a man is through with them in honest *taking up*, they stand upon security. *Shak.*

—We *take up* corn for them. *Neb.*—

She to the merchant goes,

Rich crystals of the rock she *takes up* there,

Huge agat vases, and old china ware. *Dryden.*

—I have *taken up* from Boccaccio before I come to him. *Dryden.*—Men, for want of due payment, are forced to *take up* the necessities of life at almost double value. *Savist.* 100. To be ready for; to engage with.—

One power against the French,

And one against Giendowr, perforce a third. Must *take up* us. *Shak. Henry IV.*

101. To *TAKE up.* To apply to the use of.—

We *loop up* arms not to revenge ourselves,

But free the commonwealth. *Addison.*

102. To *TAKE up.* To begin.—They shall *take up* a lamentation for me. *Beck.* xxv. 17.—Princes friendship, which they *take up* upon the accounts of judgment and merit, they most times lay down out of humour. *South.* 103. To *TAKE up.* To fasten with a ligature passed under. A term of chirurgery.—A large vessel opened by incision must be *taken up* before you proceed. *Sharp.* 104. To *TAKE up.* To engross; to engage.—Over much anxiety in worldly things *takes up* the mind. *Duppa.*—

Take my esteem;

If from my heart you ask, or hope for more,

I grieve is *taken up* before. *Dryden.*

—I intended to have left the stage, for a work which would have *taken up* my life in the performance. *Dryd.*—To understand fully his particular calling in the commonwealth, and religion *takes up* his whole time. *Locke.*—Countries stored with mines are poor; the digging and refuse of these metals *taking up* the labour, and wasting the number of the people. *Locke.*—Most of my fellow soldiers were *taken up* with the same imaginations. *Addison.*—An artist, now *taken up* with this invention. *Addis.*—There is so much *taken up* in the ceremony, that before they enter on their subject the dialogue is half ended. *Addis.*—The affairs of religion and war *took up* Constantine so much, that he had not time to think of trade. *Arb.*—The compass of 12 books is *taken up* in these. *Pope.* 105. To *TAKE up.* To have final recourse to.—Arnobius asserts, that men of the finest parts and learning, rhetoricians, lawyers, physicians, despising the sentiments they had been once fond of, *took up* their rest in the Christian religion. *Addison.* 106. To *TAKE up.* To seize; to catch; to arrest.—Though the sheriff had this authority to *take up* all such stragglers, and imprison them; yet shall he not work that terror in their hearts that a marshal will. *Spenser.*—

I was *taken up* for laying them down. *Shak.*

You have *taken up*,

Under the counterfeited zeal of God,

The subjects of his substitute. *Shak.*

107. To *TAKE up.* To admit.—The ancients *took up* experiments upon credit. *Bacon.* 108. To *TAKE up.* To answer by reproving; to reprimand.—

One of his relations *took him up* roundly. *L'Estrange.* 109. To *TAKE up.* To begin where the former left off.—The plot is purely fiction; for I *take it up* where the history has laid it down.

Dryden's Don Sebast.—

Soon as the evening shades prevail,

The moon *takes up* the wondrous tale. *Spens.*

110. To *TAKE up.* To lift.—

Take up these cloaths here quickly. *Shak.*

—The least things are *taken up* by the thumb and forefingers; when we would *take up* a greater quantity, we would use the thumb and all the fingers. *Ray.*—Milo *took up* a calf daily on his shoulders, and at last arrived at firmness to bear the bull. *Watts.* 111. To *TAKE up.* To occupy locally.—

The chambers which opened towards the scaffold were *taken up.* *Hayward.* All vicious enormous practices are regularly consequent, where the other bath *taken up* the lodging. *Hammond.*—Com-

mittees for the convenience of the common council.

cil who *took up* the Guild-hall, sat in Grocer's-hall. *Clarendon*.—When my concernment *takes up* no more than myself, then I know where to be happy. *South*.—Notwithstanding the room that mountains *take up* on the dry land, there would be at least eight oceans required. *Burnet*.—When these waters were annihilated, so much other matter must be created to *take up* their places. *Burnet*.—Princes were so *taken up* with wars, that few could write or read besides those of the long robes. *Temple*.—The buildings about *took up* the whole space. *Arbutnot*. 112. To *TAKE up*. To manage in the place of another.—I have his horse to *take up* the quarrel. *Shak*.—The greatest empires have had their rise from the pretence of *taking up* quarrels. *L'Estrange*. 113. To *TAKE up*. To comprise.—I prefer in our countrymen the noble poem of Palemon and Arcite, which is perhaps not much inferior to the *Iliad*, only it *takes up* seven years. *Dryden*. 114. To *TAKE up*. To adopt; to assume.—God's decrees of salvation and damnation have been *taken up* by some of the Romish and reformed churches, affixing them to men's particular entities. *Ham*.—The command in war is given to the bravest, and in peace *taken up* by the boldest. *Temple*.—Assurance is properly that confidence which a man *takes up* of the pardon of his sins. *South*.—

The French and we still change.

They *take up* our old trade of conquering,
And we are taking theirs to dance and sing.

Dryden.

—He that will observe the conclusions men *take up*, must be satisfied they are not all rational. *Locke*.—Celibacy, in the church of Rome, was commonly forced, and *taken up* under a bold vow. *Atterbury*.—Lewis Baboon had *taken up* the trade of clothier. *Arbutnot*.—Every man *takes up* those interests in which his humour engages him. *Pope*.—If those proceedings were observed, morality and religion would soon become fashionable, and be *taken up* as the only methods to get or keep employments. *Swift*.—

Take up no more than you by worth may claim,

Left soon you prove a bankrupt.

Young.

115. To *TAKE up*. To collect; to exact a tax.—This great battle was born in a poor country village, and in his childhood taken from his Christian parents, by such as *take up* the tribute children. *Koolen*. 116. To *TAKE upon*. To appropriate to; to assume; to admit to be imputed to.—If I had no more wit than he, to *take a fault upon* me that he did, he had been hang'd for't. *Shak*.—He *took not on him* the nature of angels. *Heb. ii. 16*.—I will *not take upon me* the knowledge how the princes of Europe stand affected towards Spain. *Bacon*.—

Would I could your sufferings bear,

To *take upon myself* your punishment.

Dryden.

She loves me, even to suffer for my sake,

And on herself would my refusal *take*.

Dryden.

117. To *TAKE upon*. To assume; to claim authority. The sense sometimes approaches to neutral.

He must be told on't, and he shall; the office
Becomes a woman best: I'll *take't upon me*.

Shak.

Look that you *take upon you* as you should.

Shak.

—This every translator *taketh upon himself* to do. *Felton*.—The parliament *took upon* them to call an assembly of divines, to settle some church controversies. *Sanderfon*. 118. This verb, like *prendre* in French, is used with endless multiplicity of relations. Its uses are so numerous, that they cannot easily be exemplified; and its references to the words governed by it so general and lax, that they can hardly be explained by any succedaneous terms. But commonly that is hardest to explain which least wants explication. I have expanded this word to a wide diffusion, which, I think, is all that could be done.

(2.) * To *TAKE*. *v. n.* 1. To direct the course; to have a tendency to.—The inclination to goodness, if it issue not towards men, it will *take* unto other things. *Bacon*.—The king began to be troubled with the gout; but the defluxion *taking* also into his breast, wasted his lungs. *Bacon*.—All men being alarmed with it, some *took* towards the park. *Dryden*.—

To flun thy lawless lust thy dying bride,

Unwary, *took* along the river's side.

Dryden.

2. To please; to gain reception.—An apple of Sodom, with a florid white and red, yet fills the hand with stench and foulness: fair in look and rotten in heart, as the gayest and most *taking* things are. *South*.—Words and thoughts, which cannot be changed but for the worse, must of necessity escape the transient view upon the theatre; and yet without these a play may *take*.

Each wit may praise it for his own dear sake,

And hint he writ it, if the thing should *take*.

Addison.

—The work may be well performed, but will never *take* if it is not set off with proper scenes. *Addison*.—May the man grow wittier and wiser by finding that this stuff will not *take* nor please. *Bentley*. 3. To have the intended or natural effect.—In impressions from mind to mind, the impression *taketh*. *Bacon*.—

Putrid earth will best in vineyards *take*.

4. To catch; to fix.—When flame *taketh* and openeth, it giveth a noise. *Bacon*. 5. To *TAKE after*. To learn of; to resemble; to imitate.—

Beasts, that converse

With man, *take after* him, as hogs

Get pigs all th' year, and litches dogs.

Hudib.

—He has *taken after* a good pattern. *Atterbury*.

6. To *TAKE in with*. To resort to.—Men once placed *take in with* the contrary faction. *Bacon*.

7. To *TAKE on*. To be violently affected.—Your husband to *take on* yonder with my husband, that any madnets I ever yet beheld seemed but tamenets to this distemper. *Shak*.—In horses, the smell of a dead horse maketh them fly away, and *take on* as if they were mad. *Bacon*. 8. To *TAKE on*. To claim a character.—

I *take not on me* here as a physician.

Shak.

9. To *TAKE on*. To grieve; to pine.—

How will my mother, for a father's death,

Take on with me, and ne'er be satisfy'd?

Shak.

10. To *TAKE to*. To apply to; to be fond or.—

Have him understand it as a play of older people, and he will *take to* it of himself.

Locke.—

Miss Betty won't *take to* her book.

Swift.

—The heirs to titles and large estates could never *take to* their books. *Swift*. 11. To *TAKE to*. To betake

betake

betake to; to have recourse.—If I had *taken* to the church, I should have had more sense than to have turned myself out of my benefice by writing libels. *Dryden*.—

The callow storks with lizzard and with snake

Are fed; as soon as e'er to wing they *take*,

At light these animals for food pursue. *Dryden*.—Men of learning who *take* to business discharge it generally with greater honesty than men of the world. *Addison*. 11. To *TAKE* up. To stop.—The mind of man being naturally timorous of truth, and yet averse to that diligent search necessary to its discovery, it must needs *take up* short of what is really so. *Gloucester*.—This grated harder upon the hearts of men than the strangeness of all the former articles they *took up* chiefly in speculation. *South*.—Sinners at last *take up*, and settle in a contempt of all religion. *Tillotson*. 13. To *TAKE* up. To reform.—This rational thought made him *take up*, and from that time prove a good husband. *Locke*. 14. To *TAKE* up with. To be contented with.—The is *takes up* with that for his satisfaction, which he reckoned upon before for his misfortune. *L'Estrange*.—

The law and gospel call aloud for active obedience, and such a piety as *takes not up* with idle imaginations. *South*.—I could as easily *take up* with that senseless assertion of the Stoicks, that virtues and vices are real bodies and distinct animals, as with this of the atheists, that they can all be derived from the power of mere bodies. *Bentley*.—A poor gentleman ought never to be curate of a parish, except he be cunninger than the devil. It will be difficult to remedy this, because whoever had half his cunning would never *take up* with a vicarage of 10*l*. *Swift*.—In affairs which may have an influence on our future happiness, we should not *take up* with probabilities. *Watts*. 15. To *TAKE* up with. To lodge; to dwell.—Who would not rather *take up* with the wolf in the woods, than make such a clutter in the world? *L'Estrange*.—Are dogs such desirable company to *take up* with? *South*. 16. To *TAKE* with. To please.—Seasonable mementos may be useful; and being discreetly used, cannot but *take well* with him. *Bacon*.

* *TAKEN*, the participle pass. of *take*.—Thou art *taken* in thy mischief. 1 *Sam*. xvi. 7.—He who letteth will let, until he be *taken* out of the way. 2 *Thess*. ii. 7.—It concerns all who think it worth while to be in earnest with their immortal souls, not to abuse themselves with a false confidence: a thing so easily *taken* up, and so hardly laid down. *South*.—Sealiger, comparing the two great orators, says, that nothing can be *taken* from Demosthenes, nor added to Tully. *Denham*.—His auditors are perhaps as much *taken* up with themselves. *Grov. of the Tongue*.—

The object of desire once *ta'en* away,
'Tis then not love, but pity, which we pay.

Dryden.

* *TAKER*. *n. f.* [from *take*.] He that takes.—

He is sooner caught than the pestilence,
And the *taker* runs presently mad. *Shak*.

—The dear file beyond the seas increased the number of *takers*; and the *takers* jarring and brawling one with another, and foreclosing the

fishes, decreased the number of the taken. *Carew*.—The far distance of this county from the court hath afforded it a superfluity from *takers* and purveyors. *Carew*.—Berry coffee and tobacco, of which the Turks are great *takers*, condense the spirits. *Bacon*.—

Few like the Fabii or the Scipios are

Takers of cities, conquerors in war. *Denham*.

At once the *taker*, and at once the prey.

Denham.

Seize on the king, and him your prisoner make,

While I, in kind revenge, my *taker* take. *Dryd*.

'Tis prodigality that buys deceit,

Where both the giver and the *taker* cheat. *Dryd*.

TA-KIANG. See TAI-OUAN, N° 2.

TA KIA-TCHE, a town of Formosa, on the W. coast. Lon. 137. E. Ferro. Lat. 24. 22. N.

* *TAKING*. *n. f.* [from *take*.] Seizure; distress of mind.—What a *taking* was he in, when your husband asked who was in the basket? *Shak*.

See *law* in what a *taking*

The knight was by his furious quaking. *Butler*.

TAKLACOT, a town of Asia, in Thibet; 60 miles NE. of Koniou.

TAKMITZKAIA, a town of Russia, in Tobolsk, on the Irtysh; 36 miles S. of Tara.

TAKTANG, a river of Russia, which runs into the Lis, in Lon. 107. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 62. 24. N.

TAL, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Curdistan; 240 miles SW. of Berlis.

TALAFERA. See TALAVERA.

TALAHASOCHTE, a large town of the SEMINOLE Indians, on the E. banks of Little St John's River, near the bay of Apalache, in the Gulf of Mexico.

TALAMANKA, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 14 miles NW. of Guadalaxara.

TALAMONE, a sea port of Etruria, 15 miles N. of Orbitello. Lon. 11. 6. E. Lat. 42. 30. N.

TALAN, an island of Russia, in the sea and province of Ochotsk. Lon. 167. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 59. 30. N.

TALANT, a town of France, in the department of Cote d'Or; 1½ miles NW. of Dijon.

TALANTA, two towns of European Turkey. 1. in Livadia. 18 miles NE. of Livadia; 2. in the isle of Negropont, 34 miles NW. of Negropont.

TALAO-ON, a town of Chinese Tartary, in Hami; 28 miles ESE. of Hatamtam.

TALAPINS, *n. f. plur.* See TALAPOINS.

TALAPOIN, *n. f.* in zoology. See SIMIA N° 21.

TALAPOINESSES, *n. f.* nuns of Siam. See the next article.

TALAPOINS, or TALAPINS, *n. f.* priests of Siam.—They enjoy great privileges, but are enjoined celibacy and austerity of life. They live in monasteries contiguous to the temples; and no one may enter into the priesthood, and after a certain age may quit it to marry, and return to society. There are TALAPOINESSES too, or nuns who live in the same convents, but are not admitted till they have passed their 40th year. The talapoins educate children; and at every new full moon explain the precepts of their religion in their temples; and during the rainy season they preach from 6 a. m. till noon, and from

P.

p. m. till 5. They dress in a very mean garb, go bareheaded and barefooted; and no person is admitted among them who is not well skilled in the Bafy language. (See MYTHOLOGY, § 14.) They believe that the universe is eternal; but admit that certain parts of it, as this world, may be destroyed and again regenerated. They believe in a universal pervading spirit, and in the immortality and transmigration of the soul; but they extend this last doctrine, not only to all animals, but to vegetables and rocks. They have their good and evil genii, and particular local deities, who preside over forests and rivers, and interfere in all sublimary affairs. Their morality is said to be very pure. It not only forbids its followers to do ill, but enjoins the necessity of doing good, and of stifling every improper thought or criminal desire.

TALAPOOSEE, a river of W. Florida, which is the great NE. branch or rather head water, of the Alabama and Mobile. In most maps, the lower part of it is called *Oakfuskee*. See **MOBILE**, N° 1; and **OKAFUSKEE**, N° 1.

TALARHO, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Eluths; 715 miles NW. of Pekin. Lon. 110. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 34. N.

TALASEE, or } a county of Georgia, bound-
(1.) **TALASSEE**, } ed on the N. by the Alata-
mah, E. by Glynn and Camden counties, S. by E. Florida, and W. by a line from the W. part of Ekanfanoka swamp, in the NE. direction till it joins the **OAKMULGEE** at its mouth, where it forms the S. great branch or head water of the **ALATAMAHA**. See these articles.

(2.) **TALASSEE**, BIG, and } Two towns of
(3.) **TALASSEE**, LITTLE, } Georgia, belong-
ing to the Greek or Muskogulge Indians, on the S. bank of the Talaposee. They are regularly built, with a square in the middle of each. See **MUSKOGULGE**.

TALAVAN, a town of Spain, in Estremadura; 25 miles S. of Placentia.

(1.) **TALAVERA**, a town of Spain, in New Castile, with a fort, seated on the Tajo, in a valley, abounding in corn, fruits and vines, which afford excellent wine. It has ancient fortifications by walls, towers, and breast-works. It was formerly appropriated to the Queen's revenue, whence, it is called **TALAVERA LE REYNA**. It is famous for earthen wares; and lies 35 miles W. of Toledo, and 38 SW. of Madrid. Lon. 4. 1. W. Lat. 39. 41. N.

(2.) **TALAVERA LA REAL**, a town of Spain, in Estremadura; 13 miles SE. of Badajoz.

(3.) **TALAVERA LA REYNA**. See N° 1.

(4.) **TALAVERA LA VIEJA**, or *Old Talavera*, a town of Spain in New Castile; 6 miles WSW. of Toledo.

TALAUERUELA, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, on the Guadiana; 14 miles E. of Badajoz. Lon. 6. 34. W. Lat. 38. 34. N.

TALAU, the son of Bias and Pero; one of **ARGONAUTS**, and father of **ADRASTUS**.

TALAYRA, or *Hilaria*, wife of *Castor*, and sister of *Phœbe*. See **PHOEBE**.

TALBERT'S ISLAND, an island of Georgia, near the coast. In Lat. 30. 44. N.

(1.) **TALBOT** William. B. D. an eminent English prelate, born in 1659, and educated at

Oxford. In the reign of James II. he preached with great courage and zeal against Popery; for which after the revolution, he was promoted to be dean of Worcester, and afterwards bishop of Salisbury. In 1712, he was made bishop of Durham; published several Sermons; and died in 1730.

(2.) * **TALBOT**, *n. f.* [It is borne by the house of *Talbot* in their arms] A hound. It is so used in *Waller's* translation of *Grotius*.

(3.) **TALBOT**, in geography, a rich and populous county of Maryland, on the Eastern Shore, bounded N. by Queen Anne county; E. by the Choptank and Caroline county; S. by the Choptank and Dorchester county; and W. by Chesapeake Bay. It is 24½ miles long, from N. to S. and 15½ broad, from E. to W. In 1795, it contained 8,397 citizens, and 4,777 slaves. **EASTON** is the capital.

(4.) **TALBOT**, a town of Maryland in the above county; 77 miles SSW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 76. 12. W. Lat. 38. 49. N.

(5.) **TALBOT**, an island in the Atlantic, on the coast of E. Florida; 8 miles long, and a broad. Lon. 81. 41. W. Lat. 30. 36. N.

(1.) **TALC**, or **TALK**, *n. f.* in the old system of mineralogy, a species of fossil formerly arranged under the magnesian earths; and in Magellan's edition of *Cronstedt's Mineralogy*, ranked as a species of **MICA**. See **MICA**, N° 1, and II. There are two varieties, viz.:

1. **TALC**, **MUSCOVY**, called also *lapis specularis*, is very common in Russia, and Cyprus; and in the Alps, the Apennines, and many mountains of Germany. It is imported in large quantities into England, and is used by the lantern-makers instead of horn in their nicer works; by the painters to cover miniature pictures; and by the microscope-makers to preserve small objects for viewing by glasses. The ancients used it instead of glass in their windows. It differs from plaster stone in this, that it does not, after being calcined and wetted with water, swell and concrete into a hard stony substance. Muscovy talc and lapis specularis were long considered as the same, but a distinction is now discovered between them. See **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. IV. Class I. Ord. I. Gen. VII. Sp. 6, 7. Talc is employed, in places where it is found in considerable quantity, in compositions for earthen vessels, tests and cupels, &c. From its smoothness, unctuousity, and brightness, it has been celebrated as a cosmetic; and former chemists submitted it to a variety of operations, for procuring from it oils, salts, tinctures, magisteries, &c. But all their labours proved in vain.

2. **TALC**, **VENETIAN**, is not so named from being a production of the territories of Venice, (for it is seldom met with in that country,) but as an article of Venetian commerce. It abounds in England, Norway, Hungary, Bohemia, Spain, and in many countries of Asia. With half its weight of alkaline salt, it may in a strong fire, be brought into perfect fusion, though not to perfect transparency; with equal weight, or less, of borax, it runs into a beautiful, pellucid, greenish yellow glass. Talc does not melt with any other earth, nor even bake or cohere with any but the argillaceous; Mixtures of it with them all are nevertheless brought into fusion by a remarkably

less quantity of saline matter than the ingredients separately would require. Thus equal parts of talc and chalk, with only one 4th their weight of borax, melt in a moderate heat into a fine transparent greenish glass, of considerable hardness and great lustre. On substituting gypseous earths to chalk, the fusion is as easy, and the glass as beautiful; in colour not green, but yellow like the topaz. Talc, with half its weight of sand, and a quantity of nitre equal to both, yields also a transparent topaz yellow glass. See other experiments by Mr Port, in *Mém. de l'Acad. de Berlin*, 1746.

(II.) TALC, in the new system of mineralogy, is reckoned by Dr Thomson, a species quite distinct from MICA; and is subdivided into 3 varieties; viz. 1. *The SCALY TALC*; 2. *The VENETIAN of Common TALC*; and 3. *The SHISTOSE TALC*. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Cl. I. Ord. I. Gen. VII. Sp. 7.

(1.) TALCAGUAMA, CAPE, a cape of Peru; on the coast of Chili: 6 miles N. of Port St Vincent and 33 NE. of St Mary Isle.

(2.) TALCAGUAMA PORT, a port or harbour of Chili, in Concepcion Bay; 6 miles within the above Cape. *Morse*.

TALCAN, a town of Asia, in Tokaristan; taken by Jenghis khan in 1221, after a siege of 7 months. It is 100 miles SE. of Termed. Lon. 84. 55. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 45. N.

TALCAQUANO, a sea port town of Peru, in Chili, with good anchorage in 4 fathoms water; 6 miles from Concepcion. (*Cruisevell*.) Perhaps it is the same with TALCAGUAMA.

TALCITE. *n. s.* a name given by Kirwan to *Scaly Talc*. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Cl. I. Ord. I. Gen. VII. Sp. 7.

* TALE. *n. s.* [*tale*, from *tallen*, to tell, Sax.] 1. A narrative; a story. Commonly a slight or petty account of some trifling or fabulous incident; as, a tale of a tub. This story prepared their minds for the reception of any tales relating to other countries. *Watts*. 2. Oral relation.—

My conscience hath a thousand several tongues.

And ev'ry tongue brings in a sev'ral tale,
And every tale condemns me for a villain. *Shak.*

Life is a tale

Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury,
Signifying nothing. *Shak.*

Hermia, for aught I could read,

Could never hear by tale or history
The course of true love never did run smooth. *Shak.*

—We spend our years as a tale that is told. *Pis.*
g. [*Talan*, to count, Saxon.] Number reckoned.—
Number may serve your purpose with the ignorant,
who measure by tale and not by weight. *Hooker*.

For ev'ry bloom his trees in Spring afford,
An autumn apple was by tale restor'd. *Dryden*.

Once he takes the tale of all the lambs. *Dryd.*

The herald for the last proclaims,
The tale was ju'd. *Dryden*.

—Reasons of things are rather to be taken by weight than tale. *Collier*. 4. Reckoning; numeral account.—In picking, they keep a just tale of the number that every hoghead containeth. *Carew*.—

Money being the common scale

Of things by measure, weight and tale. *Butler*.

—Twelve returned upon the principal pannel, or the tales are sworn to try according to their evidence. *Hale*. 5. Information; disclosure of any thing secret.—

From hour to hour we ripe and ripe,

And then from hour to hour we rot and rot;
And thereby hangs a tale. *Shak.*

Birds live in the air free, and are aptest by their voice to tell tales what they find. *Bacon*.

* TALEBEARER. *n. s.* [*tale* and *bear*.] One who gives officious or malignant intelligence.—The liberty of a common table is a tacit invitation to all intruders; as buffoons, spies, talebearers, flatterers. *L'Estrange*.—In great families, some one false, paltry talebearer, by carrying stories, shall discompose the quiet of the whole family. *South*.

* TALEBEARING. *n. s.* [*tale* and *bear*.] The act of informing officious or malignant intelligence. Timothy was extremely officious about their mistress's person, endeavouring, by flattery and talebearing, to set her against the rest of the servants. *Arbuthnot*.

TALEKAN, 2 towns of Persia; 1. in Chorasán, with a fort, 195 miles NE. of Herat; 2. in Irac, 30 miles NE. of Amadan.

(1.) * TALENT *n. s.* [*talentum*, Lat.] 1. A talent signified so much weight, or a sum of money, the value differing according to the different ages and countries. *Arbuthnot*.—

Five talents in his debt. *Shak.*

Two great talents of the finest gold. *Dryden*.
2. Faculty; power; gift of nature. A metaphor borrowed from the talents mentioned in the holy writ. It is used sometimes seriously, and sometimes lightly.—Miry, who knew the treasurer's talents in removing prejudice, believed the loss of the duke was unfeignable. *Clarendon*.—He is chiefly to be considered in his three different talents, as a critic, satyrist, and writer of odes. *Dryden*.—

'Tis not my talent to conceal my thoughts.

Addison.

—Logick is none of their talents. *Baker*.—Persons who possess the true talent of raillery are like comets; they are seldom seen, and all at once admired and feared. *Female Quixote*.—Algeius, though otherwise a very worthy man, yet having no talent for disputation, recommended Sifinius, his lecturer. *Waterland*. 3. Quality; disposition. An improper and mistaken use.—The nation generally was without any ill talent to the church in doctrine or discipline. *Clarendon*.—It is the talent of human nature to run from one extreme to another. *Swift*.

(2.) TALENTS, ATTIC. The common Attic talent of weight contained 60 Attic minæ, or 6000 Attic drachmæ; and weighed, according to Dr Arbuthnot, 56lbs. 11 oz. 17½ gr. English troy weight. There was another Attic talent, by some said to consist of 80, by others of 100 minæ. See § 4.

(3.) TALENTS, EGYPTIAN AND ANTIOCHIAN. The Egyptian talent was 80 minæ; the Antiochian also 80; the Ptolemæic of Cleopatra 86½; that of Alexandria 96; and the Insular talent 120.

(4.) TALENTS, GRECIAN, SYRIAN, TYRIAN, &c. In the valuation of money, the Grecian talent, according to Dr Arbuthnot, was equal to 60 minæ, or, reckoning the mina at L. 3: 4: 7, equal to L. 193, 15.

L.193, 15: The Syrian talent in this valuation consisted of 15 Attic minæ; the Ptolemaic of 20; the Antiochian of 50; the Euboic of 60; the Babylonian of 70; the Greater Attic of 80; the Tyrian of 80; the Egeian of 100; the Rhodian of 100; and the Egyptian of 80 minæ. There is another talent much more ancient, which Dr Arbuthnot calls the *Homerian talent* of gold, which seems to have weighed six Attic drachmas of three darics, a daric weighing very little more than a guinea.

(5.) **TALENTS, JEWISH.** Talents, as a species of money, among the Hebrews, was sometimes used for a gold coin, the same with the shekel of gold, called also *ater*, and weighing only four drachms. The Hebrews reckoned by these talents as we do by pounds, &c. Thus a million of gold, or million of talents of gold, among them, was a million of shekels or nummi; the nummus of gold, being the same weight with the shekel, viz. four drachms. But the Hebrew talent weight of silver, which they called *CICAR*, was equivalent to that of 3000 shekels, or 113lb. 10oz. 1dwt. 104 gr. English Troy weight, according to Arbuthnot.

(6.) **TALENTS, ROMAN.** Among the Romans there were two kinds of talents, the *little* and the *great talent*; the little was the common talent; and whenever they say simply *talentum*, they are to be understood of this. The little talent was 60 minæ or Roman pounds; the mina or pound estimated at 100 drachmæ or denarii; it was also estimated at 24 great sesterces, which amounted to 60 pounds. The great talent exceeded the less by one 3d part. Budæus computes, that the little talent of silver was worth L.75 Sterling, and the great L.99 : 6 : 8 Sterling. The greater of gold was worth L.1125 Sterling.

TALASSE. See **TALASSEE**, N° 1—3.

TALÆUM, a town of Laconia, on mount Taygetus, famous for its temple of Apollo. Horfes were sacrificed in it. *Paus.*

TALGARTH, a town of S. Wales, in Brecknockshire, on the Lleveny, 8 or 10 miles NE. of Brecknock, and 160 W. of London. It has a college, established by the late countess of Huntingdon, as a seminary for young divines. (See *SHIRLEY*, N° 1.) It has fairs March 12, May 31, July 10, Sept. 23, Nov. 3, and Dec. 3.

TALGAUTPORAM, a town of Hindostan, in the Myfore; 6 miles S. of Bangalore.

TALGUL, a town of Hindostan, in the Myfore; 10 miles SSW. of Sirpy.

TALHAIARN, a celebrated bard of Wales, who flourished in the middle of the 7th century. He composed among other poems a poetical prayer, which became a general formula among the bards.

TALHAM, a town of Germany, in Austria; 5 miles SSW. of Voglabruck.

(1.) **TALI**, a city of China, of the first rank, in Yun-nan, famous for its beautiful marble, obtained from Mount TIEN-SUNG, naturally ornamented with figures of trees, flowers, rivers, mountains, &c. and of which they make tables and other articles. It has 4 cities of the second rank under its jurisdiction, and 3 of the third; and is 1205 miles SW. of Peking. Lon. 117. 40. E. Ferro, Lat. 25. 45. E.

(2.) **TALI**, a town of Formosa on the W. coast. Lon. 137. 27. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 36. N.

TALIACOTIUS, Gaspar, chief surgeon to the great duke of Tuscany, was born at Bononia, in Italy, in 1553. He wrote a Latin treatise entitled *Chirurgia Notæ de Curtis Membriis*, in which he teaches the art of engraving *noses, ears, lips, &c.* giving representations of the instruments and proper bandages.

TALIESSIN, the most famous of the ancient bards of Wales. He flourished in the sixth century, under princes *Elphin* and *Urien*. About 80 of his *Poems* are preserved, and published in the *Welsh Archaeology*.

TALIGONG, a town of Hindostan, in the Carnatic; 7 miles N. of Terriore.

TALIGOV, a town of Russia, in Riga.

TALIHOU, a small island of France, on the coast of the department of the Channel, and cédant prov. of Normandy; 3 miles N. of Hoguc. At low water the channel between it and the continent is dry. It has a lazaretto.

TA-LIN-HO, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lon. 138. 38. E. Ferro. Lat. 14. 10. N.

TALIO, *n. s. lex talionis*, or the law of retaliation, a species of punishment in the Mosaic law, whereby an evil is returned similar to that committed against us by another; as an "Eye for eye, tooth for tooth." This law was first inserted in the XII. tables amongst the Romans; but afterwards set aside, and a power given to the prætor to fix upon a sum of money for the damage.

(1.) * **TALISMAN**, *n. s.* [I know not whence derived; *ταλίσμα*, *Skinner*.] A magical character. —If the physicians would forbid us to pronounce gout, rheumatism, and stone, would that serve like so many *talismans* to destroy the diseases? *Swift*.

Of *talismans* and figils knew the power. *Pope*.

(2.) **TALISMANS** are magical figures cut or engraved with superstitious observations on the characters and configurations of the heavens, to which some astrologers have attributed wonderful virtues, particularly that of calling down celestial influences. The talismans of Samothrace, so famous of old, were pieces of iron formed into certain images, and set in rings; these were esteemed preservatives against all kinds of evils. There were likewise talismans taken from vegetables, and from minerals.

* **TALISMANICK**, *adj.* [from *talisman*.] Magical.—The figure of a heart bleeding upon an altar, or held in the hand of a Cupid, has always been looked upon as *talismanick* in dresses of this nature. *Addison*.

(1.) * **TALK**, *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Oral conversation; fluent and familiar speech.—

We do remember; but our argument

Is all too heavy to admit much *talk*. *Shak.*
—Perceiving his soldiers dismayed, he forbade them to have any *talk* with the enemy. *Knolles*.—How can he get wisdom that driveth oxen, and whose *talk* is of bullocks? *Eccles. xxxviii.*—This ought to weigh with those whose reading is designed for much *talk*. *Locke*.—

In various *talk* th' instructive hours they pass,
Who gave the ball, or paid the visit last. *Pope*.
2. Report;

2. Report; rumour.—I hear a *talk* up and down of raising our money. *Locke*. 3. Subject of discourse.—

What delight to be by such extoll'd,
To live upon their tongues and be their *talk*,
Of whom to be despis'd were no small praise?
Milton.

(2.) **TALK*. *n. s.* [*tale*, Fr.] A kind of stone.—Stones composed of plates are generally parallel, and flexible, and elastic: as, *talk*, cat-fliver or glimmer, of which there are three sorts, the yellow or golden, the white or silvery, and the black. *Woodward*.—Venetian *talk* kept in a heat of a glass furnace, had not lost much of its bulk, and seemed nearer of kin to *talk* than mere earth. *Boyle*.

(3.) *TALK*, or *TALC*, § 2. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Class I. Order I. Gen. VII. Sp. 7. and *TALC*, § 1—II.

(4.) *TALK*, in geography, or *TALK ON THE HILL*, a town of England, in Staffordshire, seated on a hill, N. of Newcastle under Line, near the source of that river, on the road from London to Carlisle, 154 miles from London.

* *To TALK*. *v. n.* [*tsalen*, Dutch.] 1. To speak in conversation; to speak fluently and familiarly; not in set speeches; to converse.—I will buy with you, sell with you, *talk* with you; but I will not eat with you. *Shak*.—Now is this vice's dagger become a squire, and *talks* as familiarly of John of Gaunt as if he had been sworn brother to him. *Shak*.—The princes refrained *talk*ing. *Job*, xxix. 9.—The children of thy people still *talk* against thee. *Book*.—

With himself, his best adviser *talks*. *Walker*.—God remembers that we are but flesh, unable to bear the nearer approaches of divinity, and so *talks* with us, as once with Moses, through a cloud. *Decay of Piety*.—Mention the king of Spain, he *talks* very notably. *Addison*. 2. To prattle; to speak impudently.—

Hypocrites austere *talk*

Of purity. *Milton*.

My heedless tongue has *talk'd* away this life.

—Consider well the time when Petavius first began to *talk* in that manner. *Waterland*. 3. To give account.—

The crystalline sphere, whose balance weighs
The trepidation *talk'd*. *Milton*.

—The natural histories of Switzerland *talk* much of the fall of these rocks. *Addison*.—We will consider whether Adam had any such heir as our author *talks* of. *Locke*. 4. To speak; to reason; to confer.—Let me *talk* with thee of thy judgments. *Jer.* xii. 1.—Will ye *talk* deceitfully for him? *Job*, xiii. 7.—It is a difficult task to *talk* to the purpose. *Collier*.—*Talking* over the things which you have read with your companions fixes them upon the mind. *Watts*.

* *TALKATIVE*. *adj.* [from *talk*.] Full of prate; loquacious.—If I have held you overlong, lay the fault upon my old age, which in its disposition is *talkative*. *Sidney*.—This may prove an instructive lesson to the disaffected, not to build hopes on the *talkative* zealots of their party. *Add*.—I am ashamed I cannot make a quicker progress

in the French, where every body is so courteous and *talkative*. *Addison*.—

The coxcomb bird so *talkative* and grave,
That from his cage cries cuckold, whore, and knave;

Though many a passenger he rightly call,
You h'd him no philosopher at all. *Pope*.

* *TALKATIVENESS*. *n. s.* [from *talkative*.] Loquacity; garrulity; fulness of prate.—We call this *talkativeness* a feminine vice. *Gow. of Tongue*.—Learned women have lost all credit by their impertinent *talkativeness* and conceit. *Swift*.

TALKEAVE, a town of Persia in Segestan, 21 miles SW. of Kin.

TALKER. *n. s.* [from *talk*.] 1. One who talks.—Let me give for instance some of those writers or *talkers* who deal much in the words Nature or Fate. *Watts*. 2. A loquacious person; a pratter.—

Farewell, I'll grow a *talker* for this jeer. *Shak*.—If it were desirable to have a child a more brisk *talker*, ways might be found to make him so. *Locke*. 3. A boaster; a bragging fellow.—The greatest *talkers* in the days of peace, have been the most pusillanimous in the day of temptation. *Taylor*.

* *TALKY*. *adj.* [from *talk*.] Consisting of talk; resembling talk.—The *talky* flakes in the strata were all formed before the subsidence, along with the sand. *Woodward*.

* *TALL*. *adj.* [*tâl*, Welsh.] 1. High in stature. Bring word how *tall* the is. *Shak*.

Two of nobler shape, *Milton*.

Erect and *tall*.

2. High; lofty.—

Winds rush'd abroad
On the vast wilderness, whose *tallest* pines,
Though rooted deep as high, and sturdiest oaks,
Bow'd their stiff necks. *Milton*.

—They lop, and lop, on this and that hand, cutting away the *tall*, sound, and substantial timber, that used to shelter them from the winds. *Darwin*.—

May he live long enough to see them all

Dark shadows cast, and as his palace *tall*! *Wall*. 3. Sturdy; lusty.—I'll swear thou art a *tall* fellow of thy hands, and that thou wilt not be drunk; but I know thou art no *tall* fellow of thy hands, and that thou wilt be drunk; but I would thou wouldst be a *tall* fellow of thy hands. *Shak*.

(1.) * *TALLAGE*. *n. s.* [*tailage*, Fr.] Impost; excise.—The people of Spain were better affected unto Philip than to Ferdinand, because he had imposed upon them many taxes and *tallages*. *Bac*.

(2.) *TALLAGE*, [*tallagium*,] from the French *taille*, is metaphorically used for a part or share of a man's subsistence carried out of the whole, paid by way of tribute, toll, or tax.

(1.) *TALLACH*, a town of Ireland, in Waterford, Munster, 104 miles from Dublin.

(2.) *TALLAGH*, a small town of Ireland, in Dublin county, Leinster, 3 miles SW. of Dublin.

(3.) *TALLAGH HILL*, a hill of Ireland, in Dublin county, near Tallagh, (N^o 2.) which affords a very beautiful and extensive prospect of the surrounding country, the city, harbour, and bay of Dublin, with the peninsula of Howth, and the Irish Channel.

(1.) *TAL-*

(1.) **TALLAND**, a town of England, in Cornwall, a mile from West Looe.

(2.) **TALLAND POINT**, a promontory on the coast of Cornwall, between Fowey and the two Looes.

(3.) **TALLANO**, a town of the French empire, in the island and dep. of Corfica; capital of a late district, and seated on the Gulf (N^o 2.), 30 miles SW. of Corte, and 24 N. of Bonifacio.

(4.) **TALLANO, GULF OF**, a bay of the Mediterranean, on the coast of Corfica.

TALLAPOOSEE. See **TALAPOOSEE**.

TALLARAPESCET, a town of Perfia, in the province of Mezanderan; 21 miles S. of Ferabad.

(1.) **TALLARD**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Alps, and ci-devant province of Dauphiny; seated on the Durance; 9 miles S. of Gap, 15 N. of Sisteron, and 47 S. of Grenoble. Lon. 6. 10. E. Lat. 44. 28. N.

(2.) **TALLARD**, Camillus d'Hottun, Count of, a celebrated French general, born at Provence in 1651. He commanded the army on the Rhine in 1704, and in 1705 was made a marshal; when he defeated the Prince of Hesse-Cassel, and took Landau. In 1704 he was sent with an army of 40,000 men against the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene; but was defeated and taken prisoner at the battle of Hochstet, and brought over to England, where he was detained seven years. Upon his return to Paris he was created a duke, and made secretary of state in 1726. He died in 1728.

TALLASSEE. See **TALASER**, N^o 1—3.

TALLEMONT. See **TALMONT**.

TALLEVENDE, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados, containing about 3000 citizens, whose chief manufacture is earthen ware; 2 miles SW. of Vire.

TALLIER, *n. f.* [from *tally*.] An officer in the exchequer, now called *teller*. See **TALLY**, § 2; **TILLER**, § 1. *def.* 3. and § 2.

TALLIS, Thomas, an English musician of the 16th century, reckoned one of the most eminent that ever England bred. But his abilities were wholly devoted to sacred music. He is said to have been organist of the chapel royal to Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary I. and Elizabeth. It is certain, he was organist along with Bird under Elizabeth; and these two published an admired collection of *Hymns for the Church Service*. He composed the Morning, Evening, and Communion Services, in 4 parts, with the preces, responses, and litany; and several anthems. He died 23d November 1585, and was buried in Greenwich church.

(1.) * **TALLOW**. *n. f.* [*talge*, Danish.] The grease or fat of an animal; coarse suet.—I warrant her rags, and the *tallow* in them, will burn a Lipland winter. *Shak.*—The Spaniards kill thousands of them yearly, for their *tallow* and hides. *Bayly*.—Snuff the candles close to the *tallow*. *Swift*.

(2.) **TALLOW**, in commerce, is the fat of certain animals melted and clarified. It is procured from most animals, but chiefly from bullocks, sheep, hogs, and bears. Some kinds of tallow are used as unguents in medicine, some for making soap and dressing leather, and some for making

candles. See **ANATOMY** and **CHEMISTRY**, *Indexes*, and **FAT**.

(3.) **TALLOW**, in geography, a borough of Ireland, in Waterford, which sent two members to the late Irish parliament. It is seated on the *Bride*, which is navigable by boats up to it; 23 miles WNW. of Cork, and 32 WSW. of Waterford.

(4.) **TALLOW TREE**. See **CHINA**, § 31; and **CROTON**, § III. N^o 3. Sir George Staunton says, that the candles made of the vegetable tallow are *firmer* than those made of animal tallow, and free from all offensive *smell*. They are not, however, equal to those of wax or spermaceti; but the latter is not within the reach of the Chinese, and the art of blanching the former is little known to them. The tallow tree has been transplanted to Carolina, and flourishes there as well as in China.

* **To TALLOW**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To grease; to smear with tallow.

* **TALLOWCHANDER**. *n. f.* [*tallow* and *chandelier*, Fr.] One who makes candles of tallow, not of wax.—Several nasty trades, as *tallowchandlers*, butchers, and neglect of cleaning of gutters, are great occasions of a plague. *Harvey*.

TALL-WATER, a river of Ireland, in Armagh, which joins the Cullen, and falls into the Black-water near Charlemont.

(1.) * **TALLY**. *n. f.* [from *tailleur*, to cut, Fr.] 1. A stick notched or cut in conformity to another stick, and used to keep accounts by.—

So right his judgment was cut fit,

And made a *tally* to his wit.

Hudibras.

—The only talents in esteem are those of Exchange-alley; one *tally* is worth a grove of bays. *Garth*.—

Have you not seen a baker's maid

Between two equal panniers sway'd?

Her *tallies* useless lie and idle,

If plac'd exactly in the middle.

Prior.

From his rug the skew'r he takes,

And on the stick ten equal notches makes;

There, take my *tally* of ten thousand pound.

Swift.

2. Any thing made to suit another.—

They were fram'd the *tallies* for each other.

Dryden.

(2.) The **TALLY** is used by bakers, brewers, &c. And this was the ancient way of keeping all accounts, one part being kept by the creditor, the other by the debtor, &c. Hence the **TALLIER** of the exchequer, whom we now call the *teller*.

(3.) **TALLY COURT**, a court where the two deputy chamberlains of the exchequer and the *tally-cutter* attend; and a tally is generally the king's acquittance for money paid or lent, and has written on it words proper to express on what occasion the money is received.

(1.) * **To TALLY**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fit; to suit; to cut out, so as to answer any thing.—

They seem'd just *tally'd* for each other.

Prior.

—They are not so well *tally'd* to the present juncture. *Pope*.

(2.) * **To TALLY**. *v. n.* To be fitted; to conform; to be suitable.—I found pieces of tiles that exactly *tallied* with the channel. *Addison*.

TALLY-CUTTER. *n. f.* [*tally* and *cutter*.] An officer

officer in the court of Exchequer, who cuts or marks the tally. See TALLY, § 3.

TALLY-MAN, *n. f.* [*tally* and *man.*] a person that sells or lets goods, clothes, &c. to be paid by so much a week.

TALLYOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in the Mysore : 8 miles NW. of Dindigul.

TALMAS, a town of France, in the department of the Somme : 9 miles S. of Dowlons.

TALMAY, a town of France, in the department of the Cote d'Or, at the junction of the Vienne and Saone : 18 miles NE. of Dijon.

TALMOND, or } a town of France, in the
(1.) TALMONT, } dep. of Lower Charente,
and late prov. of Saintonge, with a harbour, on a peninsula on the right bank of the Gironde : 18 miles SW. of Saintes, as M. Cruttwell has it, or 20 SE. as Brookes says ; 42 N. of Bourdeaux, and 260 SW. of Paris. Lon. o. 50. W. Lat. 45. 32. N.

(2.) TALMONT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vendee ; 7½ miles ESE. of Sable d'Olonne, and 18 W. of Luçon.

(1.) * TALMUD, THALMUD. *n. f.* The book containing the Jewish traditions, the rabbinical constitutions and explications of the law.

(2.) TALMUD is the name of two Jewish works, the *Talmud of Jerusalem* and the *Talmud of Babylon*. Each of these is composed of two parts ; the Mishna, which is the text, and is common to both, and the Gemara or commentary. See GEMARA and MISHNA. The Mishna, which comprehends all the laws, institutions, and rules of life, which, besides the ancient Hebrew scriptures, the Jews thought themselves bound to observe, was composed, according to their own unanimous testimony, about the close of the 2d century. It was the work of Rabbi Juda Hakkadosh, who was the ornament of the school at Tiberias, and is said to have occupied him 40 years. The commentaries and additions which succeeding Rabbis made were collected by Rabbi Johanan Ben Eliezer, in the 5th, 6th, or 7th century, under the name of Gemara, that is, *completion* ; because it completed the Talmud. A similar addition was made to the Mishna by the Babylonish doctors in the 6th or 7th century. The Talmud of Babylon is most valued by the Jews ; and this is the book which they mean, when they talk of *the Talmud* in general. An abridgment of it was made by Maimonides in the 12th century, in which he rejected some of its greatest absurdities. The last edition of the Talmud of Babylon, printed at Amsterdam, is in 12 vols folio. The Talmud of Jerusalem is in one large folio.

* TALNESS. *n. f.* [*from tall.*] Height of stature ; procerity.—

An heinous giant, horrible and high,
That with his *talness* seem'd to threat the sky.

Spenser.

—The eyes behold so many naked bodies, as for *talness* of stature could hardly be equalled in any country. *Hayward.*

TALO-CHAN, an island near the coast of China. Lon. 139. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 29. 57. N.

TALOIRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and late duchy of Savoy ; 8 miles SSE. of Annecy.

* TALON. *n. f.* [*talas*, Fr.] The claw of a

bird of prey.—It may be tried, whether birds may not be made to have greater or longer talons. *Bacon.*—

Upward the noble bird directs his wing,

Lifts his fierce talon high.

Prior.

TALOO, a sea-port on the N. coast of Eimeo, one of the SOCIETY ISLANDS, in the South Sea. Lon. 150° W. or 210°, as Cruttwell says. Lat. 17. 30. S.

TALOOK, *n. f.* an Arabic word, which signifies literally attachment, connection, dependence. In Bengal, however, where it occurs perpetually in the enumeration of the districts and subdivisions of that province contained in the infinitives of Akber, it signifies a tenure of land. Hence the *talook* of Calhinaat, the *talook* of Meheys the headman, the *talook* of Ahmed Khan, &c. See *A Dissertation concerning the Landed Property of Bengal*, by Sir Charles Roufe Boughton.

TALOOKDAR, *n. f.* the possessor of a talook.

TALOOKDARY, *n. f.* tenure of a talookdar.

TALOVKA, a river of Russia, which joins the Analick, and the joint waters fall into the Irgis, 32 miles E. of Volk, in Saratov.

TALPA, in zoology, the MOLE ; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of *feræ* and class of *mammalia*. It has six unequal foreteeth in the upper jaw, and 2 in the lower ; one tusk on each side in each jaw ; 7 grinders on each side above, and 6 below. There are 7 species, viz.

1. TALPA AUREA, the gilded mole, or Siberian mole of Pennant, has 3 toes on the fore feet, with very large claws ; 5 on the hind, with weak claws ; but no tail. The snout is shorter than that of the European, (Nº 3.) the nose naked ; the head and body 4 inches ; the fur above varied with glossy green, golden, and reddish copper colour ; the lower a cinereous brown. They inhabit the Cape of Good Hope and Siberia.

2. TALPA CRISTATA, the crested mole, or *Sorex cristatus* of Gmelin, has 5 toes on each foot ; a short tail ; and the nose long and surrounded at the point with 10 or 15 short radiated tendrils forming a star ; the body is thick and round, and covered with a fine short dusky fur. They feed on roots, and inhabit N. America.

3. TALPA EUROPEA, the European mole, is the only species found in Britain. They inhabit the whole of Europe, except Ireland, where no moles are found. They are also common in the N. of Asia and Africa. They chiefly frequent moist fields exposed to the sun, meadows, and gardens ; through which they form subterraneous roads in every direction in search of worms, on which and the larvae of insects they feed, and not on vegetables, though they do great damage by loosening the roots of plants. They are most active before rain, as the worms are then in motion. The penis of the male is exceedingly long in proportion ; they pair and propagate in spring, the female bringing 4 or 5 young at a birth, which are placed in nests made of moss, leaves, and dried grass, under the largest hillocks of the field ; these are constructed with wonderful ingenuity, consisting of an interior hillock, surrounded with a ditch which communicates with several galleries, or purpose to carry off the moisture ; and the ne

is covered over with a dome of earth, like the flat arch of an oven. Moles are destroyed by a paste composed of palma christi and white hellebore, or by flooding the fields which they infest; though, in the latter case, they sometimes escape by ascending trees. This species is $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, and its tail about one inch. It has a large head, without any external ears, and eyes so very small and so completely hid in the fur, as to make it vulgarly believed that it has none. As they live entirely below ground, they have certainly no occasion for eyes; and as they probably find their food by the smell, which is acute, eyes may serve merely to warn them when they happen to emerge from the ground to return to their subterraneous dwelling. There are 4 varieties, viz.

i. *TALPA EUROPEA ALBA*, the white mole, with fur uniformly white.

ii. *TALPA EUROPEA CINEREA*, the grey mole, has narrow fore paws; the fur is of a cinereous colour.

iii. *TALPA EUROPEA NIGRA*, the black mole, has fur uniformly black.

iv. *TALPA EUROPEA VARIEGATA*, the variegated mole, has fur variegated with white spots.

4. *TALPA FLAVA*, the yellow or American mole, has 5 toes on each foot; the fur is of a yellowish brown colour at the tips, and dark grey at the roots; the head is brightest; the rump dark; the belly deep brown; the feet and tail white. They inhabit N. America.

5. *TALPA FUSCA*, the Brown Mole, the *Sorex Aquaticus*, or *Aquatic Sorex*, of Gmelin, has 5 toes on all the feet, which are palmated; the tail and feet short and white; 4 foreteeth in the upper and 4 in the lower jaw. The head and body are $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches long; the tail not an inch; the nose is slender; the upper jaw longer than the under. They inhabit N. America. This and the *CRISTATA*, N° 2, were formerly ranked under the genus *Sorex*; but as they have the manners and figure of the Moles, they are very properly referred to this genus by Mr Pennant.

6. *TALPA LONGICAUDATA*, the long tailed Mole, of Pennant, has 5 toes on all the feet, which are broad, naked, and palmated; the fore feet have strong short claws; the hind feet long and slender ones, and are scaly. The head and body are from 4 to 6 inches long; the tail 2, sometimes 3. They inhabit N. America.

7. *TALPA RUBRA*, the red American Mole, has 3 toes on the fore feet, 4 on the hind, and a short tail. It is of a pale red colour, and in form resembles the European (N° 3); but is larger, and the root of the tail is thicker. They inhabit America. *Kerr's Animal Kingd.* vol. 1. p. 199—203.

TALPIA, a town of Chinese Tartary, in Hami; 28 miles NE. of Hatanam.

TALPINA, in zoology, a species of *MYOTALPA*, or *Mole-Rat*, is nearly allied to the *TALPA*, but is arranged with the other species, under *Mus*. See *Mus*, § III. N° 45, i. and ii.

TALSARNE, a town of S. Wales, in Cardigan-shire.

TALTHYBIUS, a celebrated herald in the Grecian camp, during the Trojan war, the friend and minister of Agamemnon, who sent him to

bring away Briseis from Achilles. He died at Zeigium, in Achaia. *Hom. Il. i. v.* 320, &c. *Paus.* vii. c. 23.

TALITZ, a town of Germany, in Upper Saxony, in the Vogtland; 4 miles S. of Pauen.

TALVAR, a town of Persia, in the province of Irac; 9 miles NW. of Amadan.

TALUD, or } *n. s.* in architecture, the incline (1.) *TALUS*, } nation or slope of a work; as of the outside of a wall, when its thickness is diminished by degrees, as it rises in height, to make it the firmer.

(2.) *TALUS*, in fortification, the slope of a work, whether of earth or masonry.

(3.) *TALUS*, in history, partly fabulous, the nephew of Dædalus, and, like his uncle, a great mathematical genius, having invented the saw, compasses, and other mechanical instruments. But this merit occasioned his murder. See *DÆDALUS*. The poets fabled, that he was turned into a partridge.

TALYA, or } a town of Hungary, 3 miles N. *TALZA*, } of Tokay.

TAM, a town of the 3d rank, and a river of China, in Pe-tche-li; 27 miles WSW. of Pao-tung. The latter runs into the Ta.

TAMACH, a river of Suabia, which rises near Neuweiler, and runs into the Nagold, 2 miles S. of Calw, in Baden.

TAMALAMECA, or } a town of Terra Firma, *TAMALAMEQUE*, } in St Martha, on the Magdalena. Lon. 71. 45. W. Lat. 8. 52. N.

TAMAMES, a town of Spain, in Leon.

(1.) *TAMAN*, a town of Circassia, on the N. coast of the Black Sea; 240 miles SSW. of Azoph.

(2, 3.) *TAMAN*, a strait and island between the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azoph; the island was anciently called *PHANAGORIA*.

TAMANAH, a sea port town of Indostan, on the coast of Malabar, in Concan; 54 miles N. of Goa.

TAMANDUA, or } in zoology. See *MYRME-* *TAMANOIR*, } *CORHAGA*, N° 6.

(1.) *TAMAR*, a river of England, which rises in the NW. part of Devonshire near Cornwall; and running S. separates the 2 counties, except a small part of Devonshire on the W. side; after which it falls into the sea below Plymouth.

(2—4.) *TAMAR*, in Scripture history, a name common among the Israelitish women, as, 1. The wife of Er and Onan, Judah's sons, and mother of Pharez and Zarah by himself; 2. A daughter of David and full sister of Absalom, ravished by her brother Amnon. See *ABSALEM* and *AMNON*. 3. A daughter of Abshalom.

(1.) *TAMARA*, a river of Naples, which rises at the foot of the Apennines, and falls into the Adriatic.

(2.) *TAMARA*, or *TAMARY*, a sea port town on the NW. coast of Socotora, the royal residence, and capital of the island. It is seated near the mouth of the Red Sea. Lon. 52. 25. E. Lat. 11. 30. N.

(3.) *TAMARA* ISLS, a cluster of islands of Africa in Guinea; near the coast of Sierra Leona.

TAMARAC, a river of Brazil, which runs into the sea at Tamaraia.

R

(1.) TAM-

(1.) **TAMARACA**, a pleasant and fertile island of Brasil, near the mouth of the Tamarac, on the coast of the district to which it gives name, and from which it is divided by a small strait. It produces Brasil-wood, cocoa nuts, cotton, sugar, citrons, melons, and wood in great plenty. It is 9 miles long, 3 broad, and 21 in circuit. Lon. 35. 5. W. Lat. 7. 56. S.

(2.) **TAMARACA**, or } a district of Brasil, in the
TAMARIKA, } jurisdiction of Fernambuco, which, besides including the above island, extends 120 miles within the continent; being bounded N. by Parayba, E. by the Ocean, S. by part of Fernambuco, and W. by the country of the S. American Indians.

TAMARIL, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 2 miles NE. of Tarragona.

(1.) * **TAMARIND TREE**. *n. s.* [*tamarindus*, Lat.] The flower of the *tamarind-tree* consists of several leaves. *Miller*.—Lenitives are cassia, *tamarindi*, manna. *Wiseman*.

Lay me reclind

Beneath the spreading *tamarind*. *Thomson*.

(2.) **TAMARIND TREE**, } in botany, a genus of
TAMARINDUS, } plants arranged by Linnaeus under the class of *triandria* and order of *monogynia*; but Woodville, Schreber, and other late botanists, have found that it belongs to the class of *monadelphia* and order of *triandria*. In the natural system it is ranked under the *lamiaceae*. There is only one species, viz.

TAMARINDUS INDICA, a native of both Indies, of America, of Arabia, and Egypt. It was cultivated in Britain before 1633. It rises to 30 or 40 feet, sending off numerous large branches, which spread to a considerable extent, and have a beautiful appearance; the trunk is erect, and covered with rough bark, of a greyish or ash colour; the leaves are small and pinnated, and of a yellowish green colour; the flowers resemble the papilionaceous kind, and grow in lateral clusters; the calyx consists of 4 leaves, and the corolla of 3 petals, of a yellowish hue, and beautifully diversified with red veins; the fruit is a pod of a roundish compressed form, from 3 to 5 inches long, containing 2, 3, or 4 seeds, in a dark pulpy matter. The flowers appear, according to Jacquin, in Oct. and Nov.; but, according to Dr Wright, during the whole of June and July. The pulp of the tamarind, with the seeds connected together by numerous tough strings or fibres, are brought to us freed from the outer shell, and commonly preserved in syrup. The fruit produced in the East Indies is more esteemed than that of the West, and is distinguished by the greater length of the pods, and the pulp being dryer and of a darker colour. This fruit, the use of which was first learned of the Arabians, contains a large proportion of acid, with the saccharine matter, and is therefore not only employed as a laxative, but also for abating thirst and heat in various inflammatory complaints, and putrid disorders, especially those of a bilious kind; in which the cathartic, antiseptic, and refrigerant qualities of the fruit have been found equally useful. When intended merely as a laxative, it may be joined with manna, or purgatives of a sweet kind, by

which it is rendered safer and more effectual. Three drachms of the pulp are usually sufficient to open the body; but to prove moderately cathartic, 1 or 2 oz. are required. It is an ingredient in *electuarium e cassia*, and *electuarium e senna* or lenitive electuary. See **MATRIA MEDICA** and **PHARMACY**, *Index*.

TAMARIS, a river of Spain. *Lempr.*

(1.) * **TAMARISK**. *n. s.* [*tamariscus*, Lat.] The flowers of the *tamarisk* are spicaceous. *Miller*.—*Tamarisk* is a tree that grows tall, and its wood is medicinal. *Mortimer*.

(2.) **TAMARISK**, } in botany, a genus of plants
TAMARIX. } belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *tryginia*; and in the natural system ranking under the 15th order. *Succulente*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the petals are five; the capsule is unilocular and trivalvular, and the seeds pycnopous. There are only two species known; viz.

1. **TAMARIX GALLICA**. *French tamarisk*, which grows upon the sea coasts. When burnt it affords sulphat of soda. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

2. **TAMARIX GERMANICA**. *German tamarisk*.

TAMARUS, a mountain of Epirus. *Strabo*.
TAMARY. See **SOCOTORA**, and **TAMARA**, No 2.

TAMASA, a river of Asia, in Mingrelia.

TAMASCAL, *n. s.* the name given in California to a kind of sand-bath employed by the natives in the cure of the venereal disease. It is prepared by scooping a trench in the sand, two feet wide, one foot deep, and of a length proportioned to the size of the patient; a fire is then made through the whole extent of it, as well as upon the sand which was dug out of the hollow. When the whole is thoroughly heated, the fire is removed, and the sand stirred about, that the warmth may be equally diffused. The sick person is then stripped, laid down in the trench, and covered up to his chin with heated sand. In this position a very profuse sweat soon breaks out, which gradually diminishes according as the sand cools. The patient then rises and bathes in the sea, or the nearest river. This process is repeated till a complete cure is obtained. While the patient is undergoing the operation of the tomascal, he drinks a considerable quantity of a warm sudorific, prepared by the decoction of certain herbs, chiefly of the shrub called by the Spaniards **GOVERNANTE**.

TAMASEA, a plain of Cyprus, sacred to **Venus**. *Plin.* 5.

TAMATMA, a town of Africa, in Bornou.

TAMBA, a town of Indostan, in Vissapour.

TAMBAC, *n. s.* See **EXCOECARIA**, and **XYLO**.

TAMBACH, a town of Upper Saxony, in the duchy of Saxe Gotha; 9 miles S. of Gotha.

(1.) * **TAMBARINE**. *n. s.* [*tambourin*, Fr.] A tabor; a small drum. It should be *tambourin*.—

Calliope with mules moe,

Their ivory lutes and *tambarines* forego. *Spens.*

(2.) **TAMBARINE**. See **TAMBOURIN**.

TAMBERCHERY, a town of Hindoostan, in Calicut; 18 miles NE. of Calicut.

TAMBOV, a city of Russia, the capital of

TAM-

TAMBOYSKOE; 228 miles SE. of Moscow, and 572 SE. of Petersburg. Lon. 58. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 48. N.

(1.) **TAMBOUR**. *n. s.* in architecture, a term applied to the Corinthian and Composite capitals, as bearing some resemblance to a drum which the French call *tambour*. Some choose to call it the *vase*, and others *campana* or the bell.

(2.) **TAMBOUR** is also used for a little box of timber work, covered with a ceiling, within the porch of certain churches; both to prevent the view of persons passing by, and to keep off the wind, &c. by means of folding doors, &c.

(3.) **TAMBOUR** also denotes a round course of stone, several whereof form the shaft of a column, not so high as a diameter.

(4.) **TAMBOUR**, in the manufactures, is a species of embroidery. The tambour is an instrument of a spherical form, upon which is stretched, by a string and buckle, a piece of linen or thin flannel stuff; which is wrought with a needle of a particular form, and by means of flannel or gold and silver threads, into leaves, flowers, or other figures.

To TAMBOUR. *v. a.* To embroider by the tambour.

TAMBOURER. *n. s.* a girl who works at the tambour.

TAMBOURIN. *n. s.* a tabor or small drum; also a dance performed on the French stage. The air is lively, and the movements are quick. See Music, § 252.

TAMBOYSKOE, a government of Russia, bounded N. by that of Ussimir; E. by those of Nizogorod, Penza, and Saratov; S. by Saratov, and W. by those of Riazan and Voronez. It is 200 miles long, and from 80 to 100 broad. TAMBOV is the capital. Lon. 56° 20' to 61° E. Ferro. Lat. 51° 36' to 55° 20' N.

TAMBRA, a river of Spain, which runs into the Atlantic, near Muros in Galicia.

TAMBUCCO, a town on the E. coast of Celebes, seated on a bay to which it gives name. Lat. 2. 50. S.

(1.) * **TAME**. *adj.* [*tame*, Saxon; *taem*, Dutch; *tam*, Danish.] 1. Not wild; domestic.—Thales the Milesian said, That of all wild beasts a tyrant is the worst, and of all tame beasts a flatterer. *Addison*. 2. Crushed; subdued; depressed; dejected; spiritless; heartless.

If you should need a pin,

You could not with more *tame* a tongue desire it. *Shak.*

Their courage with hard labour *tame*. *Shak.*

A most poor man made *tame* to fortune's blows. *Shak.*

Tame slaves of the laborious plough. *Roscom.* 2. Spiritless; unanimated: as a *tame poem*. A low phrase.

(3.) **TAME**, in geography, a town of England, in Oxfordshire, with a free school, an hospital, and a market on Tuesday. It is seated on the TAME, (N° 3.) 12 miles E. of Oxford, and 45 W. by N. of London. Lon. 0. 55. W. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(3.) **TAME**, or **THAME**, a river of England, which rises near Wintlow in Buckinghamshire, and runs into the Thames, above Wallingford, at Dorchester in Oxfordshire; and hence has been

often erroneously supposed to give name to that famous river. See THAMES.

(4.) **TAME**, another river of England, which rises in Staffordshire, and runs into the Trent, 7 miles above Burton.

* **To TAME**. *v. n.* [*gatamgon*, Gothic; *temean*, Saxon; *tammen*, Dutch.] 1. To reduce from wildness; to make gentle.—

Those that *tame* wild horses

Stop their mouths with stubborn bits. *Shak.*

2. To subdue; to crush; to depress; to conquer.

If the Heavens do not their visible spirits
Send quickly down to *tame* the offences,
Humanity must perforce prey on itself. *Shak.*

They cannot *tame*

Or overcome their riches! *Ben Jonson.*

A puting cuckold, would drink up

The lees and dregs of a flat *tamed* piece. *Shak.*

A race unconquer'd, by their clime made bold,

The Caledonians arm'd with want and cold,
Have been for ages kept for you to *tame*. *Wall.*

* **TAMEABLE**. *adj.* [from *tame*.] Susceptive of taming.—Gargas are great fowls, of a strong flight, and easily *tameable*. *Wilkins.*

TAMEGA, a river of Portugal, which runs into the Duero, 10 miles S. of Amarante.

TAMEGAN, a town of Ceylon, 48 miles S. of Candi.

* **TAMELY**. *adv.* [from *tame*.] Not wildly; meanly; spiritlessly.—

Stoop *tamely* to the foot of majesty. *Shak.*

What courage *tamely* could to death consent?

Dryden.

So *tamely* can you bear the ravish'd crown?

Dryden.

Did he look *tamely* on and let them pass?

Addison.

—Can you love your prelate, whom you *tamely* suffer to be abused? *Swift.*

* **TAMENESS**. *n. s.* [from *tame*.] 1. The quality of being tame; not wildness. 2. Want of spirits; timidity.—Such a conduct must appear rather like *tameness* than beauty. *Rogers.*

* **TAMER**. *n. s.* [from *tame*.] Conqueror; subduer.—

He, great *tamer* of all human art. *Pope.*

TAMERLANE, or **TIMUR BUK**, a celebrated prince and conqueror. As he very early exhibited uncommon courage, he had at the age of 25 attained the highest dignities. He spent 9 years in different countries, travelling for improvement. He conquered the 3 great empires of Persia, India, and Egypt; plundered BAGDAD, DELHI, CAIRO, and other rich cities; and took prisoner BAJAZET I. emperor of the Turks; so that his power, riches, and magnificence became immense. There remain vast monuments of his grandeur in the cities, towns, castles, and walls, which he built; in the rivers and canals which he dug, as well as in the bridges, gardens, palaces, hospitals, mosques, and monasteries, which he erected in the various parts of Asia. Timur, according to the historian Arabshah, was very corpulent and yet tall. He had a large forehead, and a big head. His countenance was agreeable, and his complexion fair. He had a large beard, was very strong, and well limbed; had broad shoulders,

R 2 thick

thick fingers, and long legs. His constitution was amazingly vigorous; but he was maimed in one hand, and lame of the right side. His eyes appeared full of fire; his voice was loud and piercing; and when far advanced in years, his understanding was found, his body vigorous and robust. He died on the first of April 1405, aged 71, in the 35th year of his reign. See BAGDAD, § 5; BAZET I.; HISTORY, Part I. *Sett.* XI.; INDIA, § 11; MOGULS, § 5, 6; PERSIA, § 18; and SYRIA, § 17.

TAMESIS, in ancient geography, a river of S. Britain, now called the THAMES. *Cæs. de Bel. Gal.* v. c. ii.

TAMIEH, a town of Egypt, on a canal, which runs between the Nile and the Birket; 12 miles NE. of Fayoum.

TAMINGA, a town of China, in Pekin, in a pleasant country, abounding with lakes and rivers. Lon. 114. 35. E. Lat. 36. 56. N.

TAMINIS, a river of Carniola, about 4 miles long, which has no visible communication with any other water. It is about 4 miles SE. of Veit.

TAMINO, a river of Switzerland, which runs into the Rhine, 1½ miles from Sargans.

*TAMINY. *n. s.* A woollen stuff.

*TAMKIN. *n. s.* The topple of the mouth of a great gun.

TAMMESBRUCK, or } a town of Thuringia,
TAMMISBROOK, } on the Unstruth; built
by king Pepin of France.

TAMMOWISCHKEN, a town of Prussian Lithuania; 3 miles E. of Iuterburg.

TAMMTOUL, or TOMANTOUL, a village of Scotland, in Banffshire, in the middle of the Highlands; seated on the banks of the Aven, on the great road to Inverness. It is in the parish of Kirkmichael. In 1792, it contained 37 families, consisting of 220 persons. It has a well frequented annual fair.

TAMMUZ, a name of ANONIS. See MYSTERIES, § 8.

TAMOU, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, near ULIETEA.

* To TAMPER. *v. a.* [of uncertain derivation, derived by Skinner from *tempero*, Lat.] 1. To be busy with physic.—

'Tis in vain

To tamper with your crazy brain,

Without trepanning of your skull

As often as the moon's at full. *Hudibras.*

—He tried waxes to give him a better complexion, but the very tampering cast him into a discase. *L'Estrange.* 2. To meddle; to have to do without fitness or necessity.—That key of knowledge, which should give us entrance into the recesses of religion, is by so much tampering and wrenching made useless. *Decay of Piety.*—

'Tis dang'rous tampering with a muse. *Rosc.*
—Earl Waltheof being overtaken with wine, engaged in a conspiracy; but repenting next morning, repaired to the king, and discovered the whole matter; notwithstanding which he was beheaded upon the defeat of the conspiracy, for having but thus far tampered in it. *Addison.* 3. To deal; to practise secretly.—

Others tamper'd

For Fleetwood, Desborough, and Lambert.

TAMPICE, or TANXICE, a town of Mexico, in Guafiteca, 60 miles NNW. of Panuco.

TAMSWEG, a town of Bavaria, in Saltzburg, 12 miles W. of Muchrau, and 48 SSE. of Saltzburg.

TAMTALLAN, a high rocky peninsular promontory of Scotland, in E. Lothian, projecting over the sea, which washes it on 3 sides. It has the ruins of an ancient castle on its top, and is 2 miles E. of North Berwick. The castle was destroyed by the Covenanters, in 1639.

TAMTAM. *n. s.* a flat drum used by the Hindoos, resembling a tabor, but it is larger, and sounds louder.

TAMUS, BLACK BRIONY, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *diazia*, and order of *hexandria*; and in the natural system ranking under the 11th order, *Sarmentacea*. The male and female flowers are both sexpartite; there is no corolla; the style is trifid; the berry is trilocular and inferior, and contains 2 seeds. There are only 2 species known:

1. TAMUS COMMUNIS, the common black briony, is a native of England, but has not been observed growing wild in Scotland. It has a large root, which sends forth several long slender stems: the leaves are large, heart-shaped, dark green, and grow on long footstalks: the flowers are greenish, and the berry red. It flowers from May to August, and is common in hedges.

2. TAMUS ELEPHANTIPES is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, and was first described by L'Heritier.

TAMWORTH, an ancient borough of England, seated near the grand canal, at the conflux of the Anker and Tame, partly in Staffordshire, and partly in Warwickshire. It was the residence of the Anglo-Saxon kings of Mercia, during the Heptarchy. It was destroyed by the Danes, but rebuilt by queen Ethelfleda, who added a castle for its defence in 914. It is large and well built; and has manufactures of narrow cloth, with a market on Saturday. It sends two members to the imperial parliament, who are returned by the sheriffs of both counties. It lies 8 miles SE. of Lichfield, and 114 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 38. W. Lat. 36. 56. N.

TAMYRAS, a river of Phœnicia, between Tyre and Sidon.

(1.) TAN, *n. f.* the bark of the oak after it has been ground and used by the tanner. The smaller sort is generally made up in little square cakes called *turf*, and sold for firing. The coarser sort is sometimes dried in the sun, and used by bakers for heating their ovens, &c. but its chief use is for hot-beds, to raise pine apples and other plants. William III. introduced the use of it from Holland, for raising orange-trees; after which it was discontinued till about 1719, when *ananas* were first brought into England. It came into general use, and has ever since been much used by gardeners for forcing, &c. by its strong and lasting fermentation. The smaller the tan, the quicker it heats; but the larger fort acquires heat more gradually and retains it longer: gardeners therefore

fore use the one or the other, or a mixture of both, according to the purpose for which it is wanted. It is some time after the tan comes out of the pit before it begins to heat; but having lain a week or two, it ferments, and if put into hot beds properly prepared, will retain a moderate heat for three or four months. When uselets for the hot-house it is still an excellent manure.

(2.) TAN is sometimes, though improperly, used for the bark itself, which is the chief ingredient in the tanning of leather. Oak bark, on account of its great astringency and gummy refinous properties, is preferred to all other substances for the purpose of tanning, as it not only preserves the leather from rotting, but also, by condensing the pores, renders it impervious to water. See TANNING.

(3.) TAN, in chemistry, is a substance found in most vegetables, which, not having hitherto been resolved into component parts, is therefore considered as simple.

* To TAN. *v. a.* [*tannen*, Dutch; *tanner*, Fr.] 1. To impregnate or imbue with bark.—A human skull covered with the skin, having been buried in some limy soil, was *tanned* or turned into a kind of leather. *Grew*.—The greatest part of the hides are exported raw for want of bark to *tan* them. *Swift*.—They sell us bark at a good price for *tanning* our hides into leather. *Swift*. 2. To embrown by the sun.—

His face all *tann'd* with scorching sunny ray.

Such is thy *tann'd* skin's lamentable state.

A brown for which Heaven would disband
The galaxy, and stars be *tann'd*! *Cleaveland*.

TANACETUM, TANSY, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *syngenesia*, and order of *polygamia superflua*; and in the natural system ranging under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is naked; the pappus somewhat emarginated; the calyx imbricated and hemispherical; the florets of the radius are trifid, and scarcely distinguishable. Gmelin has enumerated seven species, of which only one is a native of Britain, viz.

TANACETUM VULGARE, common *tansy*, grows three or four feet high; the leaves are bipinnated and ferrated; the flowers yellow, and terminate the branches in flat umbels. It is found on the borders of fields and dry banks; it abounds at Wark, and Ford-castle near Kelso; on the side of Gareloch on the west coast of Ross-shire; and in Breaddalbane. It flowers generally in August. There is a variety with curled leaves, called *curled tansy*. It has a bitter taste, and an aromatic smell disagreeable to many people. It is good for warming and strengthening the stomach; the young leaves are therefore used as an ingredient in puddings, &c. It is rarely used in medicine, though extolled as a good emmenagogue. A drachm of the dried flowers has been found beneficial in hysterical disorders arising from suppression. The seeds and leaves were formerly in esteem for destroying worms in children, and are reckoned good in colics and flatulencies. In some parts of Sweden and Lapland, a bath with a decoction of *tansy* is used to assist parturition. See MATERIA MEDICA.

TANÆCIUM, in botany, a genus of the *auxispermia* order, belonging to the *didynamia* class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 25th order, *Putamineæ*. The calyx is monophyllous, tubulated, truncated, and entire; the corolla long, monopetalous, and white; the tube cylindrical; the limb erect, spreading, and nearly equal; the fruit a berry covered with a thick bark, large, oblong, internally divided into two parts; in the pulp are contained a number of seeds. There are only two species, viz.

1. TANÆCIUM JAKOBA, and } both natives
2. TANÆCIUM PARASITICUM, } of Jamaica.
They grow by the sides of rivers, and climb on trees and bushes. This genus is omitted by Mr Lee.

TANAËM, or TENAËM, a town of Arabia, in Yemen, which was long the chief seat of the Arabian Jews, who had many synagogues in it, but it is now much deserted. It is 30 miles SE. of Sana.

TANAGA, one of the FOX ISLANDS, in the N. Pacific Ocean, about 40 miles in circumference. Lon. 200. 6. E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 20. N.

(1.) TANAGER, in ornithology. See TANAGRA, N° 2.

(2.) TANAGER, in ancient geography, a river of Italy, in Lucania, remarkable for its beautiful cascades and meanders, through a fine picturesque country. (*Virg. Geor.* iii. v. 151.) It is now called *Negro*.

(1.) TANAGRA, an ancient town of Boeotia, near the Euripus, between the Alopus and Thermodon, famous for cock-fighting.

(2.) TANAGRA, TANAGER, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *passeres*. The beak is conical, acuminate, emarginated, almost triangular at the base, and inclining a little towards the point. Dr Latham has described 44 species, all of which are of foreign extraction.

TANAGRUS, or TANAGER. See TANAGER, N° 2.

(1.) TANAIS, in ancient geography, a river of Scythia, which divides Europe from Asia, and after a rapid course falls into the Palus Mæotis. It is now called *Don*. See DON, N° 4.

(2.) TANAIS, a town at the mouth of the above river. *Mela*, i. 19. *Strabo*, 11.

(4.) TANAIS, a deity of the ancient Persians and Armenians, supposed to be the same with the VENUS of the Greeks, as her rites were equally shameful; the noblest ladies prostituting themselves in her temple. *Strabo*, 11.

TANAQUIL, the wife of Tarquin I. king of Rome, who is said, from her skill in augury, to have foretold his promotion. After his death, she raised Servius Tullius to the throne. See ROME, § 10, 11.

TANAR, a river of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which falls into the sea near the church of Aboyne. It gives name to the parish of Glentanar, through which it runs, and its banks are adorned with the forest of Glentanar. See GLENTANAR, N° 1. and 2.

(1.) TANARO, a river of Italy, in the cleavant principality of Piedmont, now included in the French empire. It rises in the mountains near Tenda, passes by Coni, Cherasco, Alba, Asti, Alexandria,

Alexandria, &c. and falls into the Po, 3 miles E. of Valentia, or Valenza.

(2.) **TANARO**, a department of the French empire, so named from the above river, one of the six into which the king of Sardinia's ci-devant dominions were divided, by a decree of the French conservative senate, in September 1802. (See **PIEDMONT**.) It comprehends the ci-devant duchy of **MONTFERRAT**; and sends three deputies to the legislative body. **ASTI** is the capital.

TANAS, a river of Numidia. *Sail. Jug.* 90.

TANASSEE. See **TENASSEE**.

TANASSERIM, or **TENASSERIM**, a city of Asia, in Siam, capital of a province so named; 220 miles SW. of Siam. (See **SIAM**, § 4.) Lon. 98. 0. E. Lat. 11. 50. N.

TANAT, a river of N. Wales, in the counties of Montgomery and Denbigh.

TANAVELLE, a town of France, in the department of the Cantal; 4½ miles WSW. of St Flour.

TANBANTY, a bay of S. America, on the coast of Brazil; with a good road for ships, between Point Negro and Point Luena.

TANBOF. See **TAMBOF**.

TANCARVILLE, a town of France; in the department of the Lower Seine; 10 miles SE. of Montivilliers.

TANCO BANCA, a river of Persia, running into the Indian Sea, 69 miles WSW. of Port Jaques.

TANCOS, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, seated on the Tago, at its junction with the Zerrara, 60 miles NE. of Lisbon. Lon. 8. 30. W. Lat. 39. 26. N.

TANCRED, a natural son of Roger II. king of Sicily, who became king on the death of William II. his nephew. See **SICILY**, § 11.

TANCREY, an island on the coast of Kent.

TANCROWALL, a town of Africa, in Negroland, where the British have a fort. It is divided into two parts; the one inhabited by Portuguese, consisting of large square houses; the other by Mandingoes, consisting of round huts, 3 feet high, and 20 in diameter, covered with straw and palmetto leaves. It lies 30 miles E. of James Fort.

TANDA, or **TANRAH**, a town of Hindostan, in Bengal, of which it was anciently the capital. It is much reduced; and is seated on the E. bank of the Ganges, 120 miles NW. of Dacca. Lon. 87. 56. E. Lat. 23. 35. N.

TANDAYE, one of the most easterly of the **PHILIPPINE ISLANDS**, separated from **MANILLA** by a broad strait. It is 125 miles long, and 100 broad; and has a volcano on the N. coast, which constantly throws out fire. Lon. 124. 56. E. Lat. 12. 36. N.

TANDERAGEE, a town of Ireland, in Armagh, one mile from Newry Canal, 8 W. of Armagh, and 61 from Dublin. It has an extensive linen manufactory.

TANDLA, a town of Hindostan, in Malwa; 72 miles W. of Ougain, and 130 NE. of Surat. Lon. 74. 30. E. Lat. 23. 5. N.

TANDORF, a town of Bohemia, in Konigin-gertz; 20 miles E. of Konigingratz.

* **TANE**, for *taken*, *ta'en*. Ill. spelt.—

Two trophies *sane* from th' east and western shore.

TANELA, or **TONELA**, a district of Mexico, on the W. coast of the N. Pacific Ocean; extending from Sugar-loaf Hill. 6 miles within land, NE. of the volcano, *Lacatecolula*, about 18 miles up the banks of the river Limpia.

TANETUM, an ancient town of Italy, in Mutina, now called **TONDO**.

TANFANE LUCUS, a sacred grove in Germany, in the country of the Marh, between the Ems and Lippe. *Tac. An.* i. c. 51.

TANFIELD, three small towns of England: 1. in Durham, NW. of Lumley Castle; 2. and 3. East and West, in Yorkshire, E. of Malham.

(1.) * **TANG**. *n. f.* [*tangbe*, Dutch, acid.] 1. A strong taste; a taste left in the mouth.—Although the body of the liquor should be poured out again, yet still it leaves that *tang* behind it. *South*.—It is strange that the soul should never once recal ever any of its pure native thoughts, before it borrowed any thing from the body; never bring into the waking man's view any other ideas but what have a *tang* of the cask. *Locke*. 2. Relish; taste. A low word.—There was not the least *tang* of religion. *Atterbury*. 3. Something that leaves a sting or pain behind it.—

She had a tongue with a *tang*.

Would cry to a tailor go hang. *Shak. Tempest*.

4. Sound; tone: this is mistaken for *tone* or *tswang*.—There is a pretty affectation in the Almain, which gives their speech a different *tang* from ours. *Holder*

(2.) **TANG**, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Ho-nan; 25 miles SE. of Yang-nan.

* **To TANG**. *v. n.* [This is, I think, mistaken for *tswang*] To ring with.—Let thy tongue *tang* arguments of fate. *Shak*.

TANGA, a silver coin used by the **USBECK TARTARS**, worth about 1s. 3d. It is round, and has on one side the name of the country, and on the reverse that of the khan, and the year of the hegira.

TANGALE, a town of Ceylon, 92 miles S. of Candi.

TANGATABOO, the principal of the **FRIENDLY ISLANDS**, and the residence of the sovereign and chiefs.

TANGE, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 21 miles N. of Gotheburg.

TANGEN, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus; 2 miles E. of Stromsloe.

TANGENE, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 26 miles E. of Uddevalla.

(1.) * **TANGENT**. *n. f.* [*tangent*, French; *tangens*, Latin.] *Tangent*, in trigonometry, is a right line perpendicularly raised on the extremity of a radius, and which touches a circle so as not to cut it; but yet intersects another line without the circle called a secant that is drawn from the centre, and which cuts the arc to which it is a *tangent*. *Trevoux*.—Nothing in this hypothesis can retain the planets in their orbs, but they would immediately desert them and the neighbourhood of the sun, and vanish away in *tangents* to their several circles into the mundane space. *Bentley*.

(2.) **TANGENT OF AN ARCH** is a right line drawn perpendicularly from the end of a diam-

ter

ter, passing to one extremity of the arch, and terminated by a right line drawn from the centre through the other end of that arch, and called the *secant*. See GEOMETRY, and Plate CCCXXXI.

TANGER, a river of Germany, in Upper Saxony; which runs into the Elbe, at TANGERMUNDE.

TANGERMUNDE, a populous town of Brandenburg, seated on the Tanger, at its junction with the Elbe; 24 miles NW. of Brandenburg. Its chief trade is brewing. Lon. 13. 30. E. Lat. 52. 46. N.

TANGHOO, or **TENHOA**, or *Cuabang*, a town of Asia, in Tonquin, capital of a province so named, abounding in cattle and rice. The city is situated on a rivulet, near the W. coast of Cochinchina. Lat. 19. 40. N.

* **TANGIBILITY**. *n. f.* [from *tangible*.] The quality of being perceived by the touch.

* **TANGIBLE**. *adj.* [from *tango*, Latin.] Perceptible by the touch.—*Tangible* bodies have no pleasure in the comfort of air. *Bacon*.—By the touch, the *tangible* qualities of bodies are discerned, as hard, soft, smooth. *Locke*.

(1.) **TANGIER**, a sea-port town of Morocco, in the kingdom of Fez, at the W. entrance of the Straits of Gibraltar; anciently called **TANGIS**. In 1662, this place belonged to the Portuguese, and was given to king Charles II. upon his marriage with the Infanta of Portugal; but he, grudging the charge of keeping it, caused its mole and fortification to be blown up in 1684. It has still some batteries, which are occupied by Moorish pirates. Had Britain still kept it, it might have proved useful during the sieges of Gibraltar. It is 108 miles NNW. of Fez, and 38 WSW. of Gibraltar. Lon. 5. 50. E. Lat. 38. 49. N.

(2.) **TANGIER**, **BAY OF**, a bay on the coast of Tangier, peculiarly favourable to Moorish pirates, who from this, the narrowest part of the strait, can easily surprise merchant ships while passing. It is a safe harbour nine months in the year, but in winter, or when the wind is in the west it is dangerous. The best anchorage is in the east point.

TANGIERS, an erroneous spelling of **TANGIER**. *Crutt*.

* **TANGLE**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A knot of things interwoven in one another, or different parts of the same thing perplexed.—

He leading swiftly rowl'd

In tangles. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Sport with Amaryllis in the shade,

Or with the tangles of Nezara's hair. *Milton.*

(1.) * **To TANGLE**. *v. a.* [See *entangle*.]—1. To implicate; to knit together. 2. To ensnare; to entrap.—

She means to tangle mine eyes too. *Shak.*

My king is tangl'd in affection to

A creature of the queen's. *Shak.*

You must lay lime to tangle her desires. *Shak.*

If thou retire, the dauphin, well appointed,

Stands with the snares of war to tangle thee. *Shak.*

Not willingly, but tangl'd in the fold

Of dire necessity. *Milton's Agonistes.*

Skill'd to retire, and in retiring draw

Hearts after them, tangl'd in am'rous nets. *Milt.*

They're catch'd in knotted law-like nets;
In which when once they are entangl'd,
The more they stir, the more they're tangl'd.

Hudibras.

3. To embroil; to embarrass.—

Tangled in forbidden ways;

He, my shepherd! is my guide. *Crashaw.*

(2.) * **To TANGLE**. *v. n.* To be entangled.—

Shrubs and *tangling* bushes had perplex'd

All path of man or beast. *Anon.*

TANGLEY, a town of England, in Hampshire, near Andover; with a fair April 15.

TANGOLA, or, } an island in the N. Pa-

TANGOLA-TANGE, } cific Ocean, on the W.

coast of New Mexico; affording good anchorage,

wood, and water; 60 miles of Guatemala.

TANGROLIPIX, sultan of the Turks, in the 11th century, a barbarous but not ungenerous conqueror, and the first of the Turks who made inroads upon the Eastern empire. He and his nephew, Cutlu-Mofes, ravaged Iberia. Tangrolipix also conquered Persia, in 1030, and founded a new dynasty of Turkish sultans, who reigned there for a century. See PERSIA, § 17.

TANGU, a city of Asia, and capital of a ci-devant kingdom, situated considerably N. of Pegu, but now included in that empire.

TANGUEY, or **TONGUEY**, a town of Peru, on the coast of Chili; 30 miles from Limari. Lat. 30. 30. N.

TANGUIA, a river of Chinese Tartary, which rises in Mount Isha, runs nearly S. and falls into the river, Yalou-kiang.

TANG-YANG, a lake of China, in Kiangnan; 32 miles N. of Hoai-ngan; and 30 in circuit.

TAN-HOLE. *n. s.* [*tan* and *bole*.] See **TAN-PIT**.

TANING, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si; 15 miles SSE. of Si-tchecu.

TANINGE, a town of the French empire, in the department of Mont Blanc, ci-devant duchy of Savoy, and late lordship of Faucigny; 24 miles SE. of Geneva, and 26 NE. of Annecy.

(1.) **TANJORE**, or **TANJOUR**, a province of Hindostan, on the coast of Coromandel, included in the Carnatic, but governed by its own rajah, who pays an annual subsidy of 160,000l. Sterling to the English E. India Company. It is 95 miles long from N. to S. and 50 broad from E. to W. and is bounded on the E. and S. by the Gulf of Bengal; and N. and W. by the rest of the Carnatic. It is watered by the various branches of the Cauvery.

(2.) **TANJORE**, or } the capital of the above

(2.) **TANJOUR**, } province, is a large city,

six miles in circumference, seated between two branches of the Cauvery, and defended by a double wall and a large ditch. The palace is a grand square, defended also by a wall and a ditch, frequented by crocodiles. It is 205 miles SW. of Madras, 145 Brookes, or 156 fays Cruttwell; and 176 SE. of Seringapatam. Lon. 79. 12. E.

Lat. 10. 46. N.

(1.) **TANIS**, in ancient geography, a large lake of Egypt, now called *Menzaleh*. See **MENZALEH**, N° 1.

(2.) **TANIS**, an ancient city of Egypt, seated near the lake, on one of the Eastern mouths of the Nile.

* **TANIST**.

* **TANIST.** *n. s.* [an Irish word; an *tanister*, Erse.] Presently after the death of any of their captains, they assemble themselves to chuse another in his stead, and nominate commonly the next brother, and then next to him do they chuse next of the blood to be *tanist*, who shall next succeed him in the said captaincy. *Spenser.*

* **TANISTRY.** *n. s.* [from *tanist*.] The Irish hold their lands by *tanistry*, which is no more than a personal estate for his life-time that is *tanist* by reason he is admitted thereunto by election. *Spenser.*—If the Irish be not permitted to purchase estates of freeholds, which might descend to their children, must they not continue their custom of *tanistry*? *Davies.*—By the Irish custom of *tanistry*, the chieftains of every country, and the chief of every sept, had no longer estate than for life in their chiefteries; and when their chieftains were dead, their sons, or next heirs, did not succeed them, but their *tanists*, who were elective, and purchased their elections by strong hand. *Davies.*

(1.) * **TANK.** *n. s.* [*tanque*, Fr.] A large cistern or basin.—Here's plentiful provision, rascal; falling in the garden and water in the *tank*; and in holidays, the licking of a platter of rice when you deserve it. *Dryden.*

(2.) **TANK**, in the language of Hindostan, is a place inclosed for receiving and retaining the rain. During the periodical rains the tanks are filled, and thus in the dry season furnish water for the rice fields and cattle. Some of them are of great extent, measuring 300 or 400 feet on the side; they are of a quadrangular form, and lined with granite, descending in regular steps from the margin to the bottom.

* **TANKARD.** *n. s.* [*tanquard*, Fr. *tanquaerd*, Dutch; *tancaird*, Irish.] A large vessel with a cover, for strong drink.—

Hath his *tanquard* touch'd your brain?

Ben Jonson.

—Marius was the first who drank out of a silver *tanquard*. *Arbutnot.*—When any calls for ale, fill the largest *tanquard* cup top full. *Saunders.*

TANKERDSONG, a town of Thibet, 548 miles E. of Lassa. Lon. 117. 42. E. Ferro. Lat. 29. 56. N.

TANKERSLEY, a town of England, in Yorkshire, between Barnsley and Sheffield; 2 miles E. of Wortley.

TANKIA, or **TINKIA LING**, a town and fort of Thibet, at the foot of Mount Lingur, which exhales sulphur; 232 or 275 miles SW. of Lassa. Lon. 87. 22. E. Lat. 29. 5. N.

TANKROWAL. See **TANCROWAL**. Its chief trade is in wax. Lon. 2. 19. E. Ferro. Lat. 13. 10. N.

TANLAY, a town of France, in the department of Young, 6 miles E. of Tonnere, and 19 W. of Chatillon.

(1.) **TANNA**, a town of Germany, in Upper Saxony, and county of Reussen; 9 miles ENE. of Lobenstein, and 17 SW. of Greitz.

(2.) **TANNA**, a town of Hindostan, in the island of Salsette; 15 miles NE. of Bombay.

(3.) **TANNA**, an island in the South Sea, near Auatoom. See **COOK**, § III. 9. Lon. 169. 44. 35. E. Lat. 19. 32. 25½. S.

(1.) **TANNADICE**, or } a parish of Scotland.

(1.) **TANNADYCE**, } in Forfarshire, 12 miles long, and from 4 to 10 broad. It is watered by the **SOUTH ESK** and the *Noran*. The surface is hilly and in some parts mountainous; and these with the banks of the rivers, exhibit a great variety of beautiful and romantic scenes. The soil is clay and sand, and produces good crops of all the usual grain and green crops. The chief mountain is *St Andrew's seat*, which has a large cairn on its top. On the banks of the S. Esk stands the house of *Luchewan*, the ci-devant seat of Sir John Ogilvy, bart. Near the E. extremity is a valley which abounds with *martial pyrites*, and other sulphurous matters, about 2 feet below the surface; which sometimes, by spontaneous combustion, throw out large masses of earth. The population in 1775 and 1791 was the same—14701; but, in 1801, it had decreased 118. On the N. bank of the S. Esk stood the castle of *Queich*, the residence of the ancient Earls of Buchan; but there are now no relics of it. It stood on the summit of a romantic precipice almost insulated by the S. Esk. There are also relics of ancient castles at Auchlowrie and Burn-yards.

(2.) **TANNADYCE**, or } a village in the above

(2.) **TANNADYSE**, } parish, on the banks of the S. Esk.

TANNASER, a town of Hindostan in Delhi, famous for its Indian idols; 45 miles NE. of Hissar, and 62 ESE. of Sirhind.

TANNAY, a town of France, in the department of the Nievre; 6 miles SSE. of Clamecy, and 15 SW. of Avalon.

TANNEBERG, a town of Austria; 8 miles S. of Aigen.

(1.) **TANNENBERG**, a town of Prussia, in Oberland; 6 miles SSW. of Hohenstein; famous for an obstinate battle fought between the Poles and the Teutonic Knights, wherein the latter were so completely defeated, that they declined ever after.

(2.) **TANNENBERG**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgebürg; 6 miles SW. of Wolkstein.

(1.) **TANNER**, Dr Thomas, an English prelate and celebrated antiquarian, born in 1674. He was admitted of Queen's College Oxford. In 1697, he was chosen fellow. In 1712, he was made archdeacon of Norwich; and in 1731, Bp. of St Asaph. He died at Oxford in 1735; and after his death was published an elaborate work, said to have employed him for 40 years, entitled, *Bibliotheca Britannica Hibernica, Jace, de Scripturis qui in Anglia, Scotia, et Hibernia, ad seculi XVII. initium floruerunt*, &c.

(2.) * **TANNER.** [*n. s.* from *tan*.] One whose trade is to tan leather.—*Tanners* use that lime which is newly drawn out of the kiln, and not slacked with water or air. *Moxon.*

TANNERY, *n. s.* [from *Tanner*.] A tan-work; a piece of ground laid out for tanning leather; with tan-pits, oak bark, and all other apparatus necessary for that operation. See **TANNING**.

(1.) **TANNING**, *part. n. s.* [from *Tan*.] the art of manufacturing leather from raw hides and skins. These being composed of minute fibres intersecting each other in every direction, the ge

neia

neral operation of tanning consists chiefly in expanding the pores, and dissolving a sort of greasy substance contained in them; and then, by the astringency and gummy resinous properties of oak bark, to fill and reunite them, so as to give firmness and durability to the whole texture. But this theory has been controverted by some chemists, who suppose that the animal jelly contained in the skin is not dissolved, but unites during the process with the astringent principle of the bark, and forms a combination insoluble in water. The process of tanning varies considerably, not only in different countries, but even in different parts of the same country. The following is the method most approved and practised in London and its vicinity, where the best leather is generally allowed to be manufactured. The leather tanned in England consists chiefly of three sorts, called *butts* or *backs*, *hides*, and *skins*.

I. TANNING OF BUTTS. *Butts* are generally made from the stoutest and heaviest ox hides, and are managed as follows: After the horns are taken off, the hides are laid smooth in heaps for one or two days in the summer, and for five or six in the winter; they are then hung on poles, in a close room called a *smoke-house*, in which is kept a smouldering fire of wet tan; this occasions a small degree of putrefaction, by which means the hair is easily got off, by spreading the hide on a sort of wooden horse or beam, and scraping it with a crooked knife. The hair being taken off, the hide is thrown into a pit or pool of water to cleanse it from the dirt, &c. which being done, the hide is again spread on the wooden beam, and the grease, loose flesh, extraneous filth, &c. carefully scrubbed out or taken off; the hides are then put into a pit of strong liquor called *ooze* or *wooze*, prepared in pits called *lutins* or *taps* kept for the purpose, by infusing ground bark in water; this is termed *colouring*; after which they are removed into another pit called a *scowering*, which consists of water strongly impregnated with vitriolic acid, or with a vegetable acid prepared from rye or barley. This operation (called *raising*), by distending the pores of the hides, causes them more readily to imbibe the *ooze*, and thus to astringe and condense the fibres, and give firmness to the leather. The hides are then taken out of the *scowering*, and spread smooth in a pit commonly filled with water, called a *binder*, with a quantity of ground bark strewed between each. After lying a month or six weeks, they are taken up; and the decayed bark and liquor being drawn out of the pit, it is filled again with strong *ooze*, when they are put in as before, with bark between each hide. They now lie 2 or 3 months, at the end of which the operation is repeated; they then remain 4 or 5 months, when they again undergo the same process; and after being 3 months in the last pit, are completely tanned, unless the hides are so remarkably stout as still to need an additional pit.—The whole process requires from 11 to 12 months, and sometimes two years, according to the substance of the hide, and skill of the tanner. When taken out of the pit to be dried, they are hung on poles; and after being compressed by a steel pin, and beat out

smooth by wooden hammers called *beetles*, the operation is complete; and when thoroughly dry, they are fit for sale. *Butts* are chiefly used for the soles of stout shoes.

II. TANNING OF HIDES. The leather which is named *hides* is generally made from cow hides, or the lighter ox hides, which are thus managed: After the horns are taken off, and the hides washed, they are put into a pit of water saturated with lime, where they remain a few days, when they are taken out, and the hair scraped off on a wooden beam, as before described; they are then washed in a pool of water, and the loose flesh, &c. being taken off, they are removed into a pit of weak *ooze*, where they are taken up and put down (which is technically termed *handling*) 2 or 3 times a-day for the first week; every 2d or 3d day they are shifted into a pit of fresh *ooze*, somewhat stronger than the former; till at the end of 5 or 6 weeks, they are put into a strong *wooze*, in which they are handled once or twice a-week with fresh bark for 2 or 3 months. They are then removed into another pit, called a *layer*, in which they are laid smooth, with bark ground very fine strewed between each hide. After remaining there 2 or 3 months, they are generally taken up, when the *ooze* is drawn out, and the hides put in again with fresh *wooze* and fresh bark; where, after lying 2 or 3 months more, they are completely tanned, except a few very stout hides, which may require an extra layer; they are then taken out, hung on poles, and being hammered and smoothed by a steel pin, are, when dry, fit for sale. These hides are called *crop hides*; they are from 10 to 12 months in tanning, and are used for the soles of shoes.

III. TANNING OF SKINS. *Skins* is the general term for the skins of calves, seals, hogs, dogs, &c. These, after being washed in water, are put into lime-pits, where they are taken up and put down every 3d or 4th day, for 2 or 3 weeks, to dilate the pores and dissolve the gelatinous parts. The hair is then scraped off, and the flesh and excrescences being removed, they are put into a pit of water impregnated with pigeon dung (called a *grainer* or *mastring*), forming a strong alkaline ley, which in 8 or 10 days soaking out the lime, grease, and saponaceous matter (during which period they are several times scraped over with a crooked knife to work out the dirt,) softens the skins, and prepares them for the reception of the *wooze*. They are then put into a pit of weak *wooze*, in the same manner as the hides, and being often handled, are by degrees removed into a stronger and still stronger liquor, for a month or six weeks, when they are put into a very strong *wooze*, with fresh bark ground very fine, and at the end of 2 or 3 months, according to their substance, are sufficiently tanned; when they are taken out, hung on poles, dried, and fit for sale. These skins are afterwards dressed and blacked by the currier; and are used for the upper leathers of shoes, boots, &c. The lighter sort of hides, called *dressing hides*, as well as horse hides, are managed nearly in the same manner as skins; and are used for coach-work, harness work, &c. &c.

(2.) TANNING, IMPROVEMENTS OF, PROPOSED.

As the method of tanning above described, and all others in general use, are tedious and expensive, various schemes have been suggested to shorten the process and lessen the expence. But most of these have ultimately proved unsuccessful, and a description of them need not therefore swell our limited pages.

TANNIS, a small town of England, in Hertfordshire; NW. of Buntingford.

TANNRODA, a town of Germany, in Upper Saxony, and duchy of Weimar; 9 miles SSW. of Weimar.

TANORE, a sea port town of Hindoostan, on the coast of Malabar, in Calicut; 25 miles SSE. of Calicut. Lon. 75. 54. E. Lat. 10. 58. N.

TANOT, and two rivers of N. Wales, **TANOT GREATER**, which rise in Montgomeryshire; and after running several miles separate, join their waters, and fall into the Severn, 7 miles below Welsh Pool.

(1.) * **TANPIT**. *n. f.* [from *tan* and *pit*.] A pit where leather is impregnated with bark.

(2.) **TAN-PITS**. See **TANNING**.

TANRAH. See **TANDA**.

TANSE, a town of Brazil, in St Paul's.

TANSEY. See **TANACETUM**, and **TANSY**.

TANSIF, a river of Morocco, which rises in mount Atlas, and runs into the Atlantic, 24 miles SSW. of Sakh.

TANSILLO, Lewis, a celebrated Italian poet, born at Nola, about 1510. His poem, entitled *Il Vendemiatore*, i. e. *the Vintager*, being very indecent, all his poems were proscribed. To make some reparation for this error, he wrote *La Lagrime de S. Pietro*, i. e. *The Tears of St Peter*; which being presented to Pope Paul IV. he took off the interdiction from all his poems, except the *Vintager*. He died about 1569.

TRANSITARO, a town of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan.

TANSOR, a town of Fez, 30 miles N. of Fez. (1.) * **TANSY**. *n. f.* [*tanacetum*, Latin.] An odoriferous plant. *Miller*.

(2.) **TANSY**. See **TANACETUM**.

(3.) **TANSY**, **WILD**. See **POTENTILLA**.

TANTALIDES, in fabulous history, the descendants of **TANTALUS**, as **ATREAS**, **AGAMEMNON**, **MENELAUS**, &c.

* **TANTALISM**. *n. f.* [from *tantalise*.] A punishment like that of **Tantalus**.—A lively representation of a person lying under the torments of such a *tantalism*, or platonick hell. *Addison*.

* To **TANTALIZE**. *v. a.* [from **TANTALUS**, whose punishment was to starve among fruits and water which he could not touch.] To torment by the shew of pleasures which cannot be reached.—

Thy vain desires, at strife

Within themselves, have *tantaliz'd* thy life.

Dryden.

—The maid once sped was not suffered to *tantalize* the male part of the commonwealth. *Addison*.

TANTALIAN. See **TAMTALLAN**.

(1.) **TANTALUS**, in fabulous history, king of Phrygia and Paphlagonia, was the son of Jupiter and the nymph *Plota*. He one day entertained the gods at his table; when, to prove their divinity, he served up his son **PELOUS** cut in pieces.

All the deities except **Ceres** perceived his cruelty and impiety, and would not touch his provisions. That goddess inadvertently eat a part of his left shoulder. **Pelops**, however, was restored to life; and an ivory shoulder given him in the room of that which had been eaten; but **Tantalus** was thrown into **Tartarus**, where he was punished with perpetual hunger and thirst. He was chained in a lake; the water of which reached up to his chin, but retired when he attempted to drink. The branch of a tree loaded with fruit hung down even to his lips, but on his attempting to pluck the fruit, the branch sprung upwards.

(2.) **TANTALUS**, a son of **Thyestes**, the first husband of **Cytemnestra**. *Pauf.* 2.

(3.) **TANTALUS**, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of grallæ. The bill is long, subulated, and somewhat crooked; the face naked; the tongue short; and the feet have four toes palmed on the under part. There are, according to Dr Latham, 23 species; of which the most remarkable is the

TANTALUS IBIS, *the ibis*, the bird so much valued by the ancient Egyptians for its utility in freeing the country from serpents, but now no longer found in Egypt. Mr Bruce found a bird in Abyssinia, which, after comparing it with the description of the ancient writers, and the embalmed ibis of Egypt, he concludes is the same with the Egyptian ibis. It is minutely described by Mr Bruce. It has a beak shaped like that of a curlew, two thirds straight, and the remaining third crooked; the upper part of a green horny substance, and the lower part black. It measures four inches and an half from the occiput to the place where it joins the beak. The leg, from the lower joint of the thigh to the foot, is six inches; the bone round and very strong; and from the lower joint of the thigh to where it joins the body, is five inches and an half. The height of the body from the sole to the middle of the back is 19 inches; the aperture of the eye one inch; the feet and legs black; three toes before armed with sharp and straight claws; and a toe behind. The head is brown, and the plumage of the same colour down to the back, or the place where the neck and back are joined. The throat is white, as well as the back, breast, and thighs; the largest feathers of the wing are of a deep black for 13 inches from the tail; and six inches up the back from the extremity of the tail is black likewise.

TANTALUS'S CUP. See **HYDROSTATICS**.

* **TANTAMOUNT**. *n. f.* [French.] Equivalent.—If one third of our coin were gone, and men had equally one third less money than they have, it must be *tantamount*. *Locke*.

TANTANEH, a mountain of Africa, which is the S. bound of the desert of Berdoa.

TANTCHONG, a town of Asia, in Corea.

TAN TCHOU TCHING, a town of Formosa, or the W. coast. Lon. 138. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 25 8. N.

TAN TIE KAN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the province of Kiang nan; 25 mile NW. of Non-kong.

* **TANTIVY**. *adv.* [from the note of a hunting horn]

horn, so expressed in articulate sounds. From *Tanta vi*, says *Skinner*. To ride *tantivy* is to ride with great speed.

* **TANTLING**. *n. f.* [from *Tantalus*.] One seized with hopes of pleasure unattainable.—

To be fill hot Summer's *tantlings*, and
The shrinking slaves of Winter. *Shak.*

TANTUMQUERI, a town of Africa, in the country of Pantin, on the Gold Coast. The British and Dutch have each a fort in it.

TANUM, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland: 31 miles NW. of Uddevalia.

TANUO, a town of Peru, in Lima.

TANUSIUS GERMINUS, a Latin historian, of the Augustan age; intimate with Cicero. *Seneca*. His works are lost.

TANXIPE. See **TAMPICE**.

TAN-YANG, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Kiang-nan; 12 miles S. of Tching-kiang.

TAN-YARD, *n. f.* [*tan* and *yord*.] The ground where a tannery is erected. See **TANNERY** and **TANNING**.

TANZY. See **TANACETUM**, and **TANSY**.

TAO, a town of China, of the 2d rank, in the province of Hou-quang; 920 miles S. of Peking.

TAOLOUSAC. See **TA**, N^o 4.

TANEROA. See **POVERTY BAY**.

TAOO, the most Southern of the **FRIENDLY ISLANDS**, in the S. Pacific Ocean. It is 30 miles in circuit, and so high as to be visible 36 miles distant. It has good anchorage on the NW. side. The water on the coast is brackish, but there are several springs of pure water within the island, and one rivulet. The SE. side is rocky, but the NW. abounds with plantations of trees, &c. and exhibits a beautiful landscape.

TAORMINA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Demona, on a rock considerably above the sea level, surrounded by other rocks, the height of which is still greater. It is 88 miles S. of Messina, and was founded by a colony from Naxos, who chose it for the security which it would afford. It is also very salubrious. The road to it, up the N. side of the hill on which it stands, is very steep. The colony settled at the foot of *Ætina*, near the shore, about 3 or 4 miles from the present situation of Taormina. Dionysius I. attacked this colony, and took their city. The inhabitants retired to the rocks of Mount Taurus; among which they found a tract of ground sufficiently level, and of sufficient extent to build upon, where they might be secure from every attack. Here, therefore, they built a city; which, after mount *Taurus*, they named **TAUROMINIUM**. It was at length raised to a very flourishing state by trade, and became celebrated as a seat of the arts; of which there are still many relics; particularly a spacious theatre, a tomb, and a large natural grotto. The grotto appears to have been anciently adorned within with artificial ornaments. It was probably consecrated by the Greeks to the **NYMPHS**, or to **PALES**, the protectress of flocks. After the inhabitants of Taormina embraced Christianity, they still continued to visit this grotto with devout veneration; but they substituted St Leonard for the sportive nymphs. But this grot-

to is now black and smoky; and few remains of the Greek paintings with which it was once ornamented can be distinguished. There are also to be seen near it, a variety of tombs, the remains of a gymnasium, with a number of other monuments.

TAOSANLU, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia: 20 miles NW. of Kiutaja.

TAOUKA, one of the Society Islands, in the S. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 145. 9. W. Lat. 14. 30. S.

TAO-YUEN, two towns of China, of the 3d rank; 1. in Hou-quang, on the Yuen, 15 miles W. of Tchang-te; 2. in Kiang-nan, on the Hoang, 25 miles NW. of Hoai-gan.

* **TAP**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A gentle blow. —This is the right fencing grace, *tap* for *tap*. *Shu*. —Each shakes her fan with a smile, then gives her right hand woman a *tap* upon the shoulder. *Spectator*.

As at hot cockles once I laid me down,
And felt the weighty hand of many a clown,
Buxoma gave a gentle *tap*. *Gay*.

So Hiron leeches, when their patient lies
In feverish restlessness with unclos'd eyes,
Apply with gentle strokes their softer rod,
And *tap* by *tap* invite the sleepy god. *Hartie*.

2. A pipe at which the liquor of a vessel is let out. —A gentleman was inclined to the knight of Gascogne's distemper, upon hearing the noise of a *tap* running. *Derbam*.

* **To TAP**. *v. a.* [*tappen*. Dutch; *tapper*, Fr.] 1. To touch lightly, to strike gently. 2. [*Tappen*, Dutch.] To pierce a vessel; to broach a vessel, It is used likewise of the liquor.—

That blood already like the pelican,
Hast thou *tapt* out. *Shak.*

—He has been *tapping* his liquors. *Addison*. —Wait till the tumour becomes troublesome, and then *tap* it with a lancet. *Sharp*.

TAPACRI, a province of Peru.

TAPANA TEPEQUE, a town of Mexico, in Guaxaca, at the foot of Mount Quelenos, on a bay of the S. Pacific Ocean. The adjacent country abounds with orange, lemon, citron, fig, and other fruit trees.

TAPARICA, a long island on the W. coast of Brasil, at the entrance into All-Saints bay.

TAPAROOPLY, a town of Sumatra, with an English factory. It was taken by the French, during the German war; but restored at the peace in 1763.

TAPATACSO, a town of Thibet; 45 miles NE. of Lassa.

TAPAYO, a town of Peru, on the S. bank of the Amazon, E. of the mouth of the Madeira.

* **TAPE**. *n. f.* [*tappan*, Saxon.] A narrow fillet or band of linen.—

Will you buy any *tape*, or lace for your cap? *Shak.*

This pouch that's ty'd with *tape*
I'll wager that the prize shall be my due. *Gay*.
Once on a stock bed, but repair'd with straw,
With *tape* ty'd curtains. *Pope*.

(1.) * **TAPER**. *adj.* [from the form of a taper.] Regularly narrow from the bottom to the top; pyramidal; conical.—

Her *taper* fingers, and her panting breast. *Dryd*.
S 2 —From

—From the beaver, the otter differs in his tail, which is feline, or a long *taper*. *Creux*.

(2.) *TAPER*, or *TAPERING*, is understood of a piece of timber, or the like, when thick at one end and gradually diminishing to the other; as is the case in pyramids, cones, &c.

(3.) * *TAPER*. *n. f.* [*taper*, Saxon.] A wax candle; a light.—

Get me a *taper* in my study, Lucius. *Shak.*

My daughter and my little son we'll dress

With rounds of waxen *tapers* on their heads. *Shak.*

—If any snatch the pure *taper* from my hand, and hold it to the devil, he will only burn his own fingers. *Taylor*.—

There the fair light,

Like Hero's *taper* in the window plac'd. *Wall.*

Heav'n, as if there wanted lights above,

For *tapers* made two glaring comets rise. *Dryd.*

(4.) *TAPER* also denotes a kind of tall wax candle, placed in a candlestick, and burnt at funeral processions, and in other church solemnities. *Tapers* are made of different sizes; in some places, as Italy, &c. they are cylindrical; but in most other countries, as England, France, &c. they are conical or taper; whence the name; unless we derive it in the adjective sense, from the substantive *taper*, Saxon, *taper* or *tapon*, *ceruus*, wax candle. Both kinds are pierced at bottom for a pin in the candlestick to enter.—There are two ways of making tapers, the first with the ladle, the second by hand; for which, see *CANDLE*, § 8.

(5.) *TAPER*, *PASCHAL*, among the Romanists, is a large taper, whereon the deacon applies 3 bits of frankincense, in holes made for the purpose, in form of a cross; and which he lights with new fire in the ceremony of Easter Saturday. The Pontifical makes Pope Zosimus the author of this usage; but Baronius will have it more ancient, and quotes a hymn of Prudentius to prove it. F. Papebroch gives the original of the paschal taper, in his *Conatus Chronico-Historicus*, &c. Though the council of Nice regulated the day whereon Easter was to be celebrated, it enjoined the patriarch of Alexandria to make a yearly canon thereof, and to send it to the pope. As all the other moveable feasts were regulated by that of Easter, a catalogue of them was made every year; and this was written on a consecrated taper, *ceruus*. This taper, according to the abbot Chastelain, was not made to be burnt; it had no wick, and was only a column of wax, made to write the list of moveable feast; on, for a year. For the ancients, when any thing was to be written to last for ever, engraved it on marble or steel; when it was to last a long while, they wrote it on Egyptian paper; and when it was only to last a short time, they wrote it on wax. They came at last to write the moveable feasts on paper, but they still fastened it to the paschal taper.

• (6.) *TAPER*, *TIMBER*, &c. TO MEASURE. See *SLIDING RULE*.

* *To TAPER*. *v. n.* To grow gradually smaller, —The back is made *tapering* in form of a pillar, the lower vertebrae being the broadest and largest.

Ray.—

Such be the dog,
With *tapering* tail.

Tichel.

TAPER-BORED, *adj.* [*taper* and *bored*.] is applied to a piece of ordnance when it is wider at the mouth than towards the breech.

(1.) * *TAPESTRY*. *n. f.* [*tapestrie*, *tapisserie*, *tapis*, Fr. *tapetum*, Lat.] Cloth woven in regular figures.—

In the desk

That's cover'd o'er with Turkish *tapestry*.

There is a purse of ducats. *Shak.*

Horses' hoofs, for earth, on filken *tapestry* tread. *Dryden.*

—One room is hung with *tapestry*. *Addison*.

(2.) *TAPESTRY* is a kind of cloth made of wool and silk, adorned with figures of different animals, &c. and formerly used for lining the walls of rooms, churches, &c.

(3.) *TAPESTRY*, *HISTORY OF THE ART OF WEAVING*. The art of weaving tapestry is borrowed from the Saracens; accordingly the workmen employed in this manufacture in France were formerly called *Saracens* or *Saracinois*. Guicciardini ascribes the invention of tapestry hangings to the inhabitants of the Netherlands; but he has not mentioned at what time the discovery was made. This art was brought into England by William Sheldon, near the end of Henry VIII.'s reign. In 1619 a manufacture was established at Mortlake, in Surrey, by Sir Francis Crane, who received L. 2000 from King James to encourage it. The first manufacture of tapestry at Paris was set up under Henry IV. in 1606 or 1607, by several artists whom that monarch invited from Flanders. Under Lewis XIV. the manufacture of the Gobelins was instituted, which introduced very beautiful cloths, remarkable for strength, for elegance of design, and a happy choice of colours. The finest paintings are copied, and eminent painters have been employed in making designs for the work.

(4.) *TAPESTRY*, *KINDS OF*. Tapestry is distinguished by the workmen into two kinds, viz. *high* and *low warp*; though the difference is rather in the manner of working than in the work itself; which is in effect the same in both; only the looms, and consequently the warps are differently situated, those of the low warp being placed flat and parallel to the horizon, and those of the high warp erected perpendicularly. The English anciently excelled all the world in the tapestry of the high warp; and they still retain their former reputation, though with some little change; their low warps are still admired; but the high ones are quite laid aside by the French. The French, before the Revolution, had three considerable tapestry manufactures besides that of the Gobelins; the first at Aubusson in Ouvergne, the 2d at Felletin in the Upper Marche, and the 3d at Beauvais. They were all equally established for the high and the low warp; but they had all laid aside the high warp excepting the Gobelins. There were admirable low warps likewise in Flanders, generally exceeding those of France; the chief and almost only Flemish manufactures were at Brussels, Antwerp, Oudenard, Lille, Tournay, Bruges, and Valenciennes. The usual widths of tapestry are from 2 to 3 ells Paris measure.

(5.) *TAPESTRY OF THE HIGH WARP*, *MANUFACTURE OF*. The loom on which it is wrought

is

is placed perpendicularly : it consists of 4 principal pieces ; 2 long planks or cheeks of wood, and two thick rollers or beams. The planks are set upright, and the beams across them, one at the top and the other at the bottom, or about a foot from the ground. They have each their trunnions, by which they are suspended on the planks, and are turned with bars. In each roller is a groove, from one end to the other, capable of containing a long round piece of wood, fastened with hooks, to tie the ends of the warp to. The warp, which is a kind of worsted, or twisted woollen thread, is wound on the upper roller ; and the work, as fast as wove, is wound on the lower. Within side the planks, which are 7 or 8 feet high, 14 or 15 inches broad, and 3 or 4 thick, are holes pierced from top to bottom, in which are put thick pieces of iron, with hooks at one end serving to sustain the coatstave : these pieces of iron have also holes pierced, by putting a pin in which the stave is drawn nearer or set farther off ; and thus the coats or threads are stretched or loosened at pleasure. The coatstave is about 3 inches diameter, and runs all the length of the loom ; on this are fixed the coats or threads, which make the threads of the warp cross each other. It has much the same effect as the spring-stave and treddles have in the common looms. The coats are little threads fastened to each thread of the warp with a kind of sliding knot, which forms a sort of *math* or *ring*. They serve to keep the warp open for the passage of broaches wound with silks, woollens, or other matters used in the piece of tapestry. In the last place, there are a number of little sticks of different lengths, but all about an inch in diameter, which the workman keeps by him in baskets, to make the threads of the warp cross each other, by passing them across ; and, that the threads thus crossed may retain their proper situation, a packthread is run among them above the stick. The loom being thus formed, and mounted with its warp, the first thing the workman does is to draw on the threads of this warp the principal lines and strokes of the design to be represented on the piece of tapestry ; by applying cartoons made from the painting he intends to copy to the side that is to be the wrong side of the piece, and then, with a black lead pencil, following and tracing out the contours thereof on the thread of the right side ; so that the strokes appear equally both before and behind. The original design of the work is hung up behind the workmen, and wound on a long staff, from which a piece is unrolled from time to time as the work proceeds. Besides the loom, &c. here described, there are three other principal instruments required for working the silk or the wool of the woff within the threads of the warp ; these are a *broach*, a *reed*, and an *iron needle*. The broach is made of hard wood, 7 or 8 inches long, and two 3ds of an inch thick, ending in a point with a little handle. This serves as a shuttle ; the silks, woollens, gold, or silver, to be used in the work being wound on it. The reed or comb is also of wood, 8 or 9 inches long, and an inch thick on the back, whence it grows less and less to the extremity of the teeth, which are more or less apart, according to the greater or less degrees

of fineness of the intended work. Lastly, the needle, is made in form of the common needle, only bigger and longer. Its use is to press close the wool and silks when there is any line or colour that does not fit well. All things being prepared for the work and the workman ready to begin, he places himself on the wrong side of the piece, with his back towards the design : so that he works as it were *blindfold*, seeing nothing of what he does, and being obliged to quit his post, and go to the other side of the loom whenever he would view and examine the piece, to correct it with his pressing-needle. To put silk, &c. in the warp, he first turns and looks at the design ; then, taking a broach full of the proper colour, he places it among the threads of the warp, which he brings cross each other with his fingers, by means of the coats or threads fastened to the staff ; this he repeats every time he has to change his colour. Having placed the silk or wool, he beats it with his reed or comb ; and when he has thus wrought in several rows over each other, he goes to see the effects they have, in order to reform the contours with his needle, if there be occasion. As the work advances, it is rolled upon the lower beam, and they unroll as much warp from the upper beam as suffices them to continue the piece : the like they do of the design behind them. When the pieces are wide, several workmen may be employed at once. The high warp tapestry goes on much more slowly than the low warp, and takes up almost twice the time and trouble. All the difference that the eye can perceive between the two kinds, consists in this, that in the low warp there is a red fillet, about one 14th of an inch broad, running on each side from top to bottom, which is wanting in the high warp.

(6.) TAPESTRY OF THE LOW WARF, MANUFACTURE OF. The loom or frame, whereon the low warp is wrought, is much like that of the weavers : the principal parts are two strong pieces of wood forming the sides of the loom, and bearing a beam or roller at each end : they are sustained at bottom with other strong pieces of wood in manner of trestles ; and, to keep them firm they are fastened to the floor with a kind of buttresses, which prevent any shaking, though there are sometimes 4 or 5 workmen leaning on the fore-beam at once. The rollers have each their trunnions, by which they are sustained : they are turned by large iron pins, 3 feet long. Along each beam runs a groove, wherein is placed the wick, a piece of wood about two inches diameter, and almost the length of the roller : this piece fills the groove entirely, and is fastened therein, from space to space, by wooden pins. To the two wicks are fastened the two extremities of the warp, which is wound on the farther roller, and the work, as it advances, on the nearer. Across the two sides, almost in the middle of the loom, passes a wooden bar, which sustains little pieces of wood, not unlike the beam of a balance : to these pieces are fastened strings, which bear certain spring-staves, wherewith the workman, by two treddles under the loom whereon he sets his feet, gives a motion to the coats, and makes the threads of the warp rise and fall alternately. Each loom has more or fewer of these spring-staves, and each staff more or fewer coats,

as the tapestry consists of more or fewer threads. The design or painting the tapestry worker is to follow is placed under the warp; where it is sustained from space to space with strings, by which the design is brought nearer the warp. The loom being mounted, two instruments are used in working it, viz. the *reed* and the *flute*. The flute does the office of the weaver's shuttle; it is made of hard polished wood, 3 or 4 lines thick at the ends, and somewhat more in the middle, and 3 or 4 inches long. On it are wound the filks or other matters to be used as the wool of the tapestry. The comb or reed is of wood or ivory; it has usually teeth on both sides; it is about an inch thick in the middle, but diminishes each way to the extremity of the teeth: it serves to beat the threads of the wool close to each other, as fast as the workman has passed and placed them with his flute among the threads of the warp. The workman is seated on a bench before the loom, with his breast against the beam, only a cushion or pillow between them; and, in this posture, separating, with his fingers, the threads of the warp, that he may see the design underneath, and taking a flute, mounted with a proper colour, he passes it among the threads, after having raised or lowered them, by the treddles moving the spring-slaves and coats. Lastly, To press and close the threads of the silk or yarn, &c. thus placed, he strikes each course (i. e. what the flute leaves in its passing and coming back again) with the reed.

• **TAPET.** *n. s.* [*tapetia*, Lat.] Worked or figured stuff.—

To their work they fit, and each doth chuse
What story she will for her *tapet* take. *Spenser*.

TAPE-WORM. See *TENIA*.

TAPHIÆ, in ancient geography, islands in the Ionian Sea, between Achaia and Leucadi, called also *TELEBOIDES*; from *TAPHIUS* and *TELEBOUS*. The Taphians made war against Electryon, king of Mycenæ, and killed all his sons. Upon this he promised his daughter, Alcmena, with his kingdom, to any man, who should avenge him of the Taphians. This was accomplished by Amphitryon. (*Hom. Od. i. 181. &c.*) See *ALCMEANA*.

TAPHIANS, the natives of the *TAPHIÆ*. They were expert sailors, but addicted to piracy. *Plin. iv. c. 12.*

TAPHIASSUS, or } a mountain of Locris, on
(1.) **TAPHIUS**, } the confines of Ætolia.
Lempr.

(2.) **TAPHIUS**, and **TELEBOUS**, in fabulous history, the sons of Neptune, by Hippothoe, the daughter of Nestor: they reigned in the *TAPHIÆ*, and gave their names to them. *Strabo*, 10.

TAPHIUSA, a town near Leucas, famous for a particular stone, called

TAPHIUSIUS. See *Plin. 36. c. 12.*

TAPHRÆ, an ancient town on the isthmus of Taurica Cherfoneus; now called *PREKOP*, *MELA ii. c. 1. Plin. iv. c. 12.*

TAPHROS, the strait between Corsica, and Sardinia; now called *BONIFACIO*.

TAPIA, a town of S. America, in New Grenada, and province of St Martha.

TAPIAN, a town of Prussia, in Samland; 16 miles E. of Königsberg.

TAPINAMBOES, a nation of S. American Indians, in Brazil.

TAPIOCA. *n. f.* a species of starch, which the Brazilians make from the roots of the *Cassia* plant. See *JATROPHA*.

TAPIR, in zoology, the *ELEPHANT HOG*, a genus of quadrupeds of the order of *bellue*, resembling the hippopotamus. The fore feet have each 4 hoofs; the hind feet 3. There is only one species: viz.

TAPIR AMERICANUS, the *American tapir*. The nose of the male extends far beyond the lower jaw, is slender, and forms a sort of proboscis; it is capable of being contracted or extended at pleasure, and its sides are fulcated. The extremities of both jaws end in a point, and there are ten cutting teeth in each. Between them and the grinders there is a vacant space; and there are ten grinders in each jaw. The ears are erect, the eyes small, and the body is shaped like that of a hog. The back is arched; the legs are short; and the hoofs small, black, and hollow. The tail is very small. The animal grows to the size of a hester half a year old. The hair is short: when young, it is spotted with white; when old, of a dusky colour. They inhabit the woods and rivers of the E. side of S. America, from the isthmus of Darien to the Amazon. They sleep during day in the darkest and thickest forest adjacent to the banks, and go out in the night-time in search of food. They feed on grass, sugar-canes, and fruits. If disturbed, they run to the water; and swim very well; or sink below, and, like the hippopotamus, walk on the bottom as on dry ground. They make a sort of hissing noise.—This is the largest of the American animals. See *MEXICO*, § 1, 13.

TAPIRTALA, a town of Chinese Tartary, in Lon. 138. 25 E. Ferro. Lat. 43. 15 N.

TAPLAKEN, a town of Prussia, in Samland, on the Pregel, 24 miles E. of Königsberg.

TAPLOE, or } a small town of England, in
TAPLOW. } Bucks, seated on a hill, on the banks of the Thames, one mile from Maidenhead, and 25 W. by N. of London.

TAPOAMANAO, the name given by the natives to *SIR CHARLES SAUNDERS'S ISLAND*.

TAPOOKAS, a town of the United States, in Georgia, on the Yazoo. Lon. 89. 51 W. Lat. 33. 37 N.

(1.) **TAPOOR**, a river of Hindoostan, which runs into the Cauvery, 4 m. N. of Coveriporum.

(2.) **TAPOOR**, a town of Hindoostan, in the Myfore, 15 miles SSW. of Darampoory, and 8 ESE. of Srīngapam.

TA-POU, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Quang-ton; 57 miles N. of Tchao-cheou.

TAPPAHANNOCK, or **HOBBS'S HOLE**, a post town and seaport of Virginia, the capital of Essex county; seated on a fertile plain on the SW. bank of the Rappahannock. It is regularly built, and contains about 100 houses, an episcopalian church a court-house, &c. and a court is held the 3d Mon of every month. It exports wheat, flour, Indian corn, tobacco, &c. These amounted, Sept 30. 1794, to 160,673 dollars. It is 30 miles SE of Fredericksburg, 43 NE. of Richmond, and 26 from

from Philadelphia. Lon. 76. 25. W. Lat. 37. 58. N.

(1.) **TAPPAN**, a town of New York, in Orange County, at the S. end of the Bay (N^o 2), where Major Andre was hanged as a spy by the Americans. See AMERICA, § 31; and ANDRE.

(2.) **TAPPAN BAY**, or } a bay of New York, adjoining to Haverstraw Bay on the N. and 35 miles N. of New York. It is 20 miles long, and 4 broad.

(3.) **TAPPING**, *part. n. f.* in general, the act of piercing a hole in a vessel, and applying a tube or canula in the aperture, for the commodious drawing off the liquor contained therein.

(4.) **TAPPING**, in surgery. See SURGERY, *Ind.* **TAPRE**, a valley of Thibet, abounding with borax. See BORAX, § II.

TAPROBANE, an island in the Indian Ocean, now called Ceylon. (See CEYLON.) The ancient inhabitants were rich and long-lived. *Strabo*, 2.

* **TAPROOT**. *n. f.* [*tap* and *root*.] The principal stem of the root.—Some put under the trees raised of seed, about four inches below the place where they sow their seeds, a small piece of tile to stop the running down of the *taproot*, which occasions it to branch when it comes to the tile. *Martiner*.

TAPSON, a town of Aña, in Thibet; 50 miles E. of Tchoutari.

* **TAPSTER**. *n. f.* [*from tap*.] One whose business is to draw beer in an alehouse.—The oath of a lover is no stronger than the word of a *tapster*; they are both the confirmers of false reckonings. *Shak.*—I'll be your *tapster* still. *Shak.*—The vintner and *tapster* may broach what religion they please. *Hazael*.—

The house will never lose its trade:
Nay, though the treacherous *tapster* Thomas
Hangs a new angel two doors from us. *Swift*.

TAPSUS: 1. A maritime town of Africa: (*Sil. Ital.* 3.) 2. A peninsula on the E. coast of Sicily.

TAPTEE, or } a river of Hindostan, formed by the union of several rivulets in Candeish, at Maltoy, 84 miles NW. of Nagpour, and falling into the Gulf of Cambay, 10 or 12 miles below Surat.

(1.) **TAPUYAS**, a river of Brazil which runs into the Amazon.

(2.) **TAPUYAS**, or } a nation of S. Americans.

(3.) **TAPUYES**, } in Brazil, the most considerable who have not been conquered by the Portuguese.

TAPYRI, an ancient nation, who resided near Hyrcania. *Dionys. Perieg.*

(2.) * **TAR**. *n. f.* [*tarre*, Saxon; *tarre*, Dutch; *tiere*, Danish.] Liquid pitch; the turpentine of the pine or fir drained out by fire.—

Then, foaming *tar*, their bridles they would champ. *Spenser*.

—A man will not lose a hog for a halfpennyworth of *tar*. *Camden*.

(2.) * **TAR**. *n. f.* [*from tar* used in ships.] A sailor; a seaman; in contempt.—

In senates bold, and fierce in war,
A land commander, and a *tar*. *Swift*.

(3.) **TAR** (§ 1.) is a thick, black, unctuous substance, obtained chiefly from old pine and fir trees,

by burning them with a close smothering heat. It is prepared in great quantities in Norway, Sweden, Germany, Russia, and North America, and in other countries where the pine and fir abound. For the method of obtaining it, see PINUS, N^o 9. Becher, the celebrated chemist, first proposed to make tar from pit-coal. Manufactures for this purpose have been established many years ago in the ci-devant bishopric of Liege, and in several parts of England. In 1781, the earl of Dundonald obtained a patent for extracting tar from pit-coal by a new process of distillation. (See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and COAL, § IV.; also Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Account*, Vol. IX. p. 278, 279.) Tar, which is well known for its economical uses, is properly an empyreumatic oil of turpentine, and has been much used as a medicine both internally and externally. See MATERIA MEDICA, and PHARMACY, *Index*.

(4.) **TAR, BARBADOES**. See MATERIA MEDICA, under *Petroleum*, and PETROLEUM, § 2. N^o 1.

(5.) **TAR LAKE**, a bituminous lake or plain in the island of Trinidad.

(6.) **TAR, MINERAL**. See MINERALOGY, *Part II. Chap. VI. Class III. Gen. III. Sp. 3*.

(7.) **TAR RIVER**. See PAMlico, N^o 1.

(8.) **TAR WATER**, or water impregnated with the soluble parts of tar, was about a century ago a very popular remedy; but is now almost entirely out of use.

* *To Tar. v. a.* [*from the noun*.] 1. To smear over with tar. 2. To tease; to provoke. [*rag. arru*.] The nation holds it no sin to *tar* them on to controversy. *Shak.*—

Two curs shall tame each other; pride alone
Must tar the mastiffs on. *Shak.*

(1.) **TARA**, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Irtysh; 210 miles E. of Tobolsk, and 264 WNW. of Kolivan. Lon. 92. 19. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 0. N.

(2.) **TARA**, a mountain of Ireland, in Wexford, near the coast; 4 miles NE. of Newborough.

TARABILIS. See TRIPOLI, N^o 2.

TARABLUS, or } ancient names of Tripoli in

TARABOLUS, } Syria. See TRIPOLI, N^o 3.

TARABOSAN. See TREBISOND.

TARACASSA, a district of BUENOS AYRES.

TARACON, a city of Spain, in Arragon, anciently called Tyriafona, seated at the foot of Mount Moncayo, on the Chiles.

TARAGA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.

TARAGALA, a town of Africa, in Tafilet, on the Dras, with a castle, 275 miles SW. of Tafilet. Lon. 6. 3. W. Lat. 27. 40. N.

TARAGALE, or } a town of Africa, in the

TARAGOK, } kingdom of Darah.

TARAH, a town of Ireland, in Meath, 19 miles from Dublin. Triennial parliaments were anciently held in it.

TARAHUMARY, a province of Mexico, 1200 miles from Mexico.

TARAKLI, a town of European Turkey, in Bessabia; 24 miles SSW. of Bender.

TARAMA, a district of Peru, in Ljma.

TARAMEH, a town of Egypt, 2 m. NE. Tineh.

TARAMUND, a town of Spain, in Asturia; 45 miles W. of Oviedo.

TARANIS,

TARANIS, a name of Jupiter, among the ancient Gauls. *Lucan*, i. 146.

TARANNON, a river of N. Wales, in Montgomeryshire, which runs into the Severn, 5 miles N. of Newton.

TARANSA, or } one of the WESTERN
TARANSAY, } ISLANDS of Scotland, in the cluster called the *Harris Islands* (See **HARRIS**, N° 3.) It is high and rocky, 4 miles long, and from 1 to 3 broad. Having little soil, the natives are chiefly employed in fishing and making kelp. It has relics of religious houses, and is 5 miles NE. of Toe Head. Lon. 5. 48. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 58. 2. N.

TARANTA, a high mountain of Abyssinia. On the top is the village HALAI, inhabited by shepherds, who keep the flocks of the rich people of the town of Dixan below.

TARANTO, the ancient **TARENTUM**, a sea port town of Naples, in Otranto. It is a strong and populous place, with an archbishop's see, and the title of a principality. It is seated on a peninsula, and is defended by a strong castle; but the harbour is choked up. It is 50 miles SE. of Bari, 55 NW. of Otranto, and 14 E. by S. of Naples. Lon. 17. 20. E. Lat. 40. 35. N.

TARANTOLA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra; 10 miles ENE. of Solmona.

(1.) * **TARANTULA**. *n. f.* [Italian; *tarentule*, French.] An insect whose bite is only cured by music.—This word, *lover*, did no less pierce poor Pyrocles, than the right tune of music toucheth him that is sick of the *tarantula*. *Sidney*.—He that uses the word *tarantula*, without having any idea of what it stands for, means nothing at all by it. *Locke*.

(2.) **TARANTULA**, a species of aranea, so called from Taranto, where they abound. See **ARANEA**, § I. 5. N° 12.

TARAPACA, a town of Peru, in Arequipo, seated on a river which runs into the Pacific Ocean, in Lat. 20. 10. S.

TARARE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnois: "seated on the Tordive, at the foot of a mountain (says Dr Brooks) of the same name;" but which name he means (*Tordive* or *Turare*), we know not. Lon. 4. 43. E. Lat. 45. 32. N.

(1.) **TARAS**, a son of Neptune, who built TARENTUM.

(2.) **TARAS**, an ancient name of TARENTUM.

TARASCO, an ancient town of Gaul, now *Tarascon*. See **TARASCON**, N° 2.

(1.) **TARASCON**, a city of France, in the department of Arriège, and ci-devant province of Foix; famous for its manufactures of iron. It is seated on the Arriège, 7 miles SE. of Foix, 42 SW. of Carcassonne, and 48 SW. of Toulouse. Lon. 19. 16. E. Ferro. Lat. 42. 50. N.

(2.) **TARASCON**, an ancient, populous, and handsome town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and late province of Provence, with a well-built castle, seated on the Rhone, opposite Beaucaire, with which it communicates by a bridge of boats. It contains about 7000 citizens. Its commerce is in oil, brandy, starch, and fluffs of coarse silk, and of silk and

wool. It is 10 miles N. of Arles, and 375 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 45. W. Lat. 43. 46. N.

(3.) **TARASCON**, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 22 miles SW. of Huete.

TARASOVA, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi, on the Lena; 12 miles S. of Turtura.

TARASSO, a sea port town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania, anciently called *Tarsus*. (See **TARSUS**, N° 3.) It is a large town, and is surrounded with a double wall. It is inhabited by Turks, Greeks, and Armenians; and is the see of a Jacobite bishop and a Nestorian archbishop. It lies 105 miles W. of Alexandretta.

TARATATO, a town on the E. coast of Fortaventura, one of the CANARY ISLANDS.

TARAXACUM, in botany, *Dandelion*. See **LEONTODON**, and **MATERIA MEDICA**.

TARAXIPPUS, a deity worshipped in Elis, who superintended the races and other games. His statue was placed near the race ground, and his protection implored to the horses and their riders. *Pauf.* vi. 20.

TARAZ. See **TURKESTAN**, N° 2.

(1.) **TARAZONA**, a strong town of Spain, in Arragon, near Old Castile, with a bishop's see. It is seated partly on a rock, and partly in a fertile plain, on the river Chiles. It was taken and razed by the Moors in 724, rebuilt by them afterwards, but retaken by the Spaniards in 1110. It is 127 miles NE. of Madrid, and 43 NW. of Saragossa. Lon. 1. 26. W. Lat. 42. 10. N.

(2.) **TARAZONA**, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 15 miles S. of Alarcon.

(1.) **TARBAT**, a parish of Scotland, partly in Ross-shire, and partly in Cromarty, comprehending the extremity of the peninsula, formed by the Friths of Cromarty and Dornoch. It is 7½ miles long, and 4½ where broadest, extending 15 miles along the coast, which is mostly bold and rocky, and abounds with numerous caves, lined with stalactitical incrustations. It has a safe harbour at *Port Mahalmack*, where there was a pier, but it is now become ruinous. The surface is irregular, though not billy; the soil is fertile, varying from a rich to a sandy loam. The parish comprehends 5081 acres, of which 2998 are arable, 709 in pasture, 113 moor, 82 muirs, and 165 planted. Marl and free-stone abound. The population, in 1791, was 1370; decrease 214 since 1755. The only feat is that of Mr Macleod of *Geanies*.

(2.) **TARBAT**, or **TARBERT**, a town in the above parish, and county of Cromarty; 6 miles E. of Tain.

(3.) **TARBAT**, *AST*, a town of Scotland, in Argyllshire, on the bay (N° 4.); 25 miles N. of Campbeltown.

(4.) **TARBAT**, *LDCH*, a bay on the N. extremity of Kintyre.

(5.) **TARBAT NESS**, a cape of Scotland, on the E. coast of Ross-shire, between the Friths of Dornoch, Cromarty, and Murray. Lon. 0. 28. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 57. 50. N.

TARBE. See **TARBES**.

TARBELLE, a name of the PYRENEES, from **TARBELL**, an ancient people of Gaul, at the foot of the Pyrenees. *Cass. de Bell. Gall.*

(1.) **TARBERT**, a town of Ireland, in the county

county of Kerry and province of Munster, 124 miles from Dublin.

(2.) **TARBERT**, a small island, near the above town; between which and the island there is a safe and commodious road for vessels, either bound up the Shannon or outwards.

(3.) **TARBERT**, another island of Ireland, near the W. coast, and county of Galway; 2 miles S. of St. Omey island.

(4.) **TARBERT**, in Scotland. See **TARBAT**, N° 2.

TARBES, a populous city of France, capital of the department of the Upper Pyrenees, as it was of the ci-devant county of Bigorre. It is built on the ruins of the ancient Bigorre; and before the revolution was a bishop's see, and had a magnificent episcopal palace, with a handsome college and an ancient castle, seated on the Adour; 42 miles SW. of Auch, and 112 S. by E. of Bourdeaux. Lon. o. 9. E. Lat. 43. 14. N.

TARBET. See **TARBAT**, and **TARBERT**.

TARBIDO, a river of Naples, which runs into the Mediterranean, 13 miles SW. of Cosenza.

(1.) **TARBOLTON**, a parish of Scotland, in Ayrshire, in the district of Kyle, 8 miles long and 6 broad. Its surface is interperfed with heath-covered hills and marshes; yet great part of it is well cultivated. The population, in 1769, was 1200; the decrease 165, since 1755. The number of sheep was 500; of cows 1600, and of horses, 386.

(2.) **TARBOLTON**, a small but neatly built town in the above parish, containing 450 inhabitants, in 1796, and 2 mason lodges; 9 miles E. of Ayr.

TARBON, a town of Hungary, on the Theye; 14 miles NNE. of Kiswarda.

TARBOROUGH, or } a town of N. Carolina,
TARBURGH, } capital of Edgcombe
county, seated on the W. bank of **TAR RIVER**, 25 miles from its influx into Pamlico Sound. It has a court house, post office, &c. and quarterly courts are held in it. Great quantities of pork, beef, Indian corn, tobacco, &c. are exported. It is 40 miles NW. of Washington, 110 NE. by E. of Fayetteville, and 419 SW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 46. W. of the city. Lat. 35. 47. N.

TARCHON, an Etrurian chief, who assisted *Jæneas* against the Rutuli; and built **TARQUINI**. *Virg. Æn. viii. 603.*

TARCHONANTHUS, FLEA-BANE, in botany: A genus of plants belonging to the class of *syngenesia*, and to the order of *polygamia aqualis*, and in the natural system ranging under the 49th order *Compositæ*. The receptacle is villous, and the pappus plumy; the calyx is monophyllous, turbinate, and half divided into seven segments. There are only 3 species; viz.

TARCHONANTHUS CAMPHORATUS, ERICIBES, and GLABER.

TARCOA, a town of Abyssinia, in Gojam.

* **TARDATION**. *n. s.* [*tardo*, Latin.] The act of hindering or delaying.

TARDETS, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees; 6 miles S. of Maubelon, and 12 SW. of Oleron.

* **TARDIGRADOUS**. *adj.* [*tardigradus*, Lat.]

Moving slowly.—It is but a slow and *tardigradous* animal. *Brown.*

* **TARDILY**. *adv.* [from *tardy*.] Slowly; sluggishly.—

Those that could speak slow and *tardily*,
Would turn their own perfection to abuse.

To seem like him. *Shak.*

* **TARDINESS**. *n. s.* [from *tardy*.] Slowness; sluggishness; unwillingness to action or motion.

A *tardiness* in nature,

Which often leaves the history unspoke.

Shakespeare

* **TARDITY**. *n. s.* [*tarditas*, from *tardus*, Lat., *tardivette*, Fr.] Slowness; want of velocity.—Suppose some observable *tardity* in the motion of light. *Digby*.—Our explication includes time in the notions of velocity and *tardity*. *Digby*.

TARDOIRE, a river of France, which runs into the Charente, near Rochefoucault.

TARDOU, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova; 28 miles SW. of Cordova.

TARDOUERE. See **TARDOIRE**.

TARDSONG, a town of Tibet; 192 miles SSE. of Lassa. Lon. 113. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 29. 54. N.

* **TARDY**. *adj.* [*tardus*, Lat. *tardif*, French.]

1. Slow; not swift.—

Soule, more swift than motion, climb,

And check the *tardy* flight of time. *Sandys*

2. Sluggish; unwilling to action or motion.—

Behold that navy which a while before

Provok'd the *tardy* English close to fight;

Now draw their beaten vessels close to shore,

As larks lie dar'd to shun the hobbies. *Dryden.*

Tardy to vengeance, and with mercy brave.

Prior.

3. Distort; late; tedious.—

I not ta'en *tardy* by unwise delay. *Shak.*

Death be as oft accus'd

Of *tardy* execution. *Milton.*

The *tardy* plants in our cold orchards plac'd,

Reserve their fruit for the next age's taste.

Wallr.

Tardy of aid, unseal thy heavy eyes. *Dryden.*

—You may censure him for being *tardy* in his payments. *Arbutnot.* 4. Unwary. A low word.—

If thou think'st I took thee *tardy*,

And dar'st presume to be so hardy,

To try thy fortune o'er a-fresh,

I'll wave my title to thy flesh. *Hudibras.*

5. Criminal; offending. A low word.—If they take them *tardy*, they endeavour to humble them by way of reprisal. *Collier.*

* To **TARDY**. *v. a.* [*tarder*, Fr. from the adjective.] To delay; to hinder.—

The good mind of Camillo *tardied*

My swift command. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TARE**. *n. s.* [from *terren*, Dutch, to consume. *Skinner*.] A weed that grows among corn.—Through hatred of *tares*, the corn in the field of God is plucked up. *Hooker*.—Their feed-time was their harvest, and by sowing *tares* they reaped gold. *Decay of Piety*.—My country neighbours begin not to think of the *tares* in their corn. *Locke.*

(2.) **TARE**, or **VETCH**, in botany. See **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part I. *Scd.* VI, and *Vicia*.

T

(3.) * **TARE**.

(3.) * **TARE**, *n. s.* [French.] A mercantile word denoting the weight of any thing containing a commodity; also the allowance made for it.

(4.) **TARE**, in commerce, is an allowance for the outside package that contains such goods as cannot be unpacked without detriment; or for the papers, threads, bands, &c. that inclose or bind any goods, imported loose; or though imported in casks, chests, &c. yet cannot be unpacked and weighed neat.

(5.) * **TARE**, preterite of *tear*.—

The women beat their breasts, their cheeks they *tare*. *Dryden.*

(6.) **TARE**, *VETCH*. See **TARGONIA**.

TARLEFF, a town of Arabia Felix, in Hedsjas; 40 miles NE. of Medina.

TERENGASONG, a town of Asia, in Thibet; 192 miles SSE. of Lassa.

TARENT, a river of England in Dorsetshire, which rises in Stubbhampton, runs through Dorsetshire, where it gives name to 7 villages; See **TARENT CRANFORD**, &c. and falls into the Stour, 3 miles SE. of Blandford.

TARENTEISE, a ci-devant county and province in the late duchy of SAVOY, now included in the French empire, and department of MONT BLANC. It was bounded on the N. by the late lordship of Faucigny, E. by the ci-devant duchy of Aosta; S. by the ci-devant county of Maurienne, and W. by Savoy Proper. It was made a bishopric in the 5th century, and an archbishopric in the 8th. The kings of Burgundy made it a county, and in the end of the 11th century, Humbert II. Earl of Savoy and Maurienne took it, and his descendants and successors held it till 1793, when the whole of Savoy was annexed to the French republic. The soil is barren, and the whole surface mountainous, rugged and full of dreadful precipices. The Isère crosses it from E. to W. **MONSTIER** was the capital.

TARENT-CRANFORD, **TARENT-GUNVIL**, **TARENT-HINTON**, **TARENT-KAINSTON**, **TARENT-LAUNSTON**, **TARENT-MONKTON**, and **TARENT-RUSHTON**, 7 small towns and villages of England, in Dorsetshire, on the banks of the **TARENT**, all NE. of Blandford.

TARENTEZIA. See **TARENTEISE**.

(1.) **TARENTINE**, *adj.* [from *Tarentum*.] Of or belonging to **TARENTUM**.

(2.) **TARENTINES**, *n. s.* the ancient inhabitants of **TARENTUM**, long famous for their bravery, and afterwards equally infamous for their luxury and effeminacy.

(3.) **TARENTINE WAR**, a war which lasted 10 years, between the Tarentines assisted by Pyrrhus, and the Romans. See **EPICURUS**, **ROME**, § 25; **SYRACUSE**, § 17; and **TARENTUM**.

TARENTO, or **TARANTO**, the modern name of the ancient **TARENTUM**.

(1.) **TARENTUM**, } or **TARAS**, an ancient

(2.) **TARENTUS**, } city of Italy, in Calabria, seated near the mouth of the Gaietus, and capital of a republic. It was founded by a colony of Spartans, under Phalanthus, about A. A. C. 707. The government was democratical, though they had occasionally some monarchs. It was for some time the residence of Pythagoras, who taught the citizens his philosophy, inspired them

with the love of virtue, and rendered them superior to their neighbours, both in the cabinet and the field. They were long independent, and maintained their superiority over 13 tributary cities; when they could arm 100,000 foot and 3000 horse. Becoming rich, they grew voluptuous and indolent; so that the *delights of Tarentum* became proverbial. In the pride of their prowess, however, they quarrelled with the Romans, and invited Pyrrhus into Italy. (See **ROME**, § 25.) But the war ended, after 10 years, in the total conquest of their republic, its annexation to that of Rome, and the capture of 30,000 prisoners.

(2.) **TARENTUS**, or **TARENTUM**, BAY OF, a large, beautiful, and capacious bay and harbour of Italy on the coast of Tarentum, greatly celebrated by ancient historians; but now almost entirely choked up. See **TARANTO**.

TAREZA, a river of Hungary, which runs into the Sámos; 20 miles SW. of Tokay.

TARF, a river of Scotland in Kirkcudbrightshire, which rises from **LOCH WIKNOCH**, in the parish of Girthon; and after running 11 miles along the W. side of the parish of Tongland, falls into the Dee, at the S. end of that parish.

TARFE, a town of Egypt; 7 miles W. of Cairo.

(1.) **TARFF**, a river of Scotland in Invernessshire, which rises from **LOCH TARRF**; and, after running about 8 miles, falls into **LOCH NESS**, near the estuary of the Orch, and not far from Fort Augustus.

(2.) **TARFF, LOCH**, a lake of Invernessshire, about 3 miles in circumference, in which are several beautiful woody islands.

TARGA, a town of Fez; 90 miles SE. of Tangiers; near an oyster fishery, with a castle on a rock, in a plain surrounded by mountains and forests, abounding with monkeys, and with good wells and pastures. Lon. 4. 46. W. Lat. 35. 20. N.

* **TARGE**. } *n. s.* [*targa*, Saxon; *targe*,

(1.) * **TARGET**. } Italian; *targe*, French; *tarian*, Welsh, which seems the original of the rest; an *taargett*, Erse.] A kind of buckler or shield born on the left arm. It seems to be commonly used for a defensive weaponless in circumference than a shield.—

An open gash therein, were't not his *targe*

That broke the violence. *Spenser.*

I took all their seven points in my *target*. *Shak.*

Henceforward will I bear

Upon my *target* three fair shining furs. *Shak.*

—The arms the sixth most is the *target*. *Howel.*—

Those leaves

They gather'd, broad as Amazonian *targe*. *Milt.*

The Greeks the gates approach'd, their *targets* cast

Over their heads. *Derham.*

(2.) **TARGET**, in war. See **SHIELD**.

(3.) **TARGET**, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Allier; 4½ miles S. of Montmarault.

* **TARGETIER**, *n. s.* [from *target*.] One armed with a *target*.—

For horsemen and for *targetiers* none could
with him compare. *Chapman.*

TARGIONIA, in botany; a genus of plants belonging to the class of *cryptogamia*, and natural order

order of *alge*. The calyx is bivalved, including a globular body. There is only one species; viz.

TARGIONIA HYPOPHYLLA, the *Vetch Tare*, a native of Great Britain. It has leaves about a quarter of an inch long, of a heart-shape, inverted and growing prostrate in a clump together; their upper surface is green, covered with whitish papillæ, and their lower surface is black. The fructification grows at the great end of the leaf on the lower side, and consists of two concave valves of a reddish black colour, inclosing a chocolate coloured globule, resembling the seed of a tare or vetch, full of a yellow powder. The leaves increase by shooting out young offsets from their sides like the polyposus. This plant is found in the N. of England, and near Tarbat of Kintyre in Scotland.

TARGON, a town of France in the dep. of Gironde, and district of Cadillac; 6 miles NE. of Cadillac.

TARGOROD, a town of European Turkey in Moldavia; 50 miles SW. of Jassy. Lon. 26. 29. E. Lat. 46. 49. N.

TARGOVISCO, or **TERGOTISCO**, a city of European Turkey, capital of Walachia; seated on the Launitz, 70 miles SE. of Hermanstadt, and 188 NE. of Belgrade. Lon. 25. 26. E. Lat. 45. 45. N.

TARGOWISKA, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the palatinate of Volhynia, 9 miles S. of Lucko; now annexed to Russia.

(1.) * **TARGUM**. *n. s.* [Heb.] A paraphrase on the pentateuch in the Chaldee language.

(2.) **TARGUM** signifies *paraphrases* or *expositions*, because they are rather comments and explications than literal translations of the text. They are written in the Chaldee tongue, which became more familiar to the Jews after their captivity in Babylon, than the Hebrew itself. But though the custom of making these expositions in the Chaldee language be very ancient among the Hebrews, yet have they no targums before the era of Jonathan and Onkelos.

i. *The TARGUM OF JERUSALEM* is only upon the Pentateuch; nor is that entire or perfect.

ii. *The TARGUM OF JONATHAN*, the son of Uziel is upon the greater and lesser prophets. He flourished under Herod the Great, about A.A.C. 30.

iii. *The TARGUM OF JOSEPH THE BLIND* is upon the Hagiographa. This author is much more modern; and less esteemed than those above-mentioned.

iv. *The TARGUM OF ONKELOS* is the most of all esteemed, and copies are to be found in which it is inserted verse for verse with the Hebrew. It is so short and so simple, that it cannot be suspected of being corrupted. This paraphrast wrote only upon the books of Moses; and his style approaches nearly to the purity of the Chaldee, as it is found in Daniel and Ezra. This targum is cited in the Mishna, but was not known either to Eusebius, St Jerome, or Origen. See **ONKELOS**.

TARI, a river of Africa, on the Slave Coast, which runs through the kingdom of Popo.

TARICHÆUM, a fortified town of Judæa. *Cicero ad Div. xii. c. 14.*

(1.) * **TARIF**. *n. s.* [perhaps a Spanish word; *tarif*, Fr.] A cartel of commerce.—This branch

of our trade was regulated by a *tariff*, or declaration of the duties of import and export. *Addis.*

(2.) **TARIF** is a table or catalogue containing the names of different sorts of merchandize, with the duties to be paid as settled by authority among trading nations.

TARIFFA, a sea port town of Spain, in Seville, on a bay so named, on the N. side of the Straits of Gibraltar; fortified with walls, towers, and a castle. By the Romans it was called **JULIA TRADUCTA**, and *Julia Jozza*; and afterwards *Tariffa* by the Moors. It is 27 miles SSE. of Medina Sidonia, and 17 WSW. of Gibraltar. Lon. 5. 40. W. Lat. 30. 0. N.

TARIN, Peter, a French physician and author, born at Courtenai, about the end of the 17th century. He published, 1. *Adversaria Anatomica*, 4to. 2. *An Anatomical Dictionary*, 4to. 3. *Osteographia*, 4to. 4. *Anthropomia*, or the Art of Dissecting: 2 vols. 12mo. 5. *A Treatise on Ligaments*; 6. *Observations on Medicine and Surgery*; 3 vols. 12mo; and 7. *A Description of the Muscles*; 4to. He died in 1761.

TARINGASONG, a town of Thibet, 17 miles SSE. of Lassa, and 106 N. of Ghergong. Lon. 93. 0. E. Lat. 28. 6. N.

TARINURAK, a river of Russia, which runs into the Lena; in Lon. 142° E. Ferro. Lat. 61° N.

TARITO, a town of Asia, in Thibet; 33 miles SE. of Tchontori.

TARKA, a mountain of Transylvania; 28 miles NNE. of Udvarhely.

TARKI, } 2 towns of Hungary; 1st. 15 miles
TARKO, } NNW. of Topolitzau; 2d. 6 miles
ESE. of Szeben.

TARKU, a city of Asia, capital of Daghestan; on the W. coast of the Caspian Sea; 52 miles SE. of Derki, 130 N. of Schamachie, 260 S. of Astracan and 300 NE. of Tauris. Lon. 47. 5. E. Lat. 45. 50. N.

(1.) **TARLAND**, a parish of Scotland, in the W. part of Aberdeenshire; united with that of *Migvie*. Excepting the lands surrounding the village, which are level, the greater part of the surface is mountainous, and the climate cold. The mountains are mostly covered with heath, and afford good pasture for sheep, and in some places good grafs for black cattle. They also abound with game. The population, in 1792, was 1100; decrease 200, since 1755. The parish is watered by the *Deskry*, and a part of it lying in that of Strathdon is watered by the *Don*.

(2.) **TARLAND**, a borough of barony in the above parish, nearly in the centre of the district of Cromar, seated on the banks of the *Deskry*. It has a weekly market, and 6 annual fairs, and contained 150 inhabitants in 1792.

TARLETON, Richard, a celebrated English actor, born about the beginning of the 16th century at Condover, in Shropshire; whence he was brought to London, and patronized by Robert Earl of Leicester. Stowe says he was one of the 12 whom, in 1583, Q. Elizabeth appointed her players at Barn-Elms; allowing them wages and liveries as grooms of the chambers. He wrote a dramatic piece, called *The Seven Deadly Sins*. He died about 1589.

(1.) **TARMA**, a town of Africa, in Egypt, on the isthmus of Suez. It was taken by the Saracens, under Amru. See **SARACENS**, § 3.

(2.) **TARMA**, a province or jurisdiction of Peru, situated on the N. of Atun-Xauxa, 90 miles from Lima, to which diocese it belongs. The climate is temperate and the soil fertile, except towards the mountains, where it is cold. It abounds with black cattle and silver mines.

TARMON, a mountain of Ireland, in Mayo.

TARMON-BARRY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Roscommon, in Connaught, with a bridge; 64 miles from Dublin.

(1.) * **TARN**. *n. s.* [*tiorn*, Islandick.] A bog; a fen; a marsh; a pool; a quagmire.

(2.) **TARN**, in geography, a department of France, formed out of the ci-devant province of **LANGUEDOC**. It is bounded on the N. and NE. by the dep. of the Aveyron; SE. by that of Hérault; S. by that of the Aude; and W. by those of Upper Garonne and Lot. It extends 47 miles from N. to S. and about as far from E. to W. besides a mountainous tract 7 miles broad, from Caune to St Gervais, which extends 15 miles farther East. **CASTRES** is the capital.

(3.) **TARN**, a river of France which rises in the mountain and department of Lozère, runs through the above department (N° 2,) to which it gives name, from E. to W. passes by Florac, Ispahac, St Emirie, Compyre, Milhaud, St Rome, Lisle, Gaillac, Rabastens, Villemer, Montauban, and other towns, and falls into the Garonne near Moissac, in the dep. of the Lot.

TARNAK, a town of France, in the dep. of Correze; seated on the Vienne, 25 miles E. of Limoges, and 25 N. of Tulle.

TARNAVAY, a town of Hindoostan, in Calicut; 20 miles NE. of Paniany.

(1.) * **To TARNISH**. *v. a.* [*ternir*, French.] To fully; to soil; to make not bright.—Let him pray for reformation, that he may discover nothing that may *tarnish* the glory of the suffering. *Collier*.

Low waves the rooted forest, vex'd, and sheds
What of its *tarnish'd* honours yet remain. *Thom.*

(2.) * **To TARNISH**. *v. n.* To lose brightness.—A fine object should *tarnish* by having many see it. *Collier*.

TARNOGROD, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the palatinate of Belz and late province of Red Russia, now in the new Austrian province of GALICIA.

TARNOWITZ, a town of Silesia, in Oppeln, near a silver mine; 6 miles N. of Beuthen, and 38 SE. of Oppeln. At this town Augustus II. on his election to the crown of Poland, in 1697, gave audience to the ambassadors sent to him on that occasion; and in 1734, a similar interview upon a similar occasion was held by Augustus III. with a splendid embassy from Poland.

(1.) **TARO**, a river of Italy, which rises in the S. part of the ci-devant duchy of Parma, and runs into the Po, 9 miles E. of Russeto.

(2.) **TARO**, or **VAL DI TARO**, a valley in the late duchy of Parma, on the banks of the above river, now annexed to the Italian kingdom, or ci-devant republic.

(3.) **TARA**, a borough in the above valley, of

which it is the capital; seated on the **TARO**; 25 miles SW. of Parma. Lon. 10. 9. E. Lat. 44. 40. N.

TARODANT, or **TARUDANT**, a city of Morocco, capital of the province of Sus; seated near the Atlantic Ocean, 120 miles S. of Morocco. (See **SUS**, N° 1.) Lon. 8. 10. W. Lat. 30. 0. N.

TAROGA, or **TARAGA**, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, seated on a hill, near the Cervera; 5 miles W. of Cervera, 15 from Lerida, and 30 N. of Tarragona.

TAROM, a town of Persia, in the province of Laristan; 69 miles NW. of Lar.

TARON, a town of Persia, in the province of Adirbeizzen; 129 miles SE. of Tauris.

TAROONCHI, a town of Hindoostan, in the Mysore, now belonging to Great Britain; 15 miles SSW. of Chinna Balabaram.

TAROUC YAMPSON, a lake of Thibet, 53 miles in circuit. Lon. 102. 44. E. Ferro. Lat. 30. 31. N.

TAROUT, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hadjar; 32 miles SE. of Catif.

TARPA, Spurius Martius, a Latin critic in the time of Julius Cæsar and Augustus. He had his tribunal in the temple of Apollo, where, with four assistants, he passed sentence on the works of the poets, which, after his approbation, were deposited in the temple of the muses. Cicero and Horace make honourable mention of this critic. He also reviewed the plays.

TARPAULIN. See the next article.

* **TARPAWLING**. *n. s.* [from *tar*.] 1. Hempen cloth smeared with tar.—

Searchcloth matts with strong *tarpawling* coats. *Dryden*.

2. A sailor, in contempt.—Was any thing wanting to the extravagance of this age, but the making a living *tarpawlin* and the swabber the hero of a tragedy? *Dennis*.

TARPEIA, a vestal virgin, who betrayed the citadel of Rome to the Sabines; for which, by a voluntary mistake, they rewarded her with death. See **ROME**, § 6.

TARPEIAN ROCK, in Roman antiquity, a steep rock in Rome; whence, by the law of the XII. tables, those guilty of certain crimes were precipitated. It took its name from **TARPEIA**, who was burned near it.

TARPEIUS MOWS, the **TARPEIAN bill**, on which stood the **TARPEIAN ROCK**. (See last article.) It was 80 feet perpendicular in height. It was also called **CAPITOLINUS**, from the **CAPITOL** being built on it.

TARPOUJA, a large lake of Thibet; 66 miles in circuit. Lon. 99. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 30. 31. N.

TARQUIN I. king of Rome, succeeded Ancus Martius A. A. C. 615. See **ROME**, § 10.

TARQUIN II. furnished the *Proud*, a tyrant and usurper. See **ROME**, § 12—16.

TARQUINIA, the daughter of **TARQUIN I.** and the wife of Servius Tullius. After the murder of her husband, (see **ROME**, § 11.) she buried his body, and died of grief the night following. Others say that she was poisoned by the parricide Tullia.

TARQUINIENSES, the ancient inhabitants of **TAR-**

TARQUINI. They endeavoured to restore Tarquin II. See **ROME**, § 14.

TARQUINI, an ancient city of Etruria, built by **TARCHON**, an ally of **Æneas**. **LUCUMO**, the Corinthian, was educated in it, took his surname *Tarquinus* from it; and after he became king of Rome, by the name of **TARQUIN I.** made it a Roman colony. (*Strabo*. 5.) It is now called **TARCHINA**.

(1, 2.) **TARQUINIUS I. & II.** See **TARQUIN**.

(3.) **TARQUINIUS**, **LUCIUS**, **COLLATINUS**, one of the two first consuls of Rome, the husband of **LUCRETIA** and colleague of **BRUTUS**. See **COLLATINUS**, and **ROME**, § 12—14.

TARQUITUS, a son of **Faunus** and **Dryope**; who assisted **Turnus** against **Æneas**, and was killed by the latter. *Virg. Æn.* x. v. 550.

TARRACINA, or **ANXUR**, an ancient city of the Volsci, between Rome and Naples; (see **ANXUR**;) now called **TERRACINA**.

TARRACO, in ancient geography, a city of **HISPANIA TARRACONENSIS**, of which it was the capital, founded by the Phœnicians; and planted with a Roman colony by the two **Scipiones Africanus**, and seated on the coast of the Mediterranean. It is now called **TARRAGONA**.

TARRACONENSIS HISPANIA, an ancient Roman province of Spain, called also *Hispānia Citra*, or *Citerior*, in respect of its situation as to Rome. (See **HISPANIA**.) It was bounded on the N. by the Pyrenees and the Cantabrian Sea, now the Bay of Biscay; on the E. by the Mediterranean; S. by Lusitania, and Hispania Bætica; and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. (See **BÆTICA**.) It was famous for its wines. **TARRACO** was the capital. It comprehended Catalonia, and some adjacent districts. See **CATALONIA**.

(1.) * **TARRAGON**. *n. f.* A plant called herb-dracō.

(2.) **TARRAGON**. See **ARTEMISIA**, § III, N° 4.

TARRAGONA, an ancient city of Spain, in Catalonia, of which province it is the *metropolis*, and the see of an archbishop. It is seated on a rising ground, on the coast of the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river **Francoli**. It has many relics of Roman antiquity, though much defaced; is surrounded with walls built by the Moors, and defended by regular bastions, but not in good repair. It has a grand Gothic cathedral, of vast dimensions, and elegant architecture; with a magnificent chapel, built with marble and jasper, dedicated to *S^t Tóclea*. But the city is neither so large nor so populous as it was anciently; for, by its dimensions within the walls, it might contain 2000 houses, whereas there are not above 500. But they are all built with large square stones; and it has an university; with a considerable trade in corn, wine, oil, flax, &c. It is 35 miles NE. of Tortosa, 38 SW. of Barcelona, 98 ESE. of Saragossa, and 220 E. by N. of Madrid. *Lon.* 1. 13. E. *Lat.* 41. 8. N.

TARRANTIUS, **LUCIUS**, an ancient Roman mathematician and philosopher, who was cotemporary with Cicero, and was one of his friends. He has been styled the *Prince of Astrologers*. He made two famous *Horoscopes*; the one of *Romulus*, the other of *Rome*.

TARRAS, a river of Scotland, in Dumfries-

shire, which rises in the parish of Ewes, and falls into the *Esk* 3 miles below Langholm. It is remarkable for its precipitous channel and beautiful romantic scenery.

TARRASA, a town of Spain in Catalonia; 13 miles N. of Barcelona.

TARRATZ POINT, a cape on the N. coast of St Vincent. *Lon.* 65. 16. W. *Lat.* 13. 24. N.

TARREGA, or **TAROGA**. See **TAROGA**.

* **TARRIANCE**. *n. f.* [from *tarry*.] Stay; delay; perhaps sojourn.—

I am impatient of my *tarrance*. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TARRIER**. *n. f.* [This should be written *terrier*, from *terre*, French, the earth.] 1. A sort of small dog, that hunts the fox or otter out of his hole.—The fox is earthed; but I shall send two *tarriers* in after him. *Dryden*, 2. One that tarries or stays.

(2.) **TARRIER**, or **TERRIER**, in zoology. See **CANIS**, § I, IV, N° 12.

TARRING, a town of England, in Suffex; with a market on Sat. 17 miles W. of Brighton, and 57 S. of London.

TARRACK, *n. f.* in ornithology. See **LARUS**, N° 11.

(1.) * *To TARRY*. *v. a.* [*targir*, French.] 1. *To stay*; to continue in a place.—

Tarry I here, I but attend on death. *Shak.*

I dare not die, but fain would *tarry* here.

Dryden.

2. *To delay*; to be long in coming.—Make no *tarrying*, O God! *Psal.*—They that *tarry* long at the wine. *Prov.* xxiii. 30. 3. *To wait*; to expect attending.—*Tarry* ye here for us. *Exod.* xxiv. 14.

(2.) * *To TARRY*. *v. a.* *To wait for*.—I cannot *tarry* dinner. *Shak.*

TARRY-TOWN, a town of New York, where major André was apprehended. See **ANDRE**.

(1.) * **TARSEL**. *n. f.* A kind of hawk.—

Hilt! Romeo, hilt! O for a falconer's voice,

To lure this *tarsel* gentle back again. *Shak.*

Of *tarsels* and of lures he talks. *Prior.*

(2.) **TARSEL**. See **FALCO**, and **FALCON**, § 2.

TARSHISH, or **TARTESSUS**, a town frequently mentioned by ancient authors, the situation of which it is difficult to ascertain. See **INDIA**, § 3.

TARSIA, a town of Naples, in Calabria *Citra*; 7 miles N. of Bisignano.

TARSUS, a river of Troas. *Strabo*.

(1.) * **TARSUS**. *n. f.* [*ταρσος*; *tarsé*, Fr.] The space betwixt the lower end of the fossil bones of the leg, and the beginning of the five long bones that are jointed with, and bear up the toes; it comprises 7 bones and the 3 *ossa cuneiformia*. *Dis.*—An obscure motion where the conjunction is called *synarthrosis*; as, in joining the *tarsus* to the metatarsus. *Wifeman*.

(2.) **TARSUS**. See **ANATOMY**, § 159.

(3.) **TARSUS**, in ancient geography, a celebrated city of Cilicia, seated on the Cydnus. It was founded according to some, by **SARDANAPALUS**, king of Assyria; or as others say, by **TRIPTOLEMUS** and a colony of Argives; while a 3d set of authors ascribe its foundation to **PERSEUS**. It was at one period the capital of all Cilicia, and became a rival to Alexandria and Athens in the arts and sciences. The inhabitants having, in the time

time of Julius Cæsar, showed themselves friendly to the Romans, they were endowed with all the privileges of Roman citizens. Hence St Paul claimed being a Roman. It is now called TARASSO.

(1.) * TART. *adj.* [*tart*, Saxon; *taertig*, Dutch.] 1. Sour; acid; acidulated; sharp of taste. 2. Sharp; keen; severe.—

Why for *tart* a favour

To trumpet such good tidings? *Shak.*

—When his humours grow *tart* they break forth into certain sudden excesses. *Wotton.*

(2.) * TART. *n. f.* [*tarte*, French; *tarta*, Italian; *taart*, Danish.] A small pie of fruit.—Figures, with divers coloured earths, be but toys: you may see as good lights in *tarts*. *Bacon.*

TARTAGLIA, Nicholas, a celebrated Italian mathematician, born at Brescia, where he became a famous teacher of the mathematical sciences. He published several works which are esteemed. His chief tract is on number and measure, entitled *Traité di Numeri et Misura*, 1556, folio. He died about 1558.

TARTAK, an idol of the Avites. See SAMARITANS.

TARTALA, a town of Hindoostan, in Calicut: 21 miles E. of Panaiy.

(1.) TARTAN, *adj.* [from the substantive.] Variegated with red, blue, green, and black colours; striped like tartan.

(2.) TARTAN, *n. f.* or TARTAN CLOTH, a kind of cloth, made generally of woollen, sometimes of linen, and often of silk, of various colours; as blue, red, green, white, black, and yellow, &c. running in parallel lines, and crossing each other; and thus forming various coloured squares, parallelograms and parallelepipeds. This dress is much worn by the Scottish HIGHLANDERS. The tartan dress is said to have been derived from the ancient GAULS, or CELTS; the *Galli non-braccati*. The tartan is made into plaids, coats, and phibegs. The most elegant form of this dress is when the coat is made of that kind of tartan in which the red stripes chiefly prevail: the vest entirely white; the phibeg, drawers, or trowsers, of that in which the green or blue chiefly predominates; and the plaid, with either the green or blue predominant, but differing from that of the phibeg. See PHIBEG.

(3.) TARTAN PLAID. See PLAID.

(1.) * TARTANE. *n. f.* [*tartana*, Italian; *tartane*, Fr.] A vessel much used in the Mediterranean, with one mast and a three cornered sail.—I fet out from Marfeilles to Genoa in a *tartane*. *Addison.*

(2.) TARTANE, in sea language, a small coasting vessel navigated in the Mediterranean sea, and having only one mast and a bowsprit, the principal sail, which is extremely large, being extended by a lateen-yard. When tartanes put up a square sail it is called a *fail of fortune*.

(1.) * TARTAR. *n. f.* [*tartarus*, Lat.] 1. Hell. A word used by the old poets, now obsolete.—

With this the damned ghosts he governeth,
And furies rules, and *tartars* tempereth. *Spens.*

He's in *tartar* limbo worse than hell. *Shak.*

2. [*Tartre*, Fr.] Tartar is what sticks to wine casks, like a hard stone, either white or red, as the colour of the wine from whence it comes:

the white is preferable, as containing less dross or earthy parts: the best comes from Germany, and is the *tartar* of the Rhenish wine. *Quincy.*—The fermented juice of grapes is partly turned into liquid drops or lees, and partly into that crust or dry feculency that is commonly called *tartar*; and this *tartar* may by the fire be divided into five differing substances, four of which are not acid, and the other not so manifestly acid as the *tartar* itself. *Boyle.*

(2.) TARTAR, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) in the mythology. See HELL, § 3; and TARTARUS.

(3.) TARTAR, *n. f.* [from *Tartary*; or perhaps rather *Tartary* from *Tartar*.] A native of Tartary. See TARTARS, and TARTARY.

(4.) TARTAR, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) in chemistry and pharmacy. See CHEMISTRY, and PHARMACY, *Indexes*.

(5.) TARTAR, CREAM OF. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and *Vocab.* I.; also MATERIA MEDICA. It is now called SUPER-TARTRITE OF POTASS. See TARTRITE, N° 12.

(6.) TARTAR, CRUDE. See CHEMISTRY, § 1196.

(7.) TARTAR, CRYSTALS OF. See TARTRITE, N° 12.

(8.) TARTAR, EMETIC. See CHEMISTRY, and PHARMACY, *Indexes*.

(9.) TARTAR OF THE TEETH, a bony crust which often attaches itself to the teeth. Dr Thomson and Fourcroy say it is composed of SULPHAT OF LIME.

(10.) TARTAR, PHENOMENA AND PROPERTIES OF. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and TARTRITE, N° 12.

(11.) TARTAR, SALTS OF. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and TARTRITE, N° 1—24.

(12.) TARTAR, VARIOUS OBSOLETE NAMES AND DISTINCTIONS OF, with the new names. See CHEMISTRY, *Vocab.* I. & II.

(13.) TARTAR, VITRIOLATED. See SULPHAT, N° 12.

* TARTAREAN. *adj.* [*tartarus*, Lat.]: Hellish.

His throne mix'd with *tartarean* sulphur. *Milt.*

(1.) * TARTAREOUS. *adj.* [from *tartar*.] 1. Consisting of tartar.—In fruits, the *tartareous* parts of the sap are thrown upon the fibres designed for the stone, and the oily upon the seed within it. *Crew.* 2. Hellish.—

The spirit of God downward purg'd

The black *tartareous* cold infernal dregs. *Milt.*

(2.) TARTAREOUS, in modern chemistry, like SULPHUREOUS for SULPHUROUS, is now entirely dropped for TARTAROUS.

(3.) TARTAREOUS ACID. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and TARTAROUS.

(1.) TARTARIAN, *adj.* Of or belonging to TARTARY.

(2.) TARTARIAN SEA, a part of the Eastern Ocean, which bounds Eastern Tartary on the E. and S.

TARTARIS, } *n. f.* [from *Tartar*.] The
TARTARITE, } names first given by modern
chemists, to the salts now called TARTRITES.
See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and TARTRITE.

* To TARTARIZE. *v. a.* [from *tartar*.] To impregnate with tartar.

(1.) TARTARIZED, *part. adj.* [from *tartarize*,] impregnated with tartar.

(6.) TAR-

(2.) TARTARIZED ANTIMONY. See CHEMISTRY, § 2069.

(3.) TARTARIZED IRON. See PHARMACY. Ind.

(4.) TARTARIZED TARTAR, &c. See CHEMISTRY, § 2069.

(1.) *TARTAROUS. *adj.* [from *tartar*.] Containing tartar; confusling of tartar.

(2.) TARTAROUS is now universally used by modern chemists for what was formerly written *Tartareus*: as

(3.) TARTAROUS ACID. See CHEMISTRY, § 924—932. As the account of this acid there given is defective, we add the following particulars from the ingenious Dr Thomson's *System of Chemistry*, vol. II. p. 109.—“Scheele (says he) was the first who obtained this acid in a separate state. He communicated his process to Retzius, who published it in the *Stockholm Transactions* for 1770. It consisted in boiling tartar with lime, and decomposing the TARTRITE OF LIME thus formed by sulphuric acid. The process now employed is the same with Scheele's:—Dissolve tartar in boiling water, and add to the solution powdered chalk till all effervescence ceases, and the liquid ceases to redden vegetable blues. Let the liquid cool, and pass it through a filter. A quantity of tartrite of lime, which is an insoluble white powder, remains upon the filter. Put this tartrite, well washed, into a glass cucurbit, and pour on it a quantity of sulphuric acid, equal to the weight of the chalk employed, which must be diluted with water. Let it digest for 12 hours, stirring it occasionally. The sulphuric acid displaces the tartarous: sulphat of lime remains at the bottom, while the tartarous acid is dissolved in the liquid. Decant off this last, and try if it contains any sulphuric acid. This is done by dropping in a little acetite of lead; a precipitate appears, which is insoluble in acetic acid if sulphuric acid be present, but soluble if it be absent. If sulphuric acid be present, the liquid must be digested again on some more tartrite of lime; if not, it is to be slowly evaporated, and about one third of the weight of the tartar employed is obtained of crystallized tartarous acid. The form of its crystals is so irregular, that every chemist who has treated of them has given a different description. Bergman says, they consist of divaricating lamellæ; Van Packer, that they assume the form of long pointed prisms; Spielman and Corvinus obtained them in groups, lance-shaped, needle-formed, and pyramidal; Morveau obtained them needle-formed. Their specific gravity is 1.5962. Crystallized tartarous acid suffers no change in the open air, but heat decomposes it altogether: in the open fire it burns without any residuum but a spongy charcoal, containing some lime. When distilled in close vessels, it is converted into carbonic acid gas, and carbonated hydrogen gas, a coloured oil, and a reddish acid liquor, which was formerly named *pyro tartareous acid*; (see CHEMISTRY, Index;) but which Fourcroy and Vauquelin have ascertained to be merely acetic acid impregnated with oil.—Tartarous acid dissolves readily in water. Bergman obtained a solution, of the specific gravity of 1.230. Morveau observed, that crystals formed spontaneously in a solution were 1.084. It is not liable to

spontaneous decomposition when dissolved in water, unless greatly diluted. It oxidates iron, zinc, and even mercury; but does not act upon antimony, bismuth, tin, lead, copper, silver, gold, nor platinum. It combines with alkalis, earths, and metallic oxides, and forms salts, named *tartrites*.—Hermstadt has ascertained that it may be converted into oxalic acid, by distilling it often with six times its weight of nitric acid. By this process he obtained 560 parts oxalic acid from 360 parts of tartarous. Fourcroy and Vauquelin ascertained its ingredients to be 70.5 oxygen, 19 carbon, and 10.5 hydrogen. Its affinities are the same with those of the oxalic acid. Pure tartarous acid has scarcely been put to any use; but some of its compounds are much used in medicine. It has the property of combining in two different proportions with many bases. With potash it forms a salt pretty soluble in water, (see TARTRITE, N° 1—24.); but when added in a greater proportion it forms TARTAR.

(1.) TARTARS, *n. f. plur.* The natives of Tartary. (See TARTARY, § 1, 2. I.—IV.) Although widely dispersed, and very different in their customs and manners, they are descended from one common stock, and are generally considered as the descendants of the ancient SCYTHIANS. All the Tartars claim to be descended from TURK, the eldest son of JAPHETH. Although from the time that Jenghiz Khan subdued all Tartary, and a great part of Asia, and made irruptions into Europe, they have been known by the name of TARTARS, to which that of MONGOLS or MOGULS, of whom he was properly the prince, appeared inferior; nevertheless, the Tartars preserve among themselves the name of TURKS. Those who are Mahometans bordering on Russia, but independent of that crown, are added to robbing their neighbours: the KALMUCKS and MONGOLS are very different in their behaviour, living quietly on the produce of their soil, without doing injury to others. The Tartars of Asiatic Russia are likewise a quiet inoffensive people, living chiefly by hunting and fishing.

(2.) TARTARS, CRIM, or KRIM, the natives of the Crimea. See TARTARY, N° III.

(3.) TARTARS, CRIM, is also the name of a people of Asia, so called because they originally came from Crimea. They rove from place to place in search of pastures, their houses being drawn on carts. There are a great number of them about Afracan, to which place they flock in the winter time; but they are not permitted to enter the city: for this reason, they erect butts up and down in the open fields, which are made either of bull-rushes or reeds, being about 12 feet in diameter, of a round form, and with a hole at the top to let out the smoke. Their fuel is turf or cow-dung; and, when the weather is very cold, they cover the hut with a coarse cloth, and sometimes pass several days without stirring out. They are generally of small stature, with large faces, little eyes, and of an olive complexion. The men are generally so wrinkled in their faces, that they look like old women. Their common food is fish dried in the sun, which serves them instead of bread; and they eat the flesh of horses as well as camels. Their drink is water and milk, especially mare's milk.

milk, which they carry about in nasty leathern bags. Their garments are of a coarse grey cloth, with a loose mantle made of a black sheep's skin, and cap of the same. The women are clothed in white linen, with which likewise they dress their heads, hanging a number of Muscovian pence about them; and there is likewise a hole left to stick feathers in. As for their religion, they are a sort of Mahometans; but do not coop up their women like the Turks.

(4.) TARTARS, KALMUCK, or CALMUCK. See KALMUCKS: and TARTARY, N^o I. § ii.

(5.) TARTARS, MOGUL, or MONGUL. See MOGULS, § 1—7; and TARTARY, N^o I. § ii.

(6.) TARTARS, USBECK, a nation of Independent Tartars. The name of *Ubecks*, which the ruling tribe of the Tartars of Karafm and Great Bukharia bear, is derived from one of their khans. The Ubecks of Karafm are divided into several hordes, and live for the most part by rapine; resembling in all respects those of Great Bukharia, excepting that they are much more rude and uncivilized. The government of Karafm, the Ubecks being masters, is commonly vested in divers princes of that tribe of the same house; of whom, notwithstanding, only one has the title of *khan*, with a superiority over the others. This *khan* has no dependence on any other prince. *Bukharia* is the name given to all that region or tract of land lying between Karafm and the Great Kobi, or Sandy Desert, bordering on China. It is divided into the Great and Little Bukharia. See BUKHARIA, N^o 1—3.

(7.) TARTARS, YUPI. See TARTARY, N^o I. § i.

(8.) TARTARS, LANGUAGE OF THE. Their language is singular in this respect, that the verb differs as often as the substantive governed by it; or, to every different substantive they use a different verb. Another singularity is the copiousness of it; for besides names for each species of animals, they have words to express their several ages and qualities.

TARTARUM. See MATERIA MEDICA.

TARTARUS, in the mythology, the infernal regions, or the hell of the ancient Greeks, Romans, and Egyptians; which consisted of two divisions, the one called *Elysium*, for the reception of the virtuous; the other *Tartarus*, for that of the wicked. (See ELYSIUM, and HELL, § 3.) Tartarus was surrounded with a brazen wall, and its entrance was continually hidden from the sight by a cloud of darkness three times more gloomy than the obscurest night. Hesiod says (*Theog.* 710.) it was a prison, at a greater distance from the earth than the earth is from the heavens. Virgil says (*Æn.* vi.) it was surrounded by three impenetrable walls, and by the impetuous burning streams of the river PHLEGETHON. The entrance was by a large lofty tower, whose gates were supported by columns of adamant, which neither gods nor men could open. In Tartarus (he adds) were punished all who had been disobedient to parents, traitors, adulterers, barbarous conquerors, who undertook unjust and cruel wars, faithless ministers, &c. It was the place where TANTALUS, IXION, SISYPHUS, the DANAIDES, and other heinous offenders, were punished; (*Ovid. Met.* iv. *fab.* 13. *Hom. Odys.* xi.) and was frequented by

the FURIES, the HARPIES, and other monsters of the heathen mythology.

(1.) TARTARY, a very large country of Asia, situated between 57° and 160° Lon. E. of Ferro, and between 37° and 55° of Lat. N. It is bounded on the N. by Siberia, or that part of Asia which belongs to Russia; on the W. by the Don, Volga, and Kama, which separate it from Russia; on the S. by the Euxine and Caspian Seas, Karafm, the two Bukharias, China, and Korea; and on the E. by the Oriental or Tartarian Ocean. It extends from E. to W. 104° in lon. or 4145 geographical miles; but its breadth is not proportionable, being not above 960 miles where broadest, and where narrowest 330. Tartary, in its most extensive sense, contains all that vast country of Asia which lies between the Frozen Sea to the N. and Persia, Hindostan, and China to the S.; and includes a great variety of nations, to which is applied the general name of TARTARS or TARTARS, with a particular one often from their local situation.

(2.) TARTARS, CLASSES AND DIVISIONS OF. Mr Strahlenberg, a Swedish officer, who resided some years in Siberia, divides all Tartary into 6 classes; the first containing 7 different nations, all in the dominions of Russia; viz. the *Mordvines*, who dwell in the government of Nizhegorod; the *Tischeremisses*, or *Czeremisses*, in that of Kasan; the *Permians*, in that of Perm; the *Votiaks*, in the government of Viatka; the *Vogouls*, who dwell on both sides of the mountains which formed a separation between Russia and Siberia; the *Ostjacks*, who dwell on the coasts of the Oby; and the *Barabintzi*, who inhabit the country between Tara and Tomsk. The 2d class of Tartars includes the *Budziacks*, who dwell on the coasts of the Black Sea; the *Crim Tartars*, who inhabit the province of Taurida; the *Kuban Tartars*, on the banks of the Kuban; and the Tartars of Daghestan; the *Nogais*, or Tartars of Astracan, or Kazan, and Upha; the *Basirs*, and the Tartars about Tiumen, Tara, Tobolsk, and Tomsk; the *Ubeck Tartars*, the *Turcomans*, the *Kurguis*, the *Karakalpas*, the *Sagantzi*, who dwell near the head of the Enisei; the *Kirgis*, who occupy the mountains S. of Lake Baikal; the *Burats*; the *Arintzi*, who also inhabit near the same mountains; and the *Yabli*, more to the N. on the banks of the Lena. The 3d class includes the *Samoiedes*, on the coast of the Frozen Sea, from Archangel to the Lena. The 4th class includes the *Kalmucks* and *Monguls*, who were formerly but one people. The 5th class includes the *Mantchews* and *Tungusci*. The 6th class contains the savage nations on the NE. coast of Asia, as the *Tschuktsi*, &c. with the inhabitants of Kamtschatka and the Kurile Islands. Of these, the 1st, 3d, and 6th classes are subject to Russia; but a small part of the 2d is independent. The 4th is partly independent and partly subject to China. The 5th class is wholly subject to China. All Tartary may be divided into three parts, viz. Chinese Tartary, Independent Tartary, and Russian Tartary.

I. TARTARY, CHINESE, is bounded on the N. by Siberia, E. by the Gulf of Kamtschatka and the Eastern Sea, S. by China, and W. by the country of the Kalmucks, which lies between the

Caspian

Caspian Sea and Kashgar. The different tribes which at present inhabit it were formerly comprehended under the general name of *Mongul* or *Mogul Tartars*, a warlike and formidable nation, who, on the one hand, conquered Hindostan, under the monster JENGHIZ KHAN, (see *MOGULS*, § 1—7; *MONGULS*, and *CHINA*, § 9.) and on the other subdued China. In the 13th century the Monguls took possession of the latter empire; but after having reigned there for 100 years, they were expelled by the Chinese in 1368. (See *CHINA*, § 12.) The fugitives took different routs; some went towards the Eastern Sea, and established themselves between China and the river Saghalian; the rest returned westward to their former country, where, intermixing with the Moguls that remained, they soon resumed their ancient manner of living; those who settled towards the east, having found the country almost a desert, and without inhabitants, retained the same customs which they had brought from China: hence these two Mogul nations differ at present in language, government, religion, and customs. Those of the east retain their ancient name of *Mongul* or *Mogul Tartars*; the rest are named *Manchew* or *Eastern Tartars*. Chinese Tartary is therefore divided into two parts, *Eastern* and *Western*.

I. **TARTARY, EASTERN CHINESE**, extends N. and S. from 41° to 55° of lat. N., and E. and W. from about 137° of lon. as far as the Eastern Sea. It is bounded on the N. by Siberia, S. by the Gulf of Leao-tong and Corea, E. by the Eastern Sea, and W. by the country of the Monguls. The Tartars who retired hither after their expulsion from China, in 1368, immediately began to build cities, towns, and villages, and to cultivate the earth, after the manner of the Chinese, among whom they had lived: hence the greater part of them have remained fixed, and are much more civilized than the rest of the Monguls. They were at first governed by particular khans, each independent of the other; but since that of Ninguta (who was the most powerful among them) took possession of China, about the middle of the 17th century, the late emperor, Kien Long, who was his descendant, reduced under his dominion all the other khans of this part of Tartary. The present emperor governs it immediately by himself, and sends thither governors and officers, as into all the other provinces of the empire. The country of the Manchew Tartars is divided into three grand departments: CHINYANG or *Shin-yang*, KIRIN, and TCHITCAR or *Tschitar*. 1. The government of *Shin-yang*, containing all the ancient Lyau-tong or Quan-tong, is bounded on the S. by the great wall of China and the Yellow Sea; on the E. N. and W. it is inclosed by a wooden palisade, 3 feet high. The lands of this province are very fertile, producing plenty of wheat, millet, roots, and cotton; with pasture to great numbers of sheep and oxen; also plenty of apples, pears, nuts, filberds, and chestnuts. The principal places are Shin-yang or Mugden, Fong-whang, Inden, Ichew, and King-chew. This country was the original seat of the Tartar tribe of the Manchews, who have been masters of China above 100 years. 2. The government of *Kirin* is bounded W. by Lyau-tong, E.

by the Eastern Ocean, S. by the Corea, and N. by the Saghalian; so that it extends no fewer than 12° and almost 20° in lon. being 750 miles long and 600 broad. This vast country abounds in millet and oats, with an excellent grain unknown in Europe, called *may-sem-mi*, of a middle kind between wheat and rice. It is much used. The banks of the rivers are adorned with a variety of flowers common in Europe: the yellow lilies are of a most lively colour, resembling our white lilies, but of a much weaker scent. But the plant most esteemed is the *gin-feng*, called by the Manchews *orbota*, or the *queen of plants*. (See *PANAX*, N° 3.) It is highly valued for its virtues in curing several diseases, and has always been the principal riches of Eastern Tartary. This country abounds also in fine fables, grey ermines, and black foxes. The manners of the YUPI TARTARS, one of the tribes inhabiting this country, are somewhat extraordinary. All the summer they spend in fishing: one part of what they catch is laid up to make oil for their lamps; another serves for their daily food; and the rest, which they dry in the sun, without salting, is laid up for their winter's provisions, for both men and cattle. Their raiment consists of the skins of fish, which, after dressing and dyeing of three or four colours, they shape and sew in a very delicate manner, with an exceeding fine thong, cut out of a thin skin. In winter, their sledges are drawn by dogs trained for the purpose. This country contains only four cities, viz. *Kirimula*, *Petuna*, *Ninguta*, and *Putayula*, which are ill built, and encompassed with mud walls. The first stands on the river Songari, and is the residence of the Manchew general, who acts as viceroy. Ninguta, which the family now reigning in China considers as its ancient patrimony, is situated on the *Hukapira*, which runs N. into the *Songari*. The government of TCHITCAR is 740 miles long and 600 broad, and belongs partly to China and partly to Russia. The people are great hunters, dexterous archers, and pay their tribute in fable-skins. This province is inhabited by three tribes, the *Manchews*, the *Solons*, and *Tuguri*, of whom the first are masters. The *Tuguri* are a large robust people, but not very numerous. They live in houses or huts, and cultivate barley, oats, and millet. Their cattle are principally horses, dromedaries, oxen, cows, and sheep. They use their oxen to ride on. The *Solons* also are a brave robust people. Their dress is a short jacket and cap of wolves skins, and long cloaks made of fox or tigers skins. The women ride on horseback, drive the plough, hunt fags, &c. There are three cities in Tschitar, viz. Tschitar, the capital, Merghen, and Saghalian Ula. The garrison of Tschitar consists of Manchews; but the inhabitants are mostly Chinese.

ii. **TARTARY, WESTERN CHINESE, or MONGUL TARTARY**, is bounded on the N. by Siberia, E. by Eastern Chinese Tartary, S. by the great wall and Leao-tong, and W. by Independent Tartary. It was partly from the bosom of these dry deserts that those bloody conquerors issued who made all Asia tremble. The Mongul nation is subdivided into a multitude of others, who all speak the same language, generally called the Mongul

Mongol language, though they have several different dialects, but which they all understand. These Tartars have neither towns, villages, nor houses; they form themselves into wandering hordes, and live under plain tents, which they transport from one place to another, according as the temperature of the seasons, or the wants of their flocks require: they pass the summer on the banks of their rivers, and the winter at the bottom of some mountain or hill, which shelters them from the sharp north wind. Each of these tribes has its respective limits, and it would be an act of hostility towards their neighbours to go beyond them; but they are at full liberty to encamp wherever they choose within the circumference assigned them. The Moguls are free, open, and sincere. They pride themselves chiefly on their dexterity in handling the bow and arrow, mounting on horseback, and hunting wild beasts. Polygamy is permitted among them; but they generally have only one wife. The skins which they use for clothing are generally those of their sheep: they wear the wool inmost, and the skin on the outside. They are very well acquainted with the art of preparing and whitening these skins. Some of the higher ranks use the skins of stags, dogs, or wild goats, of which they make dresses for spring; but these skins always exhale a disagreeable smell, on which account they are called by the Chinese *Tsing-fu-tse, Sinking Tartars*. The religion of the Mogul Tartars is confined to the worship of Fo. They have the most superstitious veneration for the lamas. All the Moguls are governed by khans, or particular princes, independent one of the other, but all under the authority of the emperor of China, whom they consider as the grand khan of the Tartars. When the Manchews subdued China, they conferred on the most powerful of the Mogul princes the titles of *vang, peilé, peiré, and cong*, which answer to our titles of *king, duke, count, and marquis*: each of them had a revenue assigned him, but far inferior to the appointments of the Manchew lords at Peking: the emperor settled the limits of their respective territories, and appointed them laws, according to which they are at present governed: these tributary khans have not the power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions; these two cases of death and confiscation are reserved for the supreme tribunal established at Peking for the affairs of the Moguls, to which every individual may appeal from the sentence of his prince, who is obliged to appear in person whenever he is cited. All the Mogul nations under the Chinese government may be divided into four principal tribes, which are the Moguls, properly so called, the Kalkas, Ortous, and the Tartars of Kokonor. According to the map of Chinese Tartary, the country of the Moguls extends more than 900 miles from E. to W. and 600 from N. to S. It is inclosed between the country of the Ortous, the great wall, Eastern Tartary, and the country of the Kalkas. These people compose 49 *ti*, or standards; every standard comprehends a number of companies, each of which consists of 150 heads of families; and as these families are generally numerous, each company may contain 5000 individuals. Besides these 49 standards, there

are five others, under the immediate government of the emperor of China, and commanded by officers whom he sends thither. The *Kalkas* (who formerly composed a numerous tribe, consisting of more than 600,000 families), inhabit N. of the Mogul Tartars. Their country stretches as far as the kingdom of the Eluths, is near 900 miles in extent from E. to W. In this region was formerly situated, in 45° lat. N. the city of Karakun, the seat of the empire of Jenghiz khan, and that of his successors. The Kalkas live under tents, on the banks of the rivers which water their country; that of Kalka-pira (though one of the smallest, and at present one of the least frequented) has given its name to the whole nation. The most considerable of these rivers are the Kenlon, Toulou, and Selengué. The vast desert which the Chinese call *Chamo*, and the Tartars *Cobi*, occupies almost all the S. part of the country of the Kalkas. A war which the king of the Eluths carried on in 1628 against the Kalkas, almost destroyed the whole nation. To avoid the pursuit of a superior enemy, they begged the assistance of the Chinese, and offered to submit to the emperor. Kang-hi undertook their defence, conquered the king of the Eluths, and kept the Kalka Tartars under his dominion, after having conferred upon their princes different titles of honour. These people have among them one of those grand lamas called *hou toulou*, whom they consider as so many living Foes: he is lodged under a large tent, and shows himself to the public, lying on a kind of altar, where he receives the adoration of all the Tartars. The *hou toulou* is however but a lama of the second order; for the lama who resides in Thibet is acknowledged his superior, (see LAMA, N° 1.): the latter is generally considered as the high priest and supreme chief of the Tartar religion. The country of the Ortous (who inhabit to the north of the great wall, and to the Moguls, properly so called) is 210 leagues in extent from E. to W. and 70 from N. to S. These people are divided into six standards, which comprehend 166 companies, each composed of 150 heads of families. The *Ortous* are of a free disposition, extremely lively, and never subject to melancholy; they may be justly called the *French of Tartary*. The Tartars of Kokonor (who are Eluths or Kalmucks by nation, and who are at present subjects of the emperor) occupy an extensive country to the W. of China and the province of Chen-si, whence they are separated by lofty mountains. They take their name from a lake in this country, called in their language *Kokonor* or *Kokonor*, which is one of the largest of Tartary. They are subject to eight princes, who are each independent of the other, and who are all of the race of the khan of the Eluth Tartars. These people derive their principal riches from the gold which is found mixed with the sand of their rivers, and above all, with that of Altangkol, or the Golden River. The gold dust which it furnishes is the principal revenue of the princes of Kokonor, who employ their vassals during summer in collecting it. One of the principal articles of the trade of Kokonor is a kind of napped woollen stuff, called *pos-hu*. It is manufactured by these Tartars, who have the art of dyeing it of different colours. The Chinese empire

empire has been lately extended into Tartary, by the celebrated conquest of the kingdom of the Eluths, made in 1759, by the emperor Kien-long. The whole nation of the Eluths, who in Europe and Russia are named KALMUCKS, may be divided into 3 branches, which have all proceeded from the same stem. (See KALMUCKS.) The most westerly (who at present are most powerful and numerous) occupy the country contained between the Caspian Sea, Russia, Samarcand, and Kashgar. The 2d division of the Eluths inhabit to the E. The country is bounded on the N. by Russia, and on the S. by the territories of the Usbeck Tartars. These are the people whom Tien-long obliged to submit to the Chinese government. The 3d branch of the Eluths inhabit to the W. of China, named the *Tartars of Kokonor*, who, for a long time have been subjects of the empire. (See KOKONOR.) Besides these tribes, there are others, who possess that part of Western Tartary called TURKESTAN, the original country of the Turks and Turkmans, on the N. of Great Bukharia and Karazm, between those countries and the dominions of the Eluths. Under Western Tartary also is comprehended TIBET, THIBET, or Tobbut, subjected to the Dalay Lama, or great high-priest of the Pagan Tartars and Chinese. In all the vast region of Western Tartary, there are but few towns, most of the inhabitants living under tents, especially in summer, moving from place to place with their flocks and herds, and generally encamping near some river. The air is temperate, wholesome, and pleasant, being equally removed from the extremities of heat and cold.

II. TARTARY, INDEPENDENT, includes all the country between Chinese Tartary and the Caspian Sea, and contains TURKESTAN, GREAT and LITTLE BUKHARIA, TURCOMANIA, KARAZM, THIBET, and some other countries and provinces, inhabited by the USBECKS and KALMUCKS. See these articles.

III. TARTARY, RUSSIAN, or CRIM TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, the ancient TAURICA CHERSONESUS, a peninsula of Asia, bounded on the S. and W. by the Black Sea; on the N. by the province of Catharinenslaß, with which it communicates by the isthmus of Perekop; and on the S. by the sea of Asoph and the strait of Caffa. It was early distinguished by its extraordinary fertility and commercial advantages. Long before the time of Herodotus, its S. coast was occupied by Greek settlers, who built several towns in it. These Greeks became tributary to the Scythians, who were afterwards driven from the country by Mithridates VII. king of Pontus. On his defeat and death, it became tributary to the Romans. It was successively ravaged by the Sarmatæ, the Alani, the Goths (who made an establishment in the mountains to the S.), the Huns, and the Khazari. Toward the end of the 11th century, the Genoese settled in this country; but they were expelled by the Tartars in 1474. These Tartars had been settled in the Crimea above two centuries before the expulsion of the Genoese. They were subjects of Batu Khan, grandson of Jenghis; and their conquest was annexed to the kingdom of Kafan, till the death of Tamerlane, in 1405,

when Edegai Khan, an officer of that prince, took possession of it, and was succeeded by Deulet Gherai, in whose family the sovereignty continued till the 18th century. The khans, however, were vassals, or tributary to the Turks, till 1774, when their independence was stipulated in the treaty of Caimargi. In 1783 the Russians took possession of the country with an army; in 1784 it was ceded to them by the Turks; and the peaceable possession of the whole was secured to them in 1791, by the cession of the fortrefs of OCZAKOW. The Crimea is divided into two parts, by mountains which run E. and W. The N. division is flat, poor, and fit for pasturage only. In the S. parts, the valleys are astonishingly productive, and the climate extremely mild, from the exclusion of the violent winds by which the N. division is frequently incommoded. The lower hills, extending from CAFFA to the E. extremity of the country, are principally used in gardening, and produce excellent fruit. Achmetfied was made the capital in 1785. Beside the ports of Kerth and Jenikalé, the road of Caffa, and the harbour of Baluclava, there is, near Sebastapol, one of the finest harbours of the world, secured from all winds, sufficiently capacious to admit large fleets, with a depth of water for ships of any burden. The Crimea now forms one of the two provinces of the government of CATHARINENSLE, under the name of TAURIDA. In some late maps it is called TAURICA. See these articles.

IV. TARTARY, USBECK, is a part of Independent Tartary. On the N. and NE. of Persia lie the countries of Karafin, and Great and Little Bukharia, which being mostly subject to and inhabited by the tribe of Usbeck Tartars, are commonly named *Usbeck Tartary*. The kingdom of Karafin was known to the ancient Greeks, as appears from Herodotus, Ptolemy, and others, by the name of *Khorasmia*. At present it is bounded on the N. by the countries of Turkestan, and of the Eluths or Kalmucks; on the E. by Great Bukharia, from which it is separated partly by the mountains of Irdar, and the deserts of Karak and Gaznah; on the S. by the Persian provinces of Astarabad and Khorasan, from which it is divided by Jihun or Amu, and extensive deserts; and on the W. by the Caspian. It is about 440 miles long from S. to N. and 300 broad from W. to E.; being situated between 39° and 46° lat. N. and 71° and 77° lon. E. It consists of vast sandy plains, some of which are barren deserts, but others afford excellent pasture. In several provinces vines grow, and wine is made; but water is scarce. It owes all its fertility to 3 rivers and a lake. The rivers are the AMU, *Khefil*, and SIR. The Amu, as it is called by the Usbecks and Persians, is the JIHON of the Arabs, and OXUS of the ancient Greeks. It rises in those high mountains which separate Little Bukharia from the dominions of the Great Mogul; and, after passing through Great Bukharia and Karafin, divides into two branches, one of which falls into Khefil, and the other into the Caspian Sea, towards the province of Astarabad. The Amu abounds with excellent fish, and along its banks grow those excellent melons and other fruit trees so much esteemed in Persia, the Indies, and Russia. The

Khefil rises in the mountains NE. of Samarkand, and falls into the lake of Aral or Bagles, 50 or 60 miles below its junction with the Amu. Its banks are exceedingly fertile. The *Sir* or *Daria* rises in the mountains E. of Little Bukharia, and after a long course W. along the borders of Bukharias and Karafin, falls into the lake Aral. See *SIR*, N° 5. Karafin is inhabited by the Sarts, TURKMANS, and Usbecks Tartars. 1. The Sarts are the ancient inhabitants of the country, who were settled there before the Usbecks became masters of it; and they live by their cattle and husbandry. The Turkmans or Turkomans came originally from TURKESTAN, in the 11th century.

(3.) TARTARY, MOUNTAINS OF. The principal mountains, or rather chains of mountains, found in the W. part of Great Tartary, may be divided into 3 classes: 1. Those which run along the N. borders of it, and go under the general name of *Ulag Tag*, or *Dag*, that is, the *Great Mountain*. 2. Those which make the S. bounds, and are called *Kichug Tag*, or the *Lesser Mountain*. The 3d great chain is called *Altai*, lying nearly in the middle, between the Caspian Sea and Eastern Tartary, and extending between the other two, in about 110° lon. (See MOUNTAIN, § 2.)

(4.) TARTARY, PRODUCTIONS, ANTIQUITIES, MANUFACTURES, &c. OF. In the middle of a desert, on the banks of the Irtysh, is a remarkable piece of antiquity called *Sedmy Palaty*, or the *seven palaces*. Above Sedmy Palaty, towards the source of the Irtysh, grows the best rhubarb in the world, without any culture. In the plain of this country also, about 8 or 10 days journey from Tomsky in Siberia, are found many tombs and burying-places of ancient heroes who are supposed to have fallen in battle. These tombs are easily distinguished by the mounds of earth and stone raised over them. For the manners and customs of these Tartars, See KALMUCKS.

(5.) TARTARY, RIVERS, LAKES, &c. OF. The principal rivers besides the Dnieper, Don, and Volga, are the *Jaik* or *Yaik*, and *Yem*, both descending from the *Ulag Tag*, and falling into the Caspian Sea on the N. side of the river *Ili* or *Kheuglis*, which rises out of the *Kichug Tag*, on the borders of Little Bukharia, and runs NW. into the lake Palkasi, which is about 40 miles long, and 30 broad, in lat. 48°, lon. 97°, E. of Ferro: on this river the khan of the Eluths or Kalmucks usually resides; the Irtysh, which rises in the Altaic Mount, and runs W. inclining to the N. between 2 branches of it, into the lake *Sayfan*, *Saflan*, or *Ijan*, called also *Ilanhotu-Nor*, 90 miles long from W. to E. and 40 broad, in lat. 47° 30', lon. 104°; whence issuing again, it runs NW. through part of Siberia, and falls into the Oby. (See OBY.) On the NE. rises the *Kren* or *Jenfa*, which runs W. for 7° or 8°, and then turning N. enters Siberia. The next river of note is the *SELENGA*, which rises out of the lake *Kosogol*, or *Klyutku*, which is 70 miles long from S. to N. and 20 broad, in lat. 52°, lon. 118°, near the source of the *Jenfa*, and taking a sweep southward, round by the E. falls northward into lake Baykal, in Siberia, about 90 miles NW. of the city Selinghinskoy, which stands upon it. Into the Selenga runs the Orkon, from the

SW.; and into the Orkon the Tula, rising E. in Mount-Kentey; on which rises also two other rivers, viz. the *Onon*, called also by the Tartars *SAGHALIAN ULA*, or the *Dragon river*, and by the Russians *AMUR*; which runs NE. and then taking a large sweep by the S. rolls along the bounds of Eastern Tartary, and falls into the Eastern Ocean. On its banks stand two cities; *Nerchinskoy*, or *Nipkelew*, a frontier of the Russians, almost due N. of Pekin in China; and *Saghalian Ula*, possessed by the Chinese. Another large river is the *Kerlen*, or *Kirelen*, which running NE. falls into the lake *Kulon*, or *Isalay*, which is 60 miles long from SW. to NE. and 27 broad, in lat. 48° 30', longitude 135°, and issuing out again under the name of *Ergona* or *Argun*, joins the Saghalian Ula, about 170 miles beyond Nerchinskoy. (See ARGUN, N° 2.) The *Kalka*, from whence, though small, the *Kalka Moguls*, or MONGOLS, take their name, rises in the mountains, separating Eastern from Western Tartary, and, running E. falls into the lake Puir, and then into that of Kulon.

(6.) TARTARY, SOIL, PRODUCE, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISH, &c. OF. Though there are many mountains, lakes, and deserts in it, yet the banks of the rivers, and the plains, some of which are of great extent, and exceedingly fertile. The mountains, woods, and deserts, abound with venison, game, and wild fowls; and the rivers and lakes with fish and fowls. There are also wild mules, or *hamoni*, (see EQUUS, N° IV.) horses, and dromedaries, wild boars, several kinds of deer, a species of goats with yellow hair, squirrels, foxes; an animal called *kauchan*, resembling an elk; another called *chulen*, or *chelson*, a sort of lynx; and a creature called *TAELE*, as small as an ermine, of whose skins the Chinese make mantles to keep out the cold. Among other birds of extraordinary beauty, bred in this country, there is one called the *Jenkor*, which is all over white except the beak, wings, and tail, which are a very fine red. Notwithstanding the soil in many parts of Tartary is so luxuriant, yet it does not produce a single wood of tall trees of any kind whatever, excepting in some few places towards the frontiers; all the wood that is found in the country consisting of shrubs, which never exceed the height of a pike, and even these are rare.

(1.) TARTAS, a town of France, in the dep. of Landes, and ci devant prov. of Gascony. The Midouze runs through it. The part on the right bank of this river is in the form of an amphitheatre. The other part is a plain. It is 12 miles NE. of Dax, 15 WSW. of Mont de Marfan, and 36 NE. of Bayonne. Lon. o. 48. W. Lat. 43. 50. N.

(2.) TARTAS, a river of Russia, which runs into the Om, near Tartaskoi.

TARTASKOI, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, at the junction of the Om and the Tartas; 49 miles WSW. of Kainak.

(1.) TARTESSUS. See TARSHISH.

(2.) TARTESSUS, an ancient town of Spain, near the pillars of Hercules; afterwards called *Cartia*, and *Gades*.

(3.) TARTESSUS, a name of Gades. See GADES.

(4-6.) TARTESSUS, a town, island, and river of Iberia, near Gades. *Lemp.*

TARTINI, Joseph, a celebrated Italian musician born at Piasco, in Istria, in 1692. He became so capital a performer on the violin, that he was appointed master of the band in the famous church of St Anthony. He published several valuable tracts on music; and is styled by Dr Burney the *Admirable*. He died 1770.

* **TARTLY**, *adv.* [from *tart.*] 1. Sharply; sourly; with acidity. 2. Sharply; with poignancy; with severity.—Seneca was by Caligula tartly called *arena sine calce*, sand without lime. *Walker*. 3. With founts of aspect—

How tartly that gentleman looks.

* **TARTNESS**, *n. f.* [from *tart.*] 1. Sharpness; sourness; acidity.—Of these sweets put in three gallons, more or less as the tartness of your cyder requires. *Mortimer*. 2. Sourness of temper; poignancy of language.—They cannot be too sweet for the king's tartness. *Shak.*

TARTRIS, } *n. f.* in chemistry, a salt formed by the combination of the

TARTAROUS ACID, with an alkaline, earthy, or metallic basis. "Though Tartarous Acid."

(says the ingenious Dr Thomson, in his *Syst. of Chem.* vol. II. p. 411.) "was first obtained by Scheele in a separate state, several of the tartrites had been previously examined, having been formed partly by decomposing tartar, and partly by combining it with other bases. Since the discovery of pure tartarous acid, they have been examined by Retzius, Von Pachen, and Thenart. They have the following properties: 1. When exposed to a red heat, the acid is decomposed, and the base remains, generally in the state of carbonate. 2. The earthy tartrites are nearly insoluble in water; the alkaline are soluble; but they combine with an excess of acid, and are converted into *Super-tartrites*, much less soluble than the tartrites. 3. When boiled with sulphuric acid, the tartarous acid is separated, and may be detected, by dropping in a solution of potash. Tartar precipitates in small gritty crystals like sand. 4. All the tartrites are capable of combining with another base, and forming *TRIPLE SALTS*." Of these salts Dr Thomson enumerates 16 species, besides those with bases of metallic oxides, in the following order: Tartrites, 1. of lime; 2. barytes; 3. strontian; 4. potash; 5. super-tartrite of potash; 6. tartrite of potash and lime; 7. of potash and barytes; 8. of potash and strontian; 9. of soda; 10. of potash and soda; 11. of ammonia; 12. of potash and ammonia; 13. of magnesia; 14. of potash and magnesia; 15. of alumina; 16. of potash and alumina. These, with a few of the metallic tartrites, we shall describe in their order.

1. "**TARTRITE OF ALUMINA** does not crystallize, but forms by evaporation a clear transparent gummy mass. Its taste is astringent. It is soluble in water. It does not deliquesce in the air."

2. "**TARTRITE OF AMMONIA**. The crystals are polygonous prisms. It has a cooling bitter taste like that of nitre. It is very soluble in water. Heat decomposes it. It combines with an excess of acid, and forms a super-tartrite almost insoluble in water as tartar."

3. "**TARTRITE OF BARYTES** may be formed

by the same process as **TARTRITE OF LIME**, (No. 6.) and, like it, is an insoluble white powder."

4. "**TARTRITE OF COPPER**. Tartarous acid has but little action on copper, but dissolves its oxide; and when poured into the sulphat or muriat of copper, it precipitates a tartrite in the form of blue crystals. Leonhardi says, this salt forms the best kind of the pigment called *Bruswick Green*."

5. "**TARTRITE OF COPPER, TRIPLE**, may be obtained by boiling together oxide of copper and tartar in water. The solution yields by evaporation blue crystals, which have a sweetish taste, and contain a great proportion of metal."

6. "**TARTRITE OF LIME** may be formed by dissolving lime in tartarous acid; or by dissolving tartar in boiling water, and adding to the solution lime in powder, till it ceases to produce effervescence, and to redden vegetable blues. It precipitates in the form of a white powder; tasteless, insoluble in water, but soluble in an excess of tartarous acid. It is decomposed by sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids, but by no earths or alkalies."

7. "**TARTRITE OF MAGNESIA**, is insoluble in water, unless there be an excess of acid present. It then affords by evaporation small crystals in the form of hexangular truncated pyramids. It has a more saline taste, and is more soluble than tartrite of lime, (No. 6.) Heat first melts, and then decomposes it."

8. **TARTRITE OF MANGANESE**. See *CHEMISTRY*, § 835.

9. "**TARTRITE OF MERCURY**. Tartarous acid does not attack mercury, but it dissolves its oxide, and forms with it an insoluble white salt; which soon becomes yellow, when exposed to the air. This salt precipitates also when tartarous acid is poured into nitrate of mercury."

10. "**TARTRITE OF MERCURY, TRIPLE**, first described by Monnet, may be formed by boiling in water 6 parts of tartar, and one of oxide of mercury. The liquid, when evaporated, yields small crystals of Tartrite of Potash and Mercury. Thenart has ascertained, that the same triple salt may be formed, by mixing together the solutions of tartar and mercurial nitrat. This salt is decomposed by the alkalies, the alkaline carbonates, the hydro-sulphurets, the sulphats, and the muriats."

11. "**TARTRITE OF POTASS**, formerly named *Soluble Tartar*, is usually prepared by adding at intervals tartar in powder to a hot solution of carbonate of potash, till all effervescence ceases. The solution is then boiled, and afterwards evaporated, till a pellicle forms on its surface. On cooling, the tartrite crystallizes in flat four-sided rectangular prisms, terminated by dihedral summits. It has an unpleasant bitter taste. Its specific gravity is 1.5567. It is soluble in four parts cold water, and still more so in hot. When heated it melts, swells up, blackens, and is decomposed."

12. "**Super-TARTRITE OF POTASS, or TARTAR**," is the original *Tartar*, which gives name to the whole class. "This salt is obtained, in a state of impurity, incruited on the bottom and sides

sides of casks in which wine has been kept. It is afterwards purified by dissolving it in boiling water, and filtering it while hot. On cooling, it deposits the pure salt in very irregular crystals. In this state it is sold under the name of *CRYSTALS OF CREAM OF TARTAR*. This salt attracted the peculiar attention of chemists, probably in consequence of the extravagant encomiums and invectives bestowed on it by PARACELSUS. It is called *tartar*, says he, because it produces the oil, water, tincture, and salt, which burn the patient as *bell* does. According to him, it is the principle of every disease and every remedy, and all things contain the germ of it. This ridiculous theory was combated by Van Helmont, who gives a pretty accurate account of the formation of tartar in wine casks. It was known to Van Helmont, and even to his predecessors, that POTASS could be obtained from tartar; but it was long a disputed point, whether that alkali existed ready formed. Dubamel, Margraff, and Rouelle, at last established that point beyond a doubt; but the other component parts of tartar were unknown or very imperfectly known, till Scheele pointed out the method of extracting it. The crystals of tartar are very small and irregular. According to Monnet, they are prisms somewhat flat, and mostly with 6 sides. Tartar has an acid, and rather unpleasant taste. It is very brittle, and easily reduced to powder. Its specific gravity is 1.953. It is soluble in about 60 parts of cold water, and in about 30 of boiling water. It is not altered by exposure to the air, but when its solution in water is allowed to remain for some time, the salt is gradually decomposed, a mucous matter is deposited, and there remains in solution carbonate of potash, coloured with a little oil. This decomposition was first accurately described by Berthollet in 1782. When tartar is heated, it melts, swells, blackens, and the acid is entirely decomposed. The same changes take place, when the salt is distilled in close vessels. The phenomena of this distillation have been described with great care, and its products very attentively examined by chemists; because, before the discovery of the tartarous acid by Scheele, distillation was the only method thought of, for obtaining any knowledge of the acid part of tartar. These products are an enormous quantity of gas, consisting of carbonic acid, and carbonic hydrogen, an oil, and an acid; and according to some chemists, *Carbonat of Ammonia*. The acid obtained was long considered as a peculiar body, and was denominated *PYRO-TARTAROUS ACID* by the French chemists, in 1787. (See *CHEMISTRY, Index*.) But Fourcroy and Vauquelin have lately demonstrated, that it is no other than *acetic acid* contaminated with a little *empyreumatic oil*. TARTAR, says Bergman, is composed of 77 acid, 23 potash; or of 56 tartrite of potash, 44 tartarous acid. Thenart's analysis makes its component parts, 57 acid, 35 potash, and 8 water."

13. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND ALUMINA. This triple salt is formed by saturating tartar with alumina. It bears a very striking resemblance to the TARTRITE OF ALUMINA. (See N° 1.) Thenart observed, that no precipitate is produced in

this salt, either by the addition of alkalies or their carbonats."

14. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND AMMONIA. This triple salt may be formed by pouring ammonia into *acidulous Tartrite of Potash*." (See *CHEMISTRY, Index*.) "Its crystals, says Macquer, are prisms with 4, 5, or 6 sides; according to the Dijon Academicians, parallelopipeds, with 2 alternate sloping sides. It has a cooling taste; is soluble in water; effloresces in air. Heat decomposes it."

15. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND BARYTES. This triple salt may be formed in the same way" with the following:

16. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND LIME. This salt was first pointed out by Thenart. It may be formed by pouring lime water into the solution of tartrite of potash till a precipitate begins to appear, and then allowing the liquid to evaporate spontaneously. The triple salt gradually attaches itself to the sides of the vessel in crystals."

17. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND MAGNESIA. This triple salt, first examined by the Dijon Academicians, may be formed by dissolving magnesia, or its carbonate in tartar. The solution, according to them, yields, by evaporation, needle-form crystals; but, according to Thenart, it does not crystallize; and when evaporated to dryness, it deliquesces."

18. TARTRITE OF POTASS AND MERCURY. See N° 10.

19. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND SODA. This salt is usually prepared by putting one part of tartar in 5 parts of boiling water, and adding gradually carbonate of soda in powder, as long as it produces an effervescence. The tartar gradually dissolves. When the saturation is complete, the solution is filtered and evaporated to the consistence of a syrup. On cooling, the tartrite of potash and soda crystallizes. This salt has been distinguished by the name of *Salt of Seignette*, because it was first formed and introduced into medicine by M Seignette, an apothecary at Rochelle. This gentleman recommended it in a tract published in 1672. It was soon after introduced into practice at Paris by LEMERY, and, becoming a fashionable medicine, made the fortune of the discoverer. For some time its composition was kept secret; but Boulduc and Geoffroy discovered its component parts in 1731. Its prisms are crystals of 8 or 10 unequal sides, having their ends truncated at right angles. They are generally divided into two in the direction of their axes; and the base on which they stand is marked with 2 diagonal lines, so as to divide it into 4 triangles. It has a bitter taste. It is almost as soluble as TARTRITE OF POTASS." (See N° 11.) It effloresces when exposed to the air. Heat decomposes it. According to the analysis of Vauquelin, it is composed of 54 parts tartrite of potash, and 46 tartrite of soda."

20. "TARTRITE OF POTASS AND STRONTIAN. This triple salt may be formed the same way with the tartrite of potash and barytes," and the tartrite of potash and lime. (See N° 15 and 16.) They have been all pointed out by Thenart, but their properties are still undescribed."

21. TARTRITE

21. **TARTRITE OF SILVER.** See **SILVER**, § 16, N° xviii.

22. **TARTRITE OF SILVER, TRIPLE.** See **SILVER**, § 16, N° xix.

23. " **TARTRITE OF SODA** may be formed by dissolving soda in tartarous acid. It crystallizes in fine needles. Its specific gravity is 1.7437. This salt is also capable of combining with an excess of acid, and forming a *Super-tartrate of Soda*, which is nearly as insoluble in water as tartar." See **SALT**, § 1, 21.

24. " **TARTRITE OF STRONTIAN.** This salt, first examined by Dr HOPE, and afterwards by Vauquelin, may be formed by dissolving strontian in tartarous acid, or by mixing together solutions of nitrat of strontian and tartrate of potash. Its crystals are small regular triangular tables, having the edges and angles sharp and well defined. It is insipid. It dissolves in 320 parts of boiling water. It is composed of 47.12 parts acid and water, and 51.88 strontian."

TARTURA, a town of Palestine, near the coast of the Mediterranean; 10 miles S. of Acre.

TARUANA, an ancient town of Gaul, now called **TERROUEN**.

(1.) **TARUDANT**, a city of Morocco, the capital of Sus. See **SUS**, N° 1, and **TARODANT**. It is 43 miles ESE. of Santa Cruz, and 110 SSW. of Morocco.

(2.) **TARUDANT**, a district of Morocco, in Sus, at the extremity of the empire, of which the above city is the capital. It contains several other towns, which are well built with stone.

TARVES, a parish of Aberdeenshire, 9 miles long, and 6 broad, watered by the Ythan. The surface is mostly level, with a few low hills. The soil is partly deep, partly shallow, but in general fertile. About 100 acres are under plantations, in 1793, the population was 1690: the decrease 666, since 1755. The only mansion house is *Shives*, the seat of Hugh Middleton, Esq.

TARUFFI, Emilius, an eminent Italian painter, born at Brescia, in 1632. His landscapes and historical pieces were much admired, as well as his choice of scenery. He died in 1694.

TARVIS, or **TARWIS**, a town of Germany, in Carinthia; 28 miles WSW. of Clagenfurt, and 46 NNW. of Treft. It was taken by the French republicans, after a bloody battle, in which the Austrians were defeated, on the 23d March, 1797.

TARVISIUM, an ancient town of Italy, now called **TREVISO**.

TARNTIUS, SPURINA, Lucius, a celebrated mathematician, who flourished about A. A. C. 61. *Gr. ad div. iii. c. 47.*

TARURAW, a town of the United States, in Georgia; 14 miles N. of Tugeloo.

TARUS, a river of Gaul, running into the Po.

TARUSA, a town of Russia, in Kaluga.

TARUSATES, an ancient people of Gaul, who inhabited the country now called Turfan. *Ces. de Bel. Gal. iii. 23.*

TARUSCUM, an ancient town of Gaul.

TASCHOW, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz; 5 miles of Leitmeritz.

TASCHTER, in the mythology of the Hindoos and Persians. See **DELUGE**, § 6.

TASHKUND, or **THASHKAND**, a town of Tur-

kestan, on the Sir, 210 miles N. of Samercand. It has been often destroyed and rebuilt. Lon. 64. 45. E. Lat. 42. 40. N.

TASHKUPRI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 14 miles SE. of Castamena.

TASIEVA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Tchiума; 20 miles NW. of Tasievskoi.

TASIEVSKOI, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoe; 820 miles E. of Tobolsk, and 448 ENE. of Koli-van.

* **TASK.** *n. f.* [*tasche*, French; *taska*, Italian.]

1. Something to be done imposed by another.—
Relieves me from my *task* of servile toil.

Milton.

2. Employment; business.—His mental powers were equal to greater *tasks*. *Atterbury.*—
No happier *task* these faded eyes pursue. *Pope.*

3. To take to **TASK**. To reprove; to reprimand;—A holy man took a soldier to *task* upon his profession. *L'Estrange.*—He discovered some remains of his nature, for which Sir Roger took him to *task*. *Addison.*

* To **TASK**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To burthen with something to be done.—
Like to a harvestman, that's *tasked* to mow.

Shak.

Some things of weight,
That *task* our thoughts? *Shak.*

—I dare not *task* my weakness any more. *Shak.*—
Divert thy thoughts at home,

There *task* thy maids. *Dryden.*

* **TASKER.** } *n. f.* [*task* and *master*. One

* **TASKMASTER.** } who imposes tasks.—

Ever in my great *taskmaster's* eye. *Milton.*
—The service of sin is perfect slavery; and he who will pay obedience to it, shall find it an unreasonable *taskmaster*. *South.*—

Hear, ye *taskers* of the dead. *Dryd. and Lee.*

TAS-KUJE, a town of Persia, in Laristan; 84 miles NE. of Lar.

TASLUI, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Sirek, near Adzud, in Moldavia.

TASPOULSAEN, a town of Chinese Tartary, in Hami. Lon. 113. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 40. 12. N.

TASSACORTA, or } a sea-port town of the
TASSACRODA, } Canary Islands on the
W. coast of Palma. Lon. 17. 58. W. Lat. 28. 37. N.

TASSASUDON, a city of Asia, capital of Bootan; 206 miles SW. of Lassa, and 242. NE. of Patna. Lon. 89. 12. E. Lat. 27. 45. N.

(1.) * **TASSEL.** *n. f.* [*taffe*, French; *tassellus*, low Latin.] An ornamental bunch of silk, or glittering substances.—

Then took the squire an horn of bugle small,
Which hung adown his side in twisted gold,

And *tassels* gay. *Spenser.*

—Their heads are tricked with *tassels*. *Sandys.*

(2.) * **TASSEL.** *n. f.* [*carduus*, *fullonius*.] An herb. See **TEAZEL**. *Ainsworth.*

(3.) **TASSEL** or **TEAZEL**, in botany. See **DIPSACUS**.

(4.) **TASSELS**, in building, are those pieces of board that lie under the ends of the mantlet trees.

* **TASSELLED.** *adj.* [from *tassel*.] Adorned with tassels.—

Early

Early, ere the odorous breath of morn
Awakes the slumb'ring leaves, or tassel'd horn
Shakes the high thicket, haste I all about. *Milt.*

* TASSES. *n. f.* Armour for the thighs. *Ainsl.*

TASSIE, James, modeller, was born near Glasgow, of obscure parents; and began his life as a country stone mason. Going to Glasgow, he acquired a knowledge of drawing in the academy instituted by the Fowlises; while, at same time, he was obliged to labour at stone cutting for his support. Referring to Dublin for employment, he became known to Dr Quin, who was amusing himself with trying to imitate the precious stones in coloured pastes, and take impressions of the engravings that were on them. Dr Quin soon discovered Tassie to be one in whom he could place perfect confidence. He was endowed with fine taste; modest, unassuming, patient, and possessed the highest integrity. The Doctor committed his laboratory and experiments to his care. The associates were fully successful; and found themselves able to imitate all the gems, and take accurate impressions of the engravings. The Doctor, when the discovery was completed, encouraged Mr Tassie to repair to London, and to devote himself to the preparation and sale of those pastes as his profession. In 1766, he arrived in the capital; and, until his death in 1799, he continued acquiring eminence and wealth. In addition to this elegant art, he practised the modelling of portraits in wax, which he afterwards moulded and cast in paste. See PASTE, § 11.

(1.) TASSO, Bernard, an illustrious Italian lawyer, descended of the ancient and noble family of Torreggiani. He was author of several ingenious compositions in verse and prose. He was sent to accompany the prince of Salerno, upon a deputation from Naples, to the emperor Charles V. to remonstrate against the erection of an *Inquisition* there. He was afterwards employed by William Gonzago, duke of Mantua, as his principal secretary, who at last promoted him to be governor of Ostiglia, upon the Po; where he died in 1585. He was father to the celebrated Torquato.

(2.) TASSO, Torquato, the son of Bernard, a justly celebrated Italian poet, born at Sorrento in Naples, in 1549, the son of Bernard, by Portia di Rossi, a lady of an illustrious family of Naples. At 9 he and his father were condemned to death for treason, but escaped; and 3 years after, they went from Rome to Mantua: Tasso had then completed his knowledge of the learned languages. He was soon after sent to the university of Padua; and, in his 18th year, published his *Rinaldo*. He next went to Bologna, by the invitation of the city and college; but soon returned to Padua at the request of Scipio Gonzago, who had been elected prince of the academy then established by the name of the *Etherei*, of which Tasso was made a member. Here he formed the plan of his *Jerusalem Delivered*. Being pressed by the duke, and his brother Card. Lewis, to reside with them at Ferrara, he consented, and the duke gave him an apartment in his palace, where he lived in affluence, and prosecuted his work; which he dedicated to the duke. When he was about 27, he published a pastoral comedy

called *Aminta*. In his 30th year, he finished his *Jerusalem*, and the whole being reprinted and published together, its success was astonishing, and it was immediately translated into Latin, French, Spanish, and even the Oriental languages. But it was Tasso's fate to become wretched as soon as he gained the summit of reputation. Soon after his *Jerusalem* was published, he lost his father; his *Jerusalem* was attacked by invidious critics; and the perfidy of a friend drew upon him greater misfortunes. In consequence of a rencontre, in which he behaved very bravely, the duke put him in prison, under pretence of securing him from any future attacks. But Tasso within a year escaped, and retired to Turin, where he was recommended to the duke of Savoy: but Tasso, fearing that the duke of Ferrara would require him to be delivered up, set out for Rome: there he was visited by princes, cardinals, prelates, and all the learned in the city. But being impatient of exile, he made his peace with the duke, who gave him fresh marks of his esteem. But Tasso, having made some attempts on the duke's sister, princess Leonora, whom he had celebrated in his verses, the duke caused him to be confined in the hospital of St Anne, as a person deranged. Tasso applied to the duke, by every friend he had, to release him, but without effect; for Tasso was certainly disordered in his mind. At last, after he had been a prisoner seven years, Vincent Gonzago, prince of Mantua, came to Ferrara, during the festivals, procured his liberty, and took him to Mantua, he being then in the 42d year of his age. At Mantua he lived about a year in great favour with the prince, but he became weary of a state of dependence, and therefore resolved to go to Naples, and endeavour to recover his mother's jointure, which had been seized by her relations when he went into exile. Finding his law-suit not likely to be soon determined, he went from Naples to Rome, where he continued about a year in high favour with Pope Sixtus V. and then went to Florence, at the invitation of Ferdinand, grand duke of Tuscany. Having spent another year at Florence, he returned to Naples, and published his *Jerusalem Delivered*. Soon after this Sixtus V. died, and was succeeded by Clement VII. and his nephews, Cynthio and Peter Aldrobandini, were created cardinals. Cynthio, who was a patron of learning, prevailed with him to leave Naples, and live with him in Rome. He returned again to Naples, but came back to Rome, in order to be crowned with laurels in the capital. While they were waiting for fair weather, Cynthio fell sick; and, before he recovered, Tasso was taken ill, and died on the 15th day, aged 51. His poems had acquired him an immortal reputation. His works were printed together at Florence in 1714, in 6 vols folio, with the criticisms. His *Aminta* and *Giernsalemme Liberata* have been translated into English.

(3.) TASSO, an island on the W. coast of Africa, in the mouth of the Sierra Leona.

TASSONI, Alexander, an Italian poet, born at Modena, in 1565. He was a member of the academy of Uccisiti; and, among other works, published *Scythia Raptiva*, or *the Rape of the Bucket*: which

which was the first model of a Mock Heroic poem in the Italian language. He died in 1635.

TASSOW, a town of Persia in Aderbeitzan; 24 miles W. of Tauris.

* **TASTABLE**. *adj.* That may be tasted; savoury; relishing.—Their distilled oils are fluid, volatile and *tastable*. *Boyle*.

(1.) * **TASTE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of tasting; gustation.—

Best of fruits, whose taste gave elocution. *Milt.*

2. The sense by which the relish of any thing on the palate is perceived.—Bees delight more in one flower than another, and therefore have *taste*.

Bacon.—

Delicacies of *taste*, sight, smell. *Milton*.

The tardy plants in our cold orchards plac'd,

Reserve their fruit for the next age's *taste*. *Wal.*

3. Sensibility; perception.—

I have almost forgot the *taste* of fears. *Shak.*

Musick in the close,

As the last *taste* of sweets is the sweetest last.

Shak.

4. That sensation which all things taken into the mouth give particularly to the tongue, the papillæ of which are the principal instruments hereof.

Quincy.—The *taste* of it was like wafers made with honey. *Exod. xvi. 31*.—Though there be a great variety of *tastes*, yet, as in smells, they have only some few general names. *Locke*.

5. Intellectual relish or discernment.—Seeing they pretended no quarrel at other psalms, why do these so much offend and displease their *tastes*. *Hooker*.—

Sions songs to all true *tastes* excelling,

Where God is prais'd aright. *Milton*.

I have no *taste*

Of popular applause. *Dryden*.

—As he had no *taste* of true glory, we see him equipped like an Hercules. *Addison*.—This metaphor would not have been so general, had there not been a conformity between the mental *taste* and that sensitive *taste* which gives us a relish of every flavour. *Addison*.—Your way of life, in my *taste*, will be the best. *Pope*.—How ill a *taste* for wit and sense prevails in the world. *Swift*.—Pleasure results from a sense to discern, and a *taste* to be affected with beauty. *Scud.*—It is true in *taste*, that many little things will not make a great one. *Reynolds*.

6. An essay; a trial; an experiment.

Not in use.—I hope he wrote this as an essay or *taste* of my virtue. *Shak.*

7. A small portion given as a specimen.—They thought it not safe to resolve, till they had a *taste* of the people's inclination.

Bacon.—Besides the prayers mentioned, I shall give only a *taste* of some few recommended to devout persons. *Stillingfleet*.

(2.) **TASTE** is a certain sensation, or class of sensations, excited in the mind by certain bodies, which are called *sapida*, applied to the tongue and palate, and moistened with the saliva. This is the original and proper meaning of the word *taste*; (see *METAPHYSICS*;) but as the qualities of bodies which produce these sensations are unknown, they have in all languages got the names of the sense of themselves, by that figure of speech which substitutes the cause for the effect. Hence we talk of the *tastes* of sugar, wormwood, honey, vinegar, &c.; and say, that the one is sweet and the

other four, &c. *Tastes* have been divided into simple and compound; and philosophers have to very little purpose endeavoured to ascertain the number of each species. See *Phil. Transf.* N^o 280, 299; and *Abercromb. Nov. M.d. Clavis*.

(3.) **TASTE** is likewise used in a figurative sense, to denote that faculty of the mind by which we perceive and enjoy whatever is beautiful or sublime in the works of nature or of art. Like the taste of the palate, this faculty relishes some things, is disgusted with others, and to many is indifferent; and from these obvious analogies between it and the external sense it has obtained its name. It has likewise been called an internal *sense*, and by Dr Hutcheson, a *reflex sense*; whilst others have considered it, not as a distinct faculty or sense, but as the joint exertion of perception and judgment in some cases, and as a play of the imagination in others.

(1.)* **TO TASTE**. *v. a.* [*taster*, to try, French.]

1. To perceive and distinguish by the palate.—The ruler of the feast *tasted* the water made wine. *John ii.*

2. To try by the mouth; to eat at least in a small quantity.—

Bold deed to *taste* it under ban to touch.

Milton.

3. To essay first.—Roscetes was seldom permitted to eat any other meat but such as the prince before *tasted* of. *Knolles*.—

Thou and I marching before our troops

May *taste* fate to them. *Dryden*.

4. To obtain pleasure from.—

So shalt thou be despised, fair maid,

When by the fated lover *tasted*. *Carew*.

5. To feel; to have perception of.—He should *taste* death for every man. *Heb. ii. 9.*

6. To relish, intellectually; to approve.—

Thou, Adam, wilt *taste* no pleasure. *Milton*.

(2.)* **TO TASTE**. *v. n.* 1. To try by the mouth to eat.—

Of this tree we may not *taste* nor touch.

Milton.

2. To have a smack; to produce on the palate a particular sensation.—When the mouth is out of *taste*, it maketh things *taste* bitter and loathsome, but never sweet. *Bacon*.—When kine feed upon wild garlick, their milk *tasteth* of it. *Bacon*.—If your butter *tastes* of brags, it is your matter's fault, who will not allow a silver saucepan. *Swift*.

3. To distinguish intellectually.—

Scholars, when good sense describing,

Call it *tasting* and imbibing. *Swift*.

4. To be tainted, or receive some quality or character.—

Ev'ry idle, nice, and wanton reason

Shall, to the king, *taste* of this action. *Shak.*

5. To try the relish of any thing.—

The soul doth use the *tasting* pow'r

In veins, which through the tongue and palate

spread. *Davies*.

6. To have perception of.—

The valiant never *taste* of death but once. *Sh.*

—The *tasting* of death touched the righteous also. *Wisd.*

7. To take to be enjoyed.—

What hither brought us? not hope here to

taste

Of pleasure. *Milton*.

Of

Of nature's bounty men forbore to *taste*.

Waller.

2. To enjoy sparingly.—

Age but *tastes* of pleasures, youth devours. Dry.

* **TASTED.** *adj.* [from *taste*.] Having a particular relish.—Coleworts are better *tasted*, if watered with salt water. Bacon.

* **TASTEFUL.** *adj.* [*taste* and *full*.] High relished; savoury.—

Musick of sighs thou shalt not hear,

Nor drink one lover's *tasteful* tear. Cowley.

Tasteful herbs that in thick gardens rise. Pope.

(1.) * **TASTELESS.** *adj.* [from *taste*.] 1. Having no power of perceiving taste. 2. Having no relish or power of stimulating the palate; insipid.—By depriving chemical oils, they could never be made *tasteless*. Boyle. 3. Having no power of giving pleasure; insipid.—The corruption of our will and affections renders them *tasteless* and insipid to us. Rogers.—If by his manner of writing a critic is heavy and *tasteless*. I throw aside his criticisms. South. 4. Having no intellectual gust.

(2.) **TASTELESS EARTH**, (*agust erde*), the name given by Professor Tremmadorff to a new simple earth, which he discovered in the Saxon beryl. It is distinguished (he says) from other earths by being white, and totally insoluble in water. In a fresh state, when moistened with water, it is somewhat ductile. In the fire it becomes transparent and very hard, so as to scratch glass, but remains insipid and insoluble in water. The burnt earth dissolves very easily in acids, and produces with them peculiar salts, which are entirely devoid of taste; and hence he gave it the name of *tasteless earth*. Fixed alkalies do not dissolve this earth, either in the dry or in the wet way; and it is equally insoluble with the carbonic acid and with caustic ammonia. It has a greater affinity to the oxalic than to the other acids.

* **TASTELESSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *tasteless*.] 1. Insipidity: want of relish. 2. Want of perception of taste. 3. Want of intellectual relish.

* **TASTER.** *n. f.* [*taster*, Fr. from *taste*.] 1. One who takes the first essay of food.—

Young time is *taster* to eternity. Crashaw.

—Says the fly, Am not I the *taster* to princes in all their entertainments? L'Estrange.—

Thy tutor be thy *taster*, ere thou eat. Dryd.

Apicius, here, the *taster* of the town,

Feeds twice a week.

Young.

2. A dram cup. *Ainsworth*.

TATA, or *Dotu*, a town of Hungary, with a castle, seated among swamps. In 1543, it was taken by the Turks, but retaken soon after; in 1548, the Turks took it again; in 1566, it was retaken by the imperialists; who lost it in 1594, but took it in 1597; but within 6 months, the Turks again took it, and kept it. It is 18 miles S. of Raab, and 20 W. of Gran.

TATACUL, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore; 11 miles N. of Vencatgherry.

(1.) **TATAR BASSARDSCHIH**, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, on the Mariza; 16 miles W. of Philippopoli.

(2.) **TATAR BUNAR**, a town of European Turkey, in Bessarabia; 30 miles SW. of Akernan.

TATAKS, or **TAKTARS**. See **TARTARY**, § 2.

TATARSKOI, a town and fort of Russia, in Kolivanfkoï, on the E. bank of the Irtysh. Lon. 93. 20 E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 44 N.

TAT-CHOU, a town of China, in Set-tchuen.

TATE, Nahum, an eminent poet, born at Dublin, where he received his education, in 1651. He was made poet laureat to K. William III. upon the death of Shadwell, and held that place until the reign of George I. whose first birth-day ode he wrote, with unusual spirit. He died in the mint in 1716. He wrote 9 dramatic performances, a great number of poems, and a version of the *Psalms* in conjunction with Dr. Nicholas Brady.

TATIAMBETTY, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore; 5 miles NW. of Wombinellore.

TATIAN, a writer of the primitive church, in the 2d century, born in Assyria, and trained up in the heathen religion and learning. He became Christian and disciple of Justin Martyr, whom he attended to Rome; and while Justin lived, continued orthodox; but after his death made a schism, and founded a new sect, condemning marriage, enjoining abstinence from wine and animal food, and suffering only water to be used in the holy mysteries; whence his followers were called *Encratites* and *Hydroparastates*. None of his works are extant but his piece against the Gentiles, entitled, *his Oration to the Greeks*.

TATIANITES, the followers of **TATIAN**. See **PATRICIANS**, N° 6; and the last article.

TATIANSKAIA, a town and fort of Russia, in Saratov, on the Volga; 22 miles NE. of Tazritzin.

TATIEN, a town of Chinese Tartary, 55 miles NE. of Tamsin.

TATIENSES, a name given by Romulus to a tribe of the Roman people, in honour of his colleague, K. **TATIUS**, to whom part of them had been subjects. They lived on the mounts Capitoline and Quirinalis.

TATISCHEVA, a town and fort of Russia, in Upha, on the Ural; 28 miles W. of Orenburg.

(1.) **TATIUS**, Titus, king of the Sabines and Romans. See **ROME**, § 5 and 6; and **SABINES**.

(2.) **TATIUS**, Achilles, a native of Alexandria was the author of a book on the sphere. There is also attributed to him a Greek romance on the lives of *Leucippe* and *Clitophon*, of which Salmassius has given a beautiful edition in Greek and Latin with notes. Suidas says, that **Tatius** was a Pagan, but afterwards became a Christian, and a bishop. **Plinius** mentions him in his *Bibliotheca*.

TATOBIT, a town of Bohemia, in Bolestau 5 miles E. of Turnau.

TATONNEUR, in zoology. See **LEMUR**.

TATONN TREE. See **BENGAL**, § 11.

TATOUCHÉ, a town on the W. coast of Fomosa. Lon. 13. 44 E. Ferro. Lat. 24. 8 N.

TA-TSIN, a river of China, which runs into the East Sea; in Lon. 136. 5 E. Lat. 37. 46 N.

(1.) **TATTA**, a city of Hindoostan, the capital of **SINDY**. It is built on the site of the ancient **PATALA** on the Indus. In the 17th century the city was very extensive and populous; abounding in manufactures of silk, woollen, cotton, iron, cabinet wares, &c. all of which are now decayed, and its limits reduced. But it has been

of iron, and rock salt near it, with a manufacture of saltpetre. It is 136 miles WNW. of Amedabad, and 340 SSW. of Moultan, and 740 NW. of Bombay. Lon. 67. 38. E. Lat. 24. 54. N.

(2.) **TATTA**, a name of SINDY.

(3.) **TATTA**, in ancient geography, a large lake of Phrygia, near Pisidia.

TATTAH, a town of Africa on the frontiers of Darah and Morocco, on the road from Morocco to Tombuctou; 150 miles SSE. of Morocco. Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 24. 54. N.

TATTAMUNG, a town of Hindoostan, in Calicut; 5 miles S. of Policanderry.

* **TATTER**: *n. s.* [from the verb.] A rag; a fluttering rag.—This fable holds, from him that fits upon the throne to the poor devil that has scarce a tatter. *L'Estrange*.

* *To TATTER*. *v. a.* [*totaran*, Saxon.] To tear; to rend; to make ragged. *Tattered* is perhaps more properly an adjective.—

Thro' tatter'd cloaths small vices do appear,
Robes and furr'd gowns hide all. *Shak.*

An apothecary late I noted
In tatter'd weeds. *Shak.*

Where wav'd the tatter'd ensigns of Ragfair,
A yawning ruin hangs. *Pope.*

Little tyrants rag'd,
Tore from cold wintry limbs the tatter'd weed. *Thomson.*

Now, the treasure found, and matron's store,
Sought other objects than the tatter'd poor. *Harte.*

* **TATTERDEMALION**. *n. s.* [*tatter* and *I know not what*.] A ragged fellow.—A spark that was warm clad called to this *tatterdemalion*, how he could endure this weather? *L'Estrange*.

TATTERED. *adj.* See **TATTER**.

TATTER-SHALL, a town of England, in Lincolnshire, seated on the Bane, near its conflux with the Witham, among fens. It had a castle, which was destroyed during the civil wars in the 17th century. It has a market on Friday, and is 20 miles S. of Louth, 20 SE. of Lincoln, and 127 N. of London. Lon. 0. 8. W. Lat. 53. 6. N.

TATTICOMBA, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore, 4 miles N. of Dindigul.

* **TATTLE**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Prate; idle chat; trifling talk.—

They ask'd her how the lik'd the play?
Then told the *tattle* of the day. *Swift.*

Such *tattle* often entertains,
My lord and me as far as Staines. *Swift.*

—Persons well skilled in those different subjects bear the impertinent *tattle* with a just contempt. *Watts.*

* *To TATTLE*. *v. n.* [*tateren*, Dutch.] To prate; to talk idly; to use many words with little meaning.—

Ne after every *tattling* fable fly. *Spenser.*

—Like my lady's eldest son, evermore *tattling*. *Shak.*—Excuse it by the *tattling* quality of age, which is always narrative. *Dryden*.—The world is forward enough to *tattle* of them. *Locke*.—The French language is extremely proper to *tattle* in; it is made up of so much repetition and compliment. *Addison*.

* **TATTTLER**. *n. s.* [from *tattle*.] An idle talk-

er; a prater.—Going from house to house, *tattlers*, busy bodies, are reproved by the apostle. *Taylor*.

* **TATOO**. *n. s.* [from *tapotex toas*, Fr.] The beat of drum by which soldiers are warned to their quarters.—

All those whose hearts are loose and low,
Start if they hear but the *tattoo*. *Prior.*
TATTOOING, or } *n. s.* an operation in the
TATTOOWING, } among the islanders in the South-Sea for marking their bodies with figures of various kinds which they consider as ornamental. It is performed by puncturing the skin, and rubbing a black colour into the wounds. See **OTAKEITES**, § 15.

TATTUBET, a town of Algiers, anciently called *Tadutti*, and then a very considerable city, but now almost in ruins, 25 miles from Constantia. Some beautiful granite pillars were lately dug up in it, and placed in a mosque at Constantia.

TATZO, a town of Hungary, 40 miles E. Munkacz.

TAUA, a town of Egypt, in the Delta.

(1.) **TAVAI**, an island in the Indian Ocean, near the coast of SIAM; 20 miles long and 3 broad. Lon. 97. 53. E. Lat. 13. 0. N.

(2.) **TAVAI**, a town of Siam, 124 miles N. of Mergui, and 148 S. of Martaban. Lon. 98. 12. E. Lat. 14. 10. N.

(3.) **TAVAI POINT**, the extreme point of a peninsula on the coast of Siam. Lon. 98. 0. E. Lat. 13. 40. N.

TAVAI-POENAMMOO, the name given by the natives, to the W. island of New Zealand. The inland part is full of very high and rugged mountains, whose tops are covered with snow but the sea coast abounds with trees, among which is the true spruce. Though much rain fell, it was attended with no bad effects on Captain Cook's voyage. The natives lead a wandering life, without seeming united in society or friendship. The island is 600 miles long, and 150 broad.

TAVARONE, Lazarus, a celebrated Italian painter of history and portraits, born at Genoa in 1556. He was a disciple of Luke Cangiagio, and succeeded him as painter to the king of Spain. He died in 1631.

TAVASTERORG, } or **TAVASTUS**, a city of
TAVASTERHUS, } Sweden in Finland, the
TAVASTEHUS, } capital of Tavastland; built in 1650, by Count Peter Brahe, on a pleasant spot, and endowed with many privileges. It was taken by the Russians in 1713, and in the last war was burnt by them. It has a strong castle, with a magazine; and is seated on a river that runs to lake Wana; 44 or 62 m. NE. of Abo.

TAVASTLAND, a province of Sweden, in the middle of Finland, about 150 miles long, and 100 broad. The soil is very fertile, and the surface chiefly consists of fine plains, diversified with arable and meadow lands and watered by many lakes and rivers abounding with fish. It likewise abounds in cattle and wild game. Yet it is but poorly cultivated, and hence the peasants are very poor. The N. part of this province is mountainous and woody, and abounds with iron ore. The people are chiefly employed in husbandry, and fishing. They also export corn, flax, hemp,
X2 dried

dried fish, cattle, leather, butter, tallow, lime and bark.

TAVASTUS. See **TAVASTEHUS**.

TAVAVIS, a town of Asia, in Great Bukharia: 15 miles NE. of Bukharia.

TAUBE, a river of Brandenburg, which runs into the Aland, near Seehausen.

(1.) **TAUBER**, a river of Franconia, in Anspach, which runs NW. by Mergentheim, and falls into the Maine at Wertheim.

(2.) **TAUBER**, a lake of Bavaria, in Berchtesgaden: 6 miles W. of Berchtesgaden.

TAUBMAN, Frederic, a learned German critic, born in Franconia, about 1365. He became professor of poetry and belles lettres at Wirtemberg. He published *Commentaries on Virgil and Plautus*. He died in 1633.

TAUCHA, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Leipzig; built in 1221 by Albert Abp. of Magdeburg; but destroyed in 1279, by Dietric, marg. of Meissen. It was rebuilt and possessed by different lords, till it fell under the jurisdiction of Leipzig; but in 1431, it was again destroyed by the Hussites and Bohemians; when most of the inhabitants fled to Leipzig. It is 6 miles NE. of Leipzig, and 7 SSW. of Eulenburg.

TAUCHEL, a town of Prussian Pomerelia, 44 miles SSW. of Dantzic. In 1310, it was taken and burnt by the Teutonic Knights. It was rebuilt, but has since suffered much in the Polish wars. It is seated on the Verd, 30 miles NW. of Culm, and 55 SW. of Magdeburg. Lon. 18. 5. E. Lat. 53. 38. N.

TAUD, a river of England, in Lancashire.

TAVDA, a river of Russia, which rises from Lake Pelim, and falls into the Tobol; 40 miles S. of Tobolsk.

TAUDECONDA, a town of Hindostan, in Coiconda; 25 miles SW. of Warandele.

TAUDENY, a town of Africa, in Ziara, 270 miles NNW. of Tombuctou. Lon. 14. 45. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 30. N.

(1.) **TAVE**, a river of France, which runs into the Rhone; 6 miles below Loudon.

(2.) **TAVE**, a river of S. Wales, in Caermarthen-shire; which runs into the Britol Channel, near Llanghorth.

(3.) **TAVE**, or **TAAFE**. See **TAAFE**.

(1.) **TAVERA**, a town of the French empire, in the island and department of Corfica; 14 miles NNE. of Ajazzo.

(2.) **TAVERA DI ORTA**, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Capitanata; 14 miles SSW. of Ascoli.

* **TAVERN**. *n. s.* [*taverna*, Fr. *taberna*, Lat.] A house where wine is sold, and drinkers are entertained.—

Enquire at London, 'mong the *taverns* there. *Shak.*

—You shall fear no more *tavern* bills. *Shak.*—To reform the vices of this town, all *taverns* and ale-houses should be obliged to dismiss their company by twelve at night, and no woman suffered to enter any *tavern* or alehouse. *Swift.*

TAVERNA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, 15 miles N. of Squillace, 20 E. of Nicastro, and 70 NE. of Reggio. Lon. 16. 44. E. Lat. 39. 31. N.

* **TAVERNER**. **TAVERNKEEPER**. **TAVERN-**

MAN. *n. s.* [from *tavern*, *man*, or *keep*; *tabernarius*, Lat. *tavernier*, Fr.] One who keeps a tavern.—After local names, the most in number have been derived from occupations; as *taylor*, *archer*, *taverner*. *Camden.*

TAVERNES, a town of France, in the dept. of the Var; 3 miles N. of Barjois.

(1.) **TAVERNIER**, John Baptist, a famous French traveller, born at Paris in 1605. In the course of 40 years he travelled six times to Turkey, Persia, and the East Indies; and visited all the countries in Europe, travelling mostly on foot. His *TRAVELS* have been often printed. He died on his journey, at Moscow, in 1699.

(2.) **TAVERNIER KEY**, one of the *TORTUGA* Islands; 2 miles from the S. end of Largo, and 5 NE. of Old Matacombe.

* **TAVERNKEEPER**. } See **TAVERNER**.

* **TAVERNMAN**, }

TAVERNY, a town of France, in the dept. of Seine and Oise; 6 miles E. of Pontoise.

(1.) **TAVETCH**, or , a district of Switzerland,

(1.) **TAVETSCH**, in the ci-devant Grisons territories, near Uri; now in the Italian kingdom.

(2.) **TAVETSCH**, a town and mountain in the above district; the former 13 miles SW. of I-lantz, the latter 5.

TAVEY, or **TAAFE**. See **TAAFE**.

TAUFKIRCHEN, a town in the empire of Austria; 2 miles SW. of Grickirchen, and 8 SW. of Esslingen.

(1.) * **TAUGHT**, preterite and part. pass. of *teach*.—All thy children shall be *taught* of the Lord. *Isa.* liv. 13.

How hast thou satisfy'd me, *taught* to live.

Milton.

(2.) **TAUGHT**, *adj.* in sea language, tight. See **NAVY**, § 6.

TAUGIA, a town of Arabia, in Hedjas; 200 miles ENE. of Mecca.

TAVIANO, a town of Naples, in Otranto; 11 miles WNW. of Alexano.

TAVIGNANO, a river of the French empire, in Corfica, which runs into the sea, 15 miles S. of Cervione.

TAVILA. See **TAVIRA**.

(1.) **TAUILE**, a town of Arabia, in Yemen; 24 miles W. of Tana.

(2.) **TAUILE**, a town of Egypt, on the Nile; 2 miles N. of Mansora.

TAVIRA, or **TAVILA**, a city of Portugal, and capital of the province of Algarve, with a handsome castle, and one of the best harbours in the kingdom, defended by a fort. It is seated in a pleasant fertile country, at the mouth of Gilaon, between Cape Vincent and the Straits of Gibraltar, 100 miles W. by N. of Cadiz. Lon. 7. 46. W. Lat. 37. 18. N.

TAVISTOCK, a borough of England, in Devonshire, seated on the Tave, over which it has a bridge of 5 arches. It gave birth to Sir F. DRAKE; and sends 2 members to parliament. It has a market on Saturday; and is 14 miles N. of Plymouth, 32 W. by S. of Exeter, and 206 WSW. of London. Lon. 4. 12. W. Lat. 50. 37. N.

TAULANTIL, an ancient nation of Illyricum, on the Adriatic. *Liv.* 45. c. 26. *Lucan*, vi. 16.

TAULE, a town of France, in the dept. of Finisterre

Finisterre, 3 miles NW. of Morlaix, and 6 SSE. of St. Pol.

TAULIGNAN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Drome, 9 miles NW. of Nions, and 12 SE. of Montelimart.

TAUMACO, a town of European Turkey, in Thessaly, 18 miles NW. of Zeiton.

TAUMAGO, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 207. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 15. 0. S.

TAUME, a river of England, which rises in Yorkshire, and runs into the Mersey in Lancashire, opposite Stockport.

TAUNA, a town of Egypt, on the canal of Joseph, which runs between the Nile and the Birket el Kerum, 5 miles SW. of Askmunein.

* **TAUNT**, *n. s.* [from the verb.] Insult; scoff; reproach; ridicule.—

With scoffs and scorns, and contumelious taunts,

In open market-place produc'd they me,
To be a public spectacle. *Shak.*

—Julian thought it more effectual to persecute the Christians by taunts and ironies, than by tortures. *Government of the Tongue.*

Send them flowing round his drunken feast,
With sciliciteous taunt. *Prior.*

* To **TAUNT**, *v. a.* [tauser, Fr. Skinner. *Tanden*, Dutch, to shew teeth. *Minshew.*] 1. To reproach; to insult; to revile; to ridicule; to treat with insolence and contumelies.—

When I had at my pleasure taunted her,
She in mild terms begg'd my patience. *Shak.*

The bitterness and stings of taunting jealousy,
Hath driven him forth. *Rocue's Jane Shore.*

2. To exprobate; to mention with upbraiding.—
Rail thou in Fulvia's phrase, and taunt my faults

; With such full licence. *Shak.*

* **TAUNTER**, *n. s.* [from taunt.] One who taunts, reproaches, or insults.

* **TAUNTINGLY**, *adv.* [from taunting.] With insult; scoffingly; with contumely and exprobatum.—

It tauntingly replied
To th' discontented members. *Shak.*

The wanton goddess view'd the warlike maid
From head to foot, and tauntingly she said.

Prior.

(1.) **TAUNTON**, a large, elegant, and well built borough of Somersetshire, 146 miles W. by S. of London. It consists principally of 4 streets paved and lighted; the market-place is spacious, and has a handsome market-house, with a town-hall over it, finished in 1773. It has an extensive woolen manufactory; and in 1780 a silk manufactory was introduced. Its castle, the ruins of which remain, was in 1645 defended for the parliament by colonel Blake against an army of 10,000 men under lord Goring, but was dismantled by Charles II. In 1605 the duke of Monmouth made it his head-quarters. Its church, which is large and beautiful, is a fine specimen of the florid Gothic architecture. The tower, which is lofty, is of excellent workmanship, crowned at the top with 4 stately pinnacles, 32 feet high. Taunton is pleasantly seated on the Tone, which is navigable to Bridgewater; and sends two members to parliament. It has markets on Wednesday and Satur-

day, and lies 31 miles NE. of Exeter. Lon. 3. 17. W. Lat. 50. 59. N.

(2.) **TAUNTON**, a river of Massachusetts, formed of several streams which rise in Plymouth county; it then runs a SW. course, and falls into Narraganset Bay, at Tiverton, opposite the N. end of Rhode Island. It is navigable in small vessels as far as TAUNTON, (N^o 3.) where the tide rises 4 feet.

(3.) **TAUNTON**, a town of Massachusetts, the capital of Bristol county, seated on the W. bank of the river (N^o 2.) It has a church, an academy, a court-house, &c. and is 43 miles S. of Boston, and 330 from Philadelphia. Lon. 3. 53. E. of that city. Lat. 41. 55. N.

(4.) **TAUNTON DEAN**, a very fertile valley of England, in Somersetshire, 30 miles long. TAUNTON (N^o 1.) is the chief town.

TAUNUS, in ancient geography, a mountain of Germany (*Taici*. 1. *Ann. c. 56.*); now called *Hericke*, or *Hoche*, opposite Mentz.

TAVOLA, a river of ancient Corsica.

(1.) **TAVORA**, a river of Portugal, which runs into the Duero; 5 miles E. of Lamego.

(2.) **TAVORA**, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 6 miles E. of Lamego.

TAURE, in zoology, [Lat. from *taurus*, a bull, literally a *female bull*, differing from *vacca*, a cow], the name given by the Romans to that hermaphrodite kind of ox, which is neither bull nor cow, and which British farmers call a *FREE-MARTIN*. See *HERMAPHRODITE*, § 2.

TAURANIA, a town of Italy, in the country of the Bruttii. *Lempriere.*

TAURANTES, an ancient people of Armenia, who dwelt between Artaxata and Tigranocerta. *Tacit. Ann. 14. c. 24.*

TAURASI, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 11 miles SE. of Benevento.

TAURAT, a town of the island of Cuba; 38 miles NNE. of St Jago.

TAUREAU, an island of France, in the dept. of Finisterre, and ci-devant province of Bretagne, at the mouth of the Morlaix. There is a castle upon it, to defend the port of Morlaix. Lon. 3. 51. W. Lat. 48. 40. N.

TAURI, an ancient nation of European Sarmatia, who inhabited TAURICA CHERSONESUS, and sacrificed all strangers to Diana. The statue of this goddess, which they believed to have fallen down from heaven, was carried off to Sparta by IPHIGENIA and ORESTES. (See these articles.) *Hecodot. iv. c. 99. Eurip. Iphig. &c.*

(1.) **TAURIC**, *adj.* [from *Taurica*.] Of or belonging to, or produced in, TAURICA, or TAURICA CHERSONESUS. The term is chiefly applied to animals, natives of that country; particularly the *Tauric Goats*, from the skins of which the celebrated MOROCCO LEATHER is manufactured at *Karafubazar*, a town in Taurica.

(2.) **TAURIC GOAT'S LEATHER**, or MOROCCO LEATHER, is the staple of an ancient manufacture, in Karafubazar, where they make large quantities from the skins of the numerous flocks of Tauric goats. They begin the process by cleaning the skins in the following manner: After having steeped some raw hides in cold water for 24 hours, to free them from blood and other impurities, the fleshy parts are

are scraped off with proper instruments. They are next macerated for ten days in cold lime-water, to loosen the hair, which is likewise scraped off as clean as possible. For 15 days they lie in clean cold water, and then are worked under foot in a succession of clean water; the last being impregnated with dog's dung to loosen the hair still more, when they receive a 2d scraping, and are drained of their humidity; which finishes the cleaning process. They now proceed to what they call *feeding the skins*, by steeping them 4 days in a cold infusion of wheat bran; then in a decoction of honey and water, 28 lb. to 5 pails, cooled down to the temperature of new milk; out of which they are put under pres in a vessel with holes at the bottom to let the liquor escape. They are, lastly, steeped 4 days in a light solution of salt and water, one lb. to 5 pails; this finishes the preparation, and the leather is now ready to receive the dye. A strong decoction of ARTEMISIA ANNUA, or *southern-wood*, in the proportion of 4 lb. to 10 pails of water, seems to be the basis of all the different colours that they give to Morocco in Taurica, Afracan, and the other cities formerly belonging to the Tartar empire, where the secret has remained till now. When a red colour is intended, a pound of cochineal in powder is gradually stirred into ten pails of fine yellow decoction of artemisia, and boiled up in it for half an hour, with 5 or 6 drachms of alum, and poured on the leather in a proper vessel. They are next worked under feet in an infusion of oak leaves in warm water, till they become supple and soft; when they are finally rinsed in cold water, then rubbed over with olive-oil and calendered with wooden rollers; which finishes the manufacture. The yellow Morocco is dyed with the decoction of artemisia alone; only stronger; 20 lb. of it to 15 pails, being the proportion when used without other admixture; but a lb. of alum in fine powder is gradually added, by half a table spoonful at a time; and with this each skin is twice stained before the last operation of oiling and calendering. It is proper to remark, that there is a little difference in the preparation of the skins for receiving the pure yellow dye described above, as neither honey nor salt are used; but, instead of them, the hides are steeped for 2 days in an infusion of oak-leaves; and immediately after being taken out of the infusion of bran wherein they must have lain 4 days, and then be worked under foot for a few hours of these 4 days, next rinsed in cold water, and placed one above another on poles, to drain off the water and make them ready for staining.

(1.) TAURICA, in the mythology, a surname of DIANA, because she was worshipped by the inhabitants of TAURICA CHERSONESUS.

(2.) TAURICA CHERSONESUS, in ancient geography, a large peninsula of Europe, at the SW. end of the PALUS MÆOTIS joined to Scythia, by an isthmus, and bounded by the Cimærian Bosphorus, the Euxine Sea, and the PALUS MÆOTIS. The inhabitants were called TAURI, and were very savage. (*Strabo*, iv. *Plin.* iv. 12.) Its modern name, till lately, was CRIMEA, or CRIM TARTARY. (See TARTAR, N° 2 and 3; and TARTARY, N° III.) The inland country was anciently possessed by the SCYTHIANS, who extended

themselves on the N. beyond the Perekop, W. to the Dnieper, and E. as far as the Don. The W. and S. coasts were inhabited by some Greek colonies, of which the town of CHERSONESUS became the most powerful. The E. side, on the Don and the opposite country, or the tract from the Don along the sea of Azoph to the Black Sea and Mount Caucasus, was under the kings of the *Bosphoric Greeks*, so called from the Strait of BOSPHORUS. The Scythians proving troublesome neighbours to the Greeks, they asked the assistance of Mithridates VII. K. of Pontus, who drove the Scythians out of the peninsula, and formed the kingdom of Bosphorus, which comprehended the whole peninsula, and the country facing it on the E. towards Mount Caucasus. In the reign of Dioclesian, the SARMATÆ were in sole possession of this kingdom, except that the Goths had seized a part of it, on the W. side of the peninsula, and the whole tract lying N. of it, along the Don. The peninsula afterwards fell under the emperors of the East, though partly shared with the Huns; who were succeeded by the Cozars, and these by the Polawzers. About the end of the 12th century, the Genoese, having made themselves masters of the Euxine or Black Sea, with all its harbours, settled also in the Crimea. In the 13th century the TARTARS expelled the Polawzers out of the Crimea; but the strength of the Genoese ports and castles baffled their undisciplined fury; and held out till 1475, when the Turks reduced the whole Crimea and placed a khan over it. In 1698, the Russians made an attempt on the Crimea, but took only Perekop. In 1736, they were more successful under Count Munich, who again took Perekop, and opened a passage into the Crimea, though garrisoned by 100,000 men in a great number of strong towers. In 1737, 1738, and 1759, the Russians renewed their invasion with such success, that they ravaged one half of the Crimea, while the Tartars ravaged the other; and vast numbers of the people perished by famine. The khan, however, continued after this to govern the greater part of it; and assumed the title of *Khan of Lesser Tartary*, though he was only a vassal of the Ottoman Porte, till 1774, when he was declared independent. But in 1783, from the farther successes of the Russians, under Catherine II. he abdicated his government, and ceded the whole country to Russia.

(3.) TAURICA CHERSONESUS, in modern geography, is the ancient name restored to the CRIMEA, by the late empress of Russia, CATHERINE II. after her complete conquest of the whole country. It is also called TAURIDA, TAURIS, and RUSSIAN TARTARY, and simply TAURICA. In the Russian language, it is called

TAURICHESKAYA, i. e. the province of Taurica or Tauris. It is included in the extensive government of CATHERINOSLAV, or EKATERINOSLAV; and is bounded on the N. by the Dnieper and the Koskija; on the E. by the sea of Azoph; on the S. and W. by the Black Sea; and thus this new Russian province comprehends a greater extent of territory, than either the ancient TAURICA CHERSONESUS, or the modern CRIMEA.

* TAURICORNOUS. *adj.* [*taurus* and *cornu*, Lat.] Having horns like a bull.—Their descrip-

tions must be relative, or the *tauricornus* picture of the one the same with the other. *Brown.*

TAURTNI, the ancient inhabitants of
TAURINUM, a town of Gallia Cisalpina;
(*Sil. Ital. iii. 646. Plin. iii. 17.*) now called **TURIN**.

(1.) **TAURIS**, or **TEBRIS**, a town of Persia, a capital of Adirbeitzan. It was formerly the capital of Persia, and is still the most considerable next to Isfahan; for it contains 15,000 houses, many shops, and about 100,000 inhabitants. It is about 5 miles in circumference, and carries on a prodigious trade in cotton, cloth, silks, gold and silver brooches, fine turbans, and shagreen leather. There are 300 caravanseras, and 250 mosques. Some travellers suppose it to be the ancient **EC-BATANA**. It is seated in a delightful plain, surrounded with mountains, whence a stream issues, which runs through the city. Lon. 47. 50. E. Lat. 38. 18. N.

(2.) **TAURIS**. See **TAURICA**, N° 3.

TAURIUM, a town of Peloponnesus. *Polyb.*

TAVRO-CASTRO, a town of European Turkey, in Livadia; 20 miles NNE. of Setines or Athens.

TAUROMENIUM, or } an ancient town of
TAUROMINIUM, - } Sicily, between Mes-
sana and Catania; built by the Zancleans, Sicilians and Hybleans, by order of **TIMOLEON**, in the age of Dionysius II. tyrant of Syracuse. The hills adjacent were famous for their grapes and wines; and for the extent and beauty of their prospects. (*Diodor.*) It was built on the site of **Naxos**, and is now called **Taormina**. See **NAXUS**, N° 4; and **TAORMINA**.

TAUROMINIUS, a river near Taurominium.

(1.) **TAURUS**, in astronomy, one of the 12 signs of the zodiac.

(2.) **TAURUS**, a great chain of mountains in Asia, which begin at the eastern parts of Little Carmania, and extend very far into the India. In different places they have different names.

(3.) **TAURUS**, in zoology, the bull. See **BOS**, N° IV, § xi, 1—7; **BULL-FIGHTING**, § 1—3; **CALF**, § 2; and **Ox**, § 1, 2.

TAUS, a town of Bohemia, in Pilsen; 26 miles SSW. of Pilsen, and 60 S. of Saatz.

TAUSA, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Neustadt; 2 miles N. Ziegenbruck.

TAUSTE, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

TAAT, or **TAAUT**. See **TAAT** and **THOTH**.

TAUTENBURG, a town and fort of Thuringia; 3 miles S. of Camburg, and 1 ESE. of Dornburg.

* **TAUTOLOGICAL**. *adj.* [*tautologique*, Fr. from *tautology*.] Repeating the same thing.

* **TAUTOLOGIST**. *n. f.* [from *tautology*.] One who repeats tediously.

* **TAUTOLOGY**. *n. f.* [*ταυτολογία*; *tauto* and *logos*; *tautologie*, Fr.] Repetition of the same words, or of the same sense in different words.—All science is not *tautology*. *Glanville*—

Though they in numbers as in sense excel,

So just, so like *tautology*, they fell. *Dryden.*

—Every paper addressed to our beautiful incen-
diaries, hath been filled with different considera-
tions, that enemies may not accuse me of *tautology*.
Addison.

TAUVES, a town of France, in the department

of Puy de Dome; 15 miles W. of Besse, and 24 SW. of Clermont.

TAVUS, an ancient name of the **TAV**.

TAVY, a river of England, in Devonshire, which joins the Tamar, two miles above Saltash.

(1.) **TAW**, in geography, a river of Devonshire, which rises in the centre of the county, 3 miles SE. of Oakhampton, runs W. joins the Towridge, and falls into the Bristol Channel, at Barnstaple, below Appledore, forming a large bay at its mouth, called **BARNSTAPLE BAY**.

(2.) * **TAW**. *n. f.* A marble to play with.—

Trembling I've seen thee

Mix with the children as they play'd at *tauw*;
Nor fear the marbles as they bounding flew,
Marbles to them, but rolling rocks to you.

Swift.

* **To TAW**. *v. a.* [*toawen*, Dutch; *topian*, Sax.] To dress white leather commonly called alum leather, in contradistinction from *tan* leather, that which is dressed with bark.

TAWAS, two tribes of N. American Indians, in the North Western Territory, on the banks of the Miami; the one dwelling 18 miles up that river; the other several miles higher at the Rajuds.

* **TAWDRINESS**. *n. f.* [from *taudry*.] Tinsel finery; finery too ostentatious; without elegance.—A clumsy beau makes his ungracefulness appear the more ungraceful by his *taudriness* of dress. *Clarissa.*

(1.) * **TAWDRY**. *adj.* [from *Stawdery*, Saint Audrey, or Saint Etheldred, as the things bought at Saint Etheldred's fair. *Henshaw, Skinner.*] Meantly shewy; splendid without cost; fine without grace; shewy without elegance. It is used both of things and of persons wearing them.

Gird in your waste,

For more fineness, with a *taudrie* lace. *Spenser.*
—He has a kind of cockcomb upon his crown, and a few *taudry* feathers. *L'Estrange.*—

Your herdman primitive, your homely clown.
Is turn'd a beau in a loose *taudry* gown. *Dryd.*
—He rails from morning to night at effenced fops and *taudry* courtiers. *Addison.*—Her eyes were wan and eager, her dress thin and *taudry*, her mein genteel and childish. *Addison.*

(2.) * **TAWDRY**. *n. f.* A light ornament.—

With white pebbles makes her *taudries* for her neck. *Drayton.*

* **TAWER**. *n. f.* [from *tauw*.] A dresser of white leather,

TAWING, *part. n. f.* the art of dressing skins in white, for divers manufactures, particularly gloves, &c. All skins may be tawed; but those chiefly used for this purpose are lamb, sheep, kid, and goat skins. The method is this: Having clear ed the skins of wool or hair by lime, they are laid in a large vat of wood or stone, set on the ground full of water, in which quicklime has been slacked; wherein they are allowed to lie 4 or 6 weeks according as the weather is more or less hot, or as the skins are required to be more or less pliant. While they are in a vat, the water and lime is changed twice, and the skins are taken out and put in again every day; and when they are taken out for the last time, they are laid all night to soak in a running water, to get out the greatest part of the lime; and in the morning
are

are laid together by fixes one upon another, upon a wooden leg, and are scraped stoutly one after another, to get the flesh off from the fleshy side, with a cutting two handed instrument called a *knife*; and then they cut off the legs (if they are not cut off before) and other superfluous parts about the extremities. Then they are laid in a vat or pit with a little water, where they are filled with wooden pebbles for a quarter of an hour; and then the vat is filled up with water, and they are rinsed in it. They are then thrown on a clean pavement to drain, and afterwards cast into a fresh pit of water, out of which they are rinsed well, and are laid again on the wooden leg, 6 at a time, with the hair side outermost; over which they rub a kind of whetstone very briskly, to soften and fit them to receive 4 or 5 more preparations, given them on the leg both on the flesh-side and the hair-side, with the knife as before. After this they are put into a pit of water and wheaten-bran and stirred about in it with wooden poles, till the bran is perceived to stick to them and then they are left; as they rise of themselves to the top of the water by a kind of fermentation, they are plunged down again to the bottom; and at the same time fire is set to the liquor, which burns as easily as if it were brandy, but goes out the moment the skins are all covered. They repeat this operation as often as the skins rise above the water; and when they have done riling they take them out, lay them on the wooden leg, the fleshy side outwards, and scrape off the bran, with the knife. They then lay the skins in a large basket, and load them with huge stones to promote their draining; and when they have drained sufficiently, they give them their *feeding*; which is performed thus:—For 100 large sheep skins, and so in proportion, they take 8 lb. of alum and 3 of sea-salt, and melt the whole with water in a vessel over the fire, pouring the solution out, while yet lukewarm, into a trough, in which is 20 lb. of the finest wheat-flour, with the yolks of 8 dozen of eggs; of all which is formed a kind of paste, a little thicker than children's pap; which is put into another vessel, to be used thus:—They pour a quantity of hot water into the trough in which the paste was prepared, mixing two spoonfuls of the paste with it; to do which they use a wooden spoon, which contains just as much as is required for a dozen of skins; and when the whole is well diluted, 2 dozen of the skins are plunged into it; but the water must not be too hot, which would spoil the paste and burn the skins. After they have lain some time in the trough they take them out, one after another, with the hand, and stretch them out; this they do twice, and after they have given them all their paste, they put them into tubs, and there fill them afresh with wooden pebbles. Then they put them into a vat, where they lie 5 or 6 days, or more; then they take them out in fair weather, and hang them to dry on cords or racks; and the quicker they are dried the better; for if they be too long a-drying, the salt and alum within them are apt to make them rise in a grain, which is an essential fault. When the skins are dry, they are made up into bundles, just dipt in fair water, and taken out and drained; they are then thrown into an empty tub; and

after having lain some time are taken out and trampled under foot. Then they draw them over a flat iron instrument, the top of which is round like a battledore, and the bottom fixed into a wooden block, to stretch and open them; and having been opened, they are hung in the air upon cords to dry; and when dry, they are opened a second time, by passing them again over the same instrument. Lastly, they are laid on a table, pulled out and laid smooth, and are then fit for sale.

TAWIXTWI, a town of the United States in the North Western Territory; seated on the Miami. Lon. 84. 4. W. Lat. 40. 33. N.

* **TAWNY**, *adj.* [*tanc, tanne, Fr.*] Yellow, like things tanned.—

In high bora words, the worth of many a knight

From *tawny* Spain, lost.

Shak.

—Eurus his body must be drawn the colour of the *tawny* Moor. *Peacham.*

The *tawny* lion pawing to get free. *Milton.*

—Whilst they make the river Senaga to bound the Moors, so that on the south side they are black, on the other only *tawny* they seem not to derive it from the sun. *Brown.*—

Where's the worth that fets this people up

Above your own Numidia's *tawny* sons? *Addis.*

TAWY, a river of S. Wales, which rises in Brecknockshire; runs parallel to the Neath, and falls into the sea at Swaney Bay.

(1.) * **TAX**, *n. f.* [*tāg, Welsh; taxe, Fr. taxe, Dutch.*] 1. An impost; a tribute imposed; an excise; a tallage.—He, says Horace, being the son of a *tax* gatherer or collector, smells every where of the meanness of his birth. *Dryden.*—

With wars and *taxes* others waste their own,
And houses burn, and household gods deface.

Dryden.

—The *tax* upon tillage was two shillings in the pound in arable land, and four in plantations; this *tax* was often levied in kind upon corn, and called *decumæ* or *tithes*. *Arbutnot.* 2. [*Taxo, Lat.*] Charge; censure.—He could not without some *tax* upon himself and his ministers for executing the laws, look upon the bold licence of some pamphlets. *Clarendon.*

(2.) **TAX**, [*Taxa*, from the Greek *ταξις*, i. e. *ordo tributum*.] is an imposition laid upon the subject for the support of government. See **REVENUE**. It is the ancient indisputable privilege and right of the HOUSE OF COMMONS, that all grants of subsidies or parliamentary aids do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purposes until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. See **COMMONS**. But so reasonably jealous are the commons of this valuable privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of rejecting. The commons, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a *committee of ways and means*, to consider the ways and means of raising the supply so voted. And in this committee every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propose

propose such scheme of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The taxes which are raised upon the subject are either *annual or perpetual*.

1. **TAXES, ANNUAL**, are usually those upon land and malt. See **LAND** and **MALT**.

II. **TAXES, PERPETUAL**, are the customs, the excise-duty, the salt-duty, the post-office, the stamp-duty, the assessed taxes, &c. See **CUSTOMS**, **EXCISE**, **HOUSE**, **HACKNEY**, **OFFICES**, **PENSIONS**, **POST**, and **STAMP**. As to the application of all these, see **CIVIL LIST**, **FUNDS**, **NATIONAL DEBT**, and **REVENUE**.

* **To TAX**, *v. a.* [*taxer*, Fr. from the noun.] 1. To load with imposts.—Jehoiakim *taxed* the land to give the money. 2 *Kings*, xxiii. 35. 2. [*Taxo*, Lat.] To charge; to censure; to accuse. It has *of or with*, and sometimes *for*, before the fault imputed, and is used both of persons and things. —I promised to eat all of his killing.—Niece; you *tax* signior Benedick too much. *Shak.*—I am not justly to be *taxed with* any presumption for meddling with matters wherein I have no dealing.

Raleigh.—

Tax not divine disposal. *Milton.*
—They cannot *tax* others omissions towards them without a tacit reproach of their own. *D. of Piety.*
—He *taxed* not Homer nor Virgil for intertesting their gods in the wars of Troy and Italy; neither would he have *taxed* Milton for his choice of a supernatural agent. *Dryden.*—Men's virtues I have commended as freely as I have *taxed* their crimes. *Dryden.*—

He call'd him back aloud, and *tax'd* his fear. *Dryden.*

Like some rich and mighty murderer,
Who fresher for new mischief does appear,
And dares the world to *tax* him *with* the old.

Dryden.
—If this be chance, it is extraordinary; and I dare not call it more, for fear of being *taxed with* superstition. *Dryden.*—

If he *taxes* both of long delay
My guilt is less, who sooner came away. *Dryd.*
This salutation cannot be *taxed with* flattery. *Addison.*

* **TAXABLE**, *adj.* [from *tax*.] That may be taxed.

(1.) * **TAXATION**, *n. s.* [*taxation*, French; *taxatio*, Lat. from *tax*.] 1. The act of loading with taxes; *impost*; *tax*.—The subjects could taste no sweeter fruits of having a king than grievous *taxations*. *Sidney.*—I bring no overture of war, no *taxation* of homage. *Shak.*—

He daily such *taxations* did exact,
As were against the order of the state. *Daniel.*
Various news I heard,

Of old mismanagements, *taxations* new. *Pope.*
2. Accusation; scandal.—You'll be whipt for *taxation* one of these days. *Shak.*

(2.) **TAXATION**. See **FEODAL SYSTEM**, **REVENUE**, and **TAX**.

* **TAXER**, *n. s.* [from *tax*.] He who taxes.—These rumours begot scandal against the king, taxing him for a great *taxer* of his people. *Bacon.*

TAXILA, in ancient geography, an extensive country of India, between the Indus and the Hydaspes. *Strabo*, &c.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

TAXILES, or } a king of Taxila, called also
TAXILUS. } *Omphis* in the age of Alexander. He submitted to the conqueror, who rewarded him liberally. See **MACEEDON**, § 14.

TAXIMACHILUS, a king in the S. part of Britain, contemporary with Julius Cæsar. *Cæs. de Bel. Gal. c. 22.*

TAXIS, *n. s.* in ancient architecture, the ordonnance; the disposition. *Ash.*

TAXUS, the **YEW TREE**, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *diazia*, and order of *monodelphia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 51st order, *Coniferae*. The male calyx is triphyllous, gemmaceous, and imbricated; there is no corolla; the stamina are numerous; the antheræ peltate and obovate. The female calyx resembles the male; there is no corolla nor style, and only one seed with a calycle resembling a berry very entire. There are 5 species:

1. **TAXUS BACCATA**, the common yew tree, is a native of Britain, France, Switzerland, &c. and of North America. It is distinguished from the other species by linear leaves which grow very close, and by the receptacles of the male flowers being subglobose. The wood is reddish, full of veins, and flexible, very hard and smooth, and almost incorruptible. Its hardness renders it very proper for turners and cabinet-makers. It produces berries which are red, mucilaginous, and have a sweet mawkish taste. They are often eaten by birds, and are therefore not poisonous: But it is a common opinion that the leaves are poisonous to cattle, and many facts are mentioned of horses and cows having died by eating them. But others deny this.

2. **TAXUS CAPENSIS**, a native of the Cape of Good Hope, is mentioned by Mr Sonnerat.

3. **TAXUS MACROPHYLLA** is described by Sir Charles Thunberg, in his *Flora Japonica*, as a native of Japan.

4. **TAXUS NUCIFERA**, the *nut-bearing yew*, is the only other species mentioned by Linnaeus.

5. **TAXUS VERTICILLATA**, another species growing in Japan, is described by Sir C. Thunberg.

(1.) **TAY**, called by the Romans **TAVUS** or **Taus**, a river in Scotland, which contributes a greater quantity of water to the ocean than any river in Great Britain. It rises in Breadalbane, on the frontiers of Lorn; and having augmented its stream by several small rills, spreads itself in to a lake called *Loch Duichart*; out of which having run but a little space, it expands again. Leaving this second lake, it rolls some miles with a considerable body of water, and then diffuses itself into the spacious Loch Tay; which is 16 miles long. Almost as soon as it issues from this lake, which it does under a handsome bridge, it receives the river **LYON**; and pursuing a course due E. it receives, 10 miles farther on, the **TUMMEL**, which conveys the united rivulets of Athol into its channel. Bending them to the S. for 6 miles, it reaches Dunkeld; where an elegant bridge was built in 1806. Declining still to the SE. with a winding course, for above 22 miles, the Tay receives the **ISLA**, and a large supply of waters from the county of Angus; and then running SW. for 8 miles more, is joined in that space by several rivers, the most considerable of which is the **AY**.

mond. Turning then to the SE. this copious river rolls past PERTH, the capital of the county. The Tay, continuing still a SE. course, receives, a few miles below Perth, the river Earn. (See EARN and EARNIE.) Swelled by the waters of this last river, the Tay, running next directly E. enlarges itself till it becomes about 3 miles broad; but contracts again before the town of Dundee; soon after which it opens into the German ocean. At the entrance of the frith, there are sands both on the N. and S. side: the former styled *Gaa*, the latter *Aberlay* and *Drumlan*: and before these, in the very mouth of the frith, those which are called the *Cross Sands*. At Buttonness, which is the northern promontory, there are two light-houses. The space between the N. and the S. sands may be near a mile, with about 3 fathoms water; but being within the frith, it grows deeper, and in the road of Dundee is full 6 fathoms. The frith of Tay is not indeed so large or so commodious as that of Forth, but from Buttonness to Perth it is not less than 40 miles; and the whole may be, without any great impropriety, styled a harbour, which has five on one side, and the shires of Perth and Angus on the other.

(2.) TAY, a river of Ireland, in Waterford, which runs into the sea; 7 miles WNW. of Dun-carvon Bay.

(3.) TAY, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Setchuen; 10 miles N. of Xun.

(4.) TAY, FRITH OF, an arm of the sea, at the mouth of the TAY, (N^o 1.) which divides the county of Fife from those of Perth and Forfar.

(5.) TAY, LOCH, a lake of Perthshire, through which the river Tay runs, 16 miles long, and in many parts above one broad. (See N^o 1.) The banks of this lake are finely shaded with trees; and it has an island, on which are the ruins of a priory built by Alexander I.

TAYA, a river of Austria, which rises near Schweigers; passes by Drosendorf and enters Moravia; then runs past Zams, Laab, &c. and joins the March, 4 miles NE. of Hockenau.

TAYAO, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the province of Yun-nan; 15 m. N. of Yao-ngan.

TAYGETA, or } in the mythology, a daughter
TAYGETE, } ter of Atlas and Pleione, and
mother of LACEDÆMON by Jupiter. She became one of the PLEIADES.

TAYGETUS, a mountain of Laconia, W. of the Eurotas. It hung over Lacedæmon, and a part of it once fell down and destroyed the suburbs. The Spartan women celebrated the BACCHANALIA upon it. *Paus.* iii. 1. *Strabo*, 8.

(1.) TAYLOR, Dr Jeremy, was the son of a barber at Cambridge, where he was educated. He became divinity lecturer of St Paul's in London; and was, by the interest of Abp. Laud, elected fellow of All-soul's college, Cambridge, in 1636. In 1638, he became chaplain to the archbishop, who made him rector of Uppingham in Rutlandshire. In 1642 he was chaplain to the king; and a frequent preacher before him at Oxford. He afterward attended his army as chaplain. Upon the declining of his cause, he retired into Wales, where he officiated as minister, and kept a school. Having spent several years there, he lost 3 sons of great hopes in 3 months. This made him leave

the country, and go to London, where he officiated in a private congregation of loyalists. At length Edward lord Conway carried him over into Ireland, and settled him at Portmore. Upon the Restoration he returned to England; soon after he was advanced to the bishopric of Down and Connor in Ireland. He was likewise made a privy-counsellor and vice-chancellor of the University of Dublin; which he held till his death. He died of a fever at Lisnegarvy in 1657. He was the author of several works on divinity.

(2.) TAYLOR, Dr Brook, was born at Edmington, August 12, 1685. He was the son of John Taylor, Esq. of Bifro's house in Kent, by Olivia, daughter of Sir Nicholas Tempett, of Durham, Bart. His grandfather, Nathaniel Taylor, was one of those puritans whom "Cromwell appointed by letter, June 14, 1653, to represent Bedford in parliament. In 1701 he was entered a Fellow Commoner of St John's College, Cambridge. In 1708 he wrote his treatise *On the Centre of Oscillation*, in the *Phil. Trans.* In 1709, he took his degree of A. B. In 1712, he was chosen F. R. S. In 1712, he presented to the Royal Society three papers: 1. On the Ascent of Water between two Glass Planes; 2. On the Centre of Oscillation; and, 3. On the Motion of a stretched String. In 1713, he presented a paper on Music. In 1714 he was elected secretary: some year he took at Cambridge his degree of LL.D. and sent to Sir Hans Sloane, *An Account of some curious Experiments relative to Magnetism*; which was printed in the *Trans.* In 1715 he published in Latin his *Methodus Incrementorum*; also a curious essay preserved in the *Philos. Trans.* entitled *An Account of an Experiment for the Discovery of the Locus of Magnetic Attraction*; likewise a treatise *On the Principles of Linear Perspective*. In the same year he conducted a controversial correspondence with the Count Raymond de Montmort, on the *Tenets of Malbranche*; which occasioned his being particularly noticed in the eulogium pronounced by the French academy, on that eminent metaphysician. The new philosophy of Newton engaged the attention of mathematicians and philosophers both at home and abroad. In 1716, he went to Paris, where his society was very much courted. In 1717 he returned to London, and wrote 3 treatises, which were published in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. 30. His intense application having impaired his health, he went to Aix-la-Chapelle, and resigned his secretaryship in 1718. After his return in 1719, he applied to subjects of a very different kind, such as *A Treatise on the Jewish Sacrifices*, and a dissertation on the Lawfulness of eating Blood. He also revised his treatise on *Linear Perspective*. Drawing continued also to be his favourite amusement to his last hour. In 1721, he published his last paper in the *Philos. Trans.* entitled, *An Experiment to ascertain the Proportion of Expansion of Liquor in the Thermometer, with regard to the degree of Heat*. In 1721, he also married Miss Bridges of Wallington in Surry. She died in 1725, and he united himself to Miss Sawbridge of Olantigh, in Kent. In 1729, on the death of his father, he succeeded to the family estate of Bifrons. In 1730, he lost his wife in child bed. In the interval between 1721 and 1730, he wrote a

Treatise

Treatise of Logarithms. The essay entitled *Compendiosa Philosophica*, published by Sir William Young in 1793, appears to have been written about this time. Having survived his second wife little more than a year, Dr Brook Taylor died of a decline, aged 40, December 29, 1731. He was a finished Christian, gentleman, and scholar.

(3.) TAYLOR, Dr John, a learned dissenting minister, born in Lancashire. He settled first at Kirkstead in Lincolnshire, where he preached to a small congregation, and taught a grammar-school for near 20 years. Afterwards he removed to Norwich, where he preached many years, until he went to superintend the academy at Warrington in Lancashire. He died in 1761; and among several other performances, was the author of an *Hebrew and English Concordance*, 2 vols. folio.

TAYLOR BIRD. See MOTACILLA.

TAY-MING, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Pe-tche-li; 242 miles SSW. of Pekin.

TAYMOUR CAPE, the utmost extremity of Russia, on the N. See RUSSIA. § I. N° 1.

(1.) TAYNE, an extensive district of Scotland, in Ross-shire, comprehending the greater part of that county. See ROSS, N° 1.

(2.) TAYNE, a town of the above district. See TAIN, N° 3.

(3.) TAYNE, FRITH OF, a bay on the E. side of Tayne or Ross-shire, which runs up 25 miles from the sea, as far as Cape TARBAT, and divides Ross from Sutherland. It is 7 miles broad at the mouth, but is not navigable, as it abounds with quicksands.

TAYNG, a town of Corea, 25 miles S. of Haimen.

TAYNUILT, a village of Scotland, in Argyllshire, on the S. bank of Loch Etive; 6 miles from Bunaw.

TAYOAN. See TAI-OUAN.

TAY-OUAN. See FORMOSA, and TAI-OUAN.

TAYRA, in zoology. See MUSTELA, N° 2.

TAYVAN, an ancient, large, and strong city of China, formerly an imperial residence, agreeably seated among mountains. Lon. 111. 55. E. Lat. 38. 5. N.

TAZ, a river of Russia, which rises from two lakes, Tu and Din, and runs into the Gulf of Tazovskaia. Lon. 98. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 67. 35. N.

(1.) * TAZEL. See TASSEL, N° 2.

(1.) TAZEL, or TEASEL. See DIPSACUS.

(1.) TAZLE, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania; 28 miles N. of Cogni.

(1.) TAZLE, a lake of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania, 36 miles long and 2 broad; 30 miles N. of Cogni.

TAZOVSKAIA, a gulf or bay of Russia, formed by the waters of several rivers in Siberia, and connected with the gulf of Obkskaia. It is 140 miles long, and 3 broad. Lon. 94° to 98° E. Ferro. Lat. 67° 40' to 69° N.

TCENG, a town of China, in Quang-tong.

TCEOU, a town of China, in Chan-tong.

TCHABAR, a river of Chinese Tartary.

TCHABISCH, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi, on the Amur; 40 miles NNE. of Strctenk.

TCHAC, a mountain of Asia, in Thibet.

TCHAGODO, a town and river of Russia, in Novgorod. The river runs into the Mologa.

TCHANG-TCHA, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Hou-quang, on the Heng; 742 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 130. 11. E. Ferro. Lat. 28. 11. N.

TCHANG-TCHEOU, two cities of China, of the 1st rank: 1. In Fo-kien, 950 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 135. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 24. 32. N. 2. In Kiang-nan, 525 miles SSE. of Pekin. Lon. 137. 15. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 50. N.

(1.) TCHANG-TE, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Hou-quang; 717 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 118. 48. E. Ferro. Lat. 29. 2. N.

(2.) TCHANG TE, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Ho-nan, the most northern in the province. It has a fish resembling a crocodile, the fat of which, when kindled, cannot be put out. It has also a mountain too steep and inaccessible, that in time of war the citizens retire to it, and bid defiance to their foes. It comprehends one city of the 2d class, and six of the 3d in its district; and is 255 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 131. 44. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 6. N.

TCHANI, a lake of Russia, in Kolivan, above 200 miles in circuit; 100 miles W. of Kolivan.

TCHAO, a town of China, in Pe-tche-li.

TCHAO-KING, a town of China, of the 1st rank, on the Si; 1062 miles SSW. of Pekin.

TCHARONDA, a town of Russia, in Novogorod, on the Sula; 188 miles ENE. of Novogorod.

TCHASTIJA, an island of Russia, in the Lena, in Irkutskoi; 112 miles NE. of Kirensk.

TCHAUSSI, a town of Russia, in Mogilev.

TCHE-KIANG, or } a province of China,
TCHE-KIENG, } bounded NW. and N.

by Kiang-nan, E. by the sea, S. by Fo-kien, and SW. by Kiang-si. It is 200 miles long, and from 120 to 180 broad. It is one of the chief provinces in the empire, for climate, situation, population, and riches. It abounds with lakes and rivers; and the people are cheerful and polite. Its chief trade is in silk, which may be purchased as cheap as the coarsest woollen cloth in France. The tallow tree, gold fish, excellent hams, and other produce, are exported. It contains 11 cities of the 1st class, and 72 of the 2d, and 18 forts.

TCHOU CHEN, an island of China, 60 miles from Ning-po, where the British embassy first landed.

TCHOU-KONG, a celebrated Chinese astronomer, who flourished above 1000 years before the Christian era, and is said to have invented the MARINER'S COMPASS. He erected a tower in the city of Ho-nan, for an observatory; and there is still to be seen in it an instrument which he made and used for finding the shadow at noon, and determining the latitude.

TCHERA, a town of Ethiopia. See ETHIOPIA, § 8.

TCHERNIGOF, a province of Russia, in the Ukraine. Tchernigof, its capital, is seated on the right bank of the Dnieper.

TCITICAR. See TARTARY, § I. N° I. i.

(1.) * TEA. *n. f.* [A word, I suppose, Chinese: *thé*, Fr.] A Chinese plant, of which the infusion has lately been much drunk in Europe.—

The muses' friend, *tea*, does our fancy aid.

Waller.

—One has a design of keeping an open tea table. *Addison*.—I have filled a tea pot. *Addison*.—He

Y 2

swept

Swept down a dozen *tea* dishes. *Speliator*.—Nor will you encourage the common *tea* table talk. *Speliator*.—Green leaves of *tea* contain a narcotick juice. *Arbutnot*.—

A living *tea* pot stands.

Pope.

—The mistress of the *tea* shop may give half an ounce. *Swift*.—The fear of being thought pedants hath taken many young divines off from their studies, which they have exchanged for plays, to qualify them for *tea* tables. *Swift*.—When you sweep, never stay to pick up *tea* spoons. *Swift*.

(2.) *TEA*, the dried leaves of the *tea* plant.—The *tea* plant is a native of Japan, China, and Tonquin. Linnæus arranged it under the class of *polyandria*, and order of *monogynia*. But several British botanists refer it to the order of *trigynia*; deriving their authority from a plant in the duke of Northumberland's gardens at Sion-house, which had three styles. Linnæus says that there are two species of the *tea* plant; the *bohea*, the corolla of which has six petals; and the *viridis* or green *tea*, which has nine petals. Thunberg makes only one species, the *bohea*, consisting of two varieties; the one with broad and the other with narrow leaves. This botanist's authority is decisive respecting the Japanese *tea* plants; but as China has not yet been explored, we cannot determine what number of species there are in that country. Of the *bohea* plant we have given a figure on *Pl.* 330. *Calyx*. K, *fig.* 1, 2, 3, 10, a perianthium quinquepartite, very small, flat, the segments round, obtuse, permanent, *fig.* 1; K. *Corolla*. C, *fig.* 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, the petals six, roundish, concave; two exterior, *fig.* 4, 7, CC; less, unequal, inclosing the flower before fully blown, *fig.* 3, C; four interior, *fig.* 5, 6, CCCC; large, equal, before they fall off recurvate, *fig.* 8, CC. *Stamina*. f, *fig.* 6, 9, 10, 11, the filaments numerous, *fig.* 6, 9, f; about 200; filiform, white, shorter than the corolla, and inserted in the receptacle, a; the antheras cordate and didymous, *fig.* 10, 11, magnified. *Pistillum*. Fig. 1, 10, 12, magnified; g, the germen, three globular bodies joined in a triangular form; j, the styles, three, connected at their base, *fig.* 12; subulate, recurvate, of the length of the stamens, pressed together, and as if united in one by the thickest surrounding stamens, *fig.* 6, 9, 10; but after the petals and stamens have fallen off they part, spread open, increase in length, and wither on the germen, *fig.* 1, 12; the stigmas simple, t, *fig.* 1, 9, 10, 12. *Pericarpium*. P, *fig.* 1, 13, 14, a capsule in the form of three globular bodies united, *fig.* 13; trilobular, *fig.* 14; gaping at the top in three directions, *fig.* 13. *Seeds*. S, *fig.* 14, single, globose, angulate on the inward side. *Trunk*. T, *fig.* 1, ramose, ligneous, round; branches alternate, vague, stiffish, inclining to ash colour, towards the top reddish; the peduncles axillary, p, *fig.* 1; alternate, single, curved, uniflorous, incrassate, *fig.* 1, 2, 7; stipulate, the stipula single; subulate, erect, d, *fig.* 1, 2, 7, 9. *Leaves*. F, *fig.* 1, 15, 16, 17, alternate, elliptical, obtusely serrated, with the edges between the teeth recurvate, with the apex emarginate, magnified, *fig.* 15, e; at the base very entire, *fig.* 16, 17; the surface smooth, glossy, bullate, venose on the under side, of a firm texture, petiolate; the petioles very short, b, *fig.* 1, 16, 17; round on the

under side, gibbous, *fig.* 16, b, magnified; on the upper side flattish and slightly channelled, *fig.* 17, b. The *tea* plant, which is an evergreen, grows to the height of 5 or 6 feet; Le Compte says 10 or 12. The leaves, which are the only valuable part of it, are about an inch and a half long, narrow, indented, and tapering to a point like those of the sweet briar, and of a dark green colour. The root is like that of the peach tree, and its flowers resemble those of the white wild rose. The stem spreads into many irregular branches. The wood is hard, of a whitish green colour, and the bark is of a greenish colour, with a bitter, nauseous, and astringent taste. The fruit is small, and contains several round blackish seeds, about the bigness of a bean or large pea.

(3.) *TEA*, CULTIVATION, SOIL, &c. PROPER FOR. The *tea* plant delights in valleys, is frequent on the sloping sides of mountains and the banks of rivers, where it enjoys a southern exposure. It flourishes in the N. latitudes of Pekin as well as round Canton, but attains the greatest perfection in the mild temperate regions of Nankin. It is said only to be found between 50° and 45° lat. N. In Japan it is planted round the borders of fields, without regard to the soil; but as it is an important article of commerce with the Chinese, whole fields are covered with it, and it is by them cultivated with care. It is propagated by seeds; from 6 to 12 are put into a hole about 5 inches deep, at certain distances from each other. The reason why so many seeds are sown in the same hole is said to be, that only a fifth part vegetate. Being thus sown, they grow without any other care.

(4.) *TEA*, GATHERINGS AND CROPS OF. The leaves are not fit for being plucked till the shrub be of three years growth. In seven years it rises to a man's height; but as it then bears but few leaves, it is cut down to the stem, and this produces a new crop of fresh shoots the following summer, every one of which bears nearly as many leaves as a whole shrub. Sometimes the plants are not cut down till they are ten years old. We are informed by Kämpfer, that there are three seasons in which the leaves are collected in the isles of Japan, from which the leaves derive different degrees of perfection. The first gathering commences at the end of February or beginning of March. The *tea* is then small, tender, and unfolded, and not above three or four days old: these are called *sicki tsaa*, or "tea in powder," because it is pulverised; it is also called *imperial tea*, being generally reserved for the court and people of rank; and sometimes also it is named *bloom tea*. It is sold in China for 20d. or 2s. per pound. The labourers employed in collecting it do not pull the leaves by handfuls, but pick them one by one, and take every precaution that they should not break them. However long and tedious this labour may appear, they gather from 4 to 10 or 15 pounds a-day. The second crop is gathered about the end of March or beginning of April. At this season part of their leaves have attained their full growth, and the rest are not above half their size. This difference does not, however, prevent them from being all gathered indiscriminately. They are afterwards picked and assorted into different

ferent parcels, according to their age and size. The youngest, which are carefully separated from the rest, are often sold for leaves of the first crop, or for imperial tea. Tea gathered at this season is called *100 shan*, or *Chinse tea*, because the people of Japan infuse it, and drink it after the Chinese manner. The 3d crop is gathered in the end of May or in June. The leaves are then very numerous and thick, and have acquired their full growth. This kind of tea, which is called *Benshaa*, is the coarsest of all. Some of the Japanese collect their tea only at two seasons of the year, which correspond to those already mentioned; others confine themselves to one general gathering of their crop, in June; but they always form afterwards different assortments of their leaves. The finest and most celebrated tea of Japan is that which grows near *Uo-si*, a village near *Meaco* on the coast. In the district of this village is a delightful mountain of the same name, the climate of which is said to be extremely favourable to the culture of tea; it is therefore inclosed by a hedge, and surrounded with wide ditches, which prevent all access to it. The tea shrubs that grow on this mountain are planted in regular order, and are divided by avenues and alleys. The care of this place is entrusted to people who guard the leaves from dust, and defend them from the inclemency of the weather. The labourers who are appointed to collect the tea abstain from every kind of gross food for some weeks before they begin, that their breath and perspiration may not in the least injure the leaves. They gather them with the most scrupulous nicety, and never touch them but with very fine gloves. When this choice tea has undergone the process necessary for its preparation, it is escorted by the superintendent of the mountain and a strong guard to the emperor's court, and reserved for the use of the imperial family.

(5.) **TEA, METHOD OF DRYING AND PRESERVING.** When the tea leaves have been collected, they are exposed to the steam of boiling water; after which they are put upon plates of copper, and held over the fire until they become dry and shrivelled, and appear such as we have them in Europe. *Kœmpfer*, says tea is prepared in the same manner in the isles of Japan. The people of Japan and China generally keep their tea a year before using it, because, when fresh and newly gathered, it possesses a narcotic quality which hurts the brain. Imperial tea is generally preserved in porcelain vases, or in leaden or tin canisters covered with fine mats made of bamboo. Common tea is kept in narrow-mouthed earthen pots; and coarse tea, the flavour of which is not so easily injured, is packed up in baskets of straw.

(6.) **TEA, METHODS OF INFUSING AND DRINKING.** The Chinese pour boiling water over their tea, and leave it to infuse, as we do in Europe; but they drink it without any mixture, and even without sugar. The people of Japan reduce theirs to a fine powder, which they dilute with warm water until it has acquired the consistence of thin soup.

(7.) **TEA, PERIOD OF INTRODUCING INTO EUROPE.** Tea was introduced into Europe in 1610 by the Dutch East India Company. It is generally

said, that it was first imported from Holland to England, in 1666, by the lords Arlington and Ossory, who brought it into fashion among people of quality. But it was used in Coffee-houses before this period, as appears from an act of parliament made in 1660; in which a duty of 2d. was laid on every gallon of the infusion sold in these places. In 1666 it was sold in London for 60s. per pound, though it did not cost more than 2s. 6d. or 3s. 6d. at Batavia. It continued at this price till 1707. In 1715 green tea began to be used; and as great quantities were then imported, the price was lessened, and the practice of drinking tea descended to the lower ranks. In 1720 the French began to send it to us by a clandestine commerce. Since that period the demand has been encreasing yearly, and it has become almost a necessary of life in several parts of Europe, and among the lowest as well as the highest ranks.

(8.) **TEA, QUANTITY OF, IMPORTED INTO EUROPE.** The quantity of tea imported annually into Great Britain and Ireland since 1717, is as follows:

From 1717 to 1736	-	700,000 lbs.
1732 to 1742	-	1,200,000
1755 near	-	4,000,000
1766	-	6,000,000
1785 about	-	12,000,000
1794 from	16 to	20,000,000

Besides these immense quantities imported into Britain and Ireland, much has been brought to Europe by other nations. In 1766 the whole tea imported into Europe from China amounted to 17 millions of pounds; in 1794 it was computed to be about 19 millions of pounds.

(9.) **TEA, RAISING OF PLANTS OF.** Many attempts have been made to introduce this valuable plant into Europe; but from want of proper precautions most of these attempts have miscarried. The seeds, being of an oily nature, are apt to grow rancid during a long voyage, unless proper care is taken to preserve them. The finest tea-plant known in England was raised in Kew gardens; but the first that ever flourished in Europe was one belonging to the Duke of Northumberland at Sion. The plants which are cultivated in the gardens near London thrive well in the green-houses during winter, and some stand that season in the open air. *Linnaeus*, who obtained this shrub in its growing state, contrived to preserve it in the open air in the northern latitude of Sweden. France has also procured some plants. There can be no doubt but they would succeed in many countries of Europe, if proper care were paid to their cultivation till they became inured to the climate.

(10.) **TEA, VARIOUS KINDS OF.** In this country, teas are generally divided into three kinds of *green*, and 5 of *bohea*: The former are, 1. *Imperial* or *bloom tea*, with a large loose leaf, light green colour, and a faint delicate smell. 2. *Hysen*, so called from the merchant who first imported it; the leaves of which are closely curled and small, of a green colour, verging to a blue: And, 3. *Singlo* tea, from the name of the place where it is cultivated. The *bohreas* are, 1. *Souchong*, which imparts a yellow green colour by infusion. 2. *Cambo*, so called from the place where it is made; a fragrant tea, with a violet smell: its infusion pale



pale. 3. *Congo*, which has a larger leaf than the following, and its infusion somewhat deeper, resembling common bohea in the colour of the leaf. 4. *Pekoe tea* is known by the appearance of small white flowers mixed with it. 5. Common *bohea*, whose leaves are of one colour. There are other varieties, particularly a kind of green tea, done up in roundish balls, called *gunpowder tea*.

(II.) **TEA**, in geography, a river of England, in Buckinghamshire; which runs into the Ouse near Stony Stratford.

TEA-BOARD. *n. f.* [*tea and board*.] The board on which the cups are placed. *Ash.*

TEA-CANISTER. *n. f.* A canister to keep tea in. *Ash.*

(1.) * **TEACH**. *v. a.* pret. and part. pass. taught, sometimes *teached*, which is now obsolete. [*teacan*, Saxon.] 1. To instruct; to inform.—

To *teach* a teacher ill becometh me. *Shak.*
—The Lord will *teach* us of his ways. *Isa.* ii. 3.—

Teach us by what means to shun
Th' inclement seasons. *Milton.*

1. To deliver any doctrine or art, or words to be learned.—Moses wrote this song, and *taught* it. *Deut.* xxxi. 22.—*Teaching* for doctrines the commandments of men. *Mat.* xv. 9.—

They *teach* all nations what of him they learn'd. *Milton.*

3. To show; to exhibit so as to impress upon the mind.—I can easier *teach* twenty what were good to be done, than to be one of the twenty to follow my own *teaching*. *Shak.*—If some men *teach* wicked things, it must be that others should practice them. *South.* 4. To tell; to give intelligence.

Huswives are *teach'd*, instead of a clock,
How winter night passeth. *Tupper.*

(2.) * **TEACH**. *v. n.* To perform the office of an instructor.—

I have labour'd,
And with no little study, that my *teaching*,
And the strong course of my authority,
Might go one way. *Shakepeare.*

—The priests *teach* for hire. *Mic.* iii. 11.

* **TEACHABLE**. *adj.* [from *teach*.] Docile; susceptible of instruction.—'Tis sufficient that matters of faith and religion be produced in such a way, as to render them highly credible, so as an honest and *teachable* man may willingly and safely assent to them. *Wilkins.*—We ought to bring our minds free, unbiassed, and *teachable*, to learn our religion. *Watts.*

* **TEACHABLENESS**. *n. f.* [from *teachable*.] Docility; willingness to learn; capacity to learn.

TEACHE. *n. f.* in the sugar manufacture, the 4th copper used. See **SUGAR**, § 10.

* **TEACHER**. *n. f.* [from *teach*.] 1. One who teaches; an instructor; preceptor.—Nature is no sufficient *teacher* what we should do that may attain unto life everlasting. *Hooker.*

I went into the temple, there to hear
The *teachers* of our law. *Milton.*

—These were notions born with us; such as we were taught without the help of a *teacher*. *South.*
Imperious with a *teacher's* air. *Blackmore.*

2. One who without regular ordination assumes the ministry.—Dissenting *teachers* are under no incapacity of accepting civil and military employments. *Swift.* 3. A preacher; one who is to de-

liver doctrine to the people.—The *teach* the churches assembled themselves. *R.*
lecture men, whom precise people fit *teachers*, do seldom honour it. *White.*

Wolves shall succeed for *teachers*.
—He may *teach* his diocese by appoint

South.

TEACHES, an island of Virginia, c of Northampton county.

TEA-CHEST. *n. f.* A cabinet in v brought to table. *Ash.*

TEA-CUP. *n. f.* A cup for drinking

* **TEAD**. or *tede*. *n. f.* [*tada*, Lat.] a flambeau. Not in use.—

A bushy *tead* a groom did light.
Hymen is awake,

With his bright *tead* that flames.

TEA-DISH. *n. f.* See **TEA-CUP**.

TEAGUE. *n. f.* A name of content an Irishman.

TEAK wood. See **TECTONA**.

TEA-KETTLE. *n. f.* A kettle for boiling water for tea.

TEAKI, an island in the Mediterranean, 20 miles long, and 4 broad; anciently called **ITHACA**, the kingdom of **ULYSSES**.

(1.) * **TEAL**. *n. f.* [*teelingb*, Dutch.] A wild fowl.—Some serve for food to us, and some but to feed themselves; among the first sort we reckon the dip-chick, coots, *teal*, wigeon. *Carew.*

(2.) **TEAL**, in ornithology. See **ANAS**, N° 12. and 21.

TEALING, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, on the S. side of the Sidlaw hills, about 8 miles from Dundee, on the road to Glamis. It is 3 miles long, not quite a broad, and is watered by the Fithie. The surface slopes gradually from the hills towards the S. The soil varies from a light loam to a rich black mould, very retentive of moisture. Agriculture is much improved. The population, in 1791, was 802, increase 67 since 1755; but of these, 47 had decreased in 1801, owing to the war. *Craig Owl*, the highest of the Sidlaw hills is in this parish. It is 1100 feet above the sea level. About 380 acres are under plantations. There are several relics of Druidical and Roman antiquity.

* **TEAM**. *n. f.* [*temo*, the team of a carriage, Latin *tyme*; Sax. a yoke.] 1. A number of horses or oxen drawing at once the same carriage.—

Thée a ploughman all unweeting found,
As he his toilsome *team* that way did guide.

Spenser.

We fairies that do run
By the triple Hecate's *team*,
Now are frolic. *Shak.*

The hour before the heavenly harness'd *team*
Begins his golden progress in the East. *Shak.*

—I am in love; but a *team* of horse shall not pluck that from me, nor who it is I love. *Shak.*—

Home with the weary *team* they took their way. *Roscommon.*

A weighty stone, the labour of a *team*. *Dryden.*

—In stiff clays they may plow one acre of wheat with a *team* of horse. *Mortimer.* 2. Any number passing in a line.—

Like a lo g *team* of snowy swans on high.

Dryden.

TEANUM,

TEANUM, two ancient towns of Italy, 1. in Campania, on the Appian road, on the E. bank of the Liris, called also *Sidicinum*, to distinguish it from, 2. another town in the W. of Apulia, on the coast of the Adriatic. *Cic. Cluent.* 9, 69. *Plin.* 31. c. 2.

TEA-PLANT. *n. f.* See **TEA**, and **THÆA**.

TEA-POT. *n. f.* a pot for making tea. Tea-pots are made of various substances and patterns; of silver, pewter, japanned iron, &c. besides China and other earthen wares.

(1.) * **TEAR.** *n. f.* [*ea* in this word is pronounced *e*; *tear*, Saxon; *taaro*, Danish; *tear* rhymes to *cheer*.] 1. The water which violent passion forces from the eyes.—

She comes; and I'll prepare

My *tear-brain'd* eyes to see her miseries. *Shak.*

The pretty vaulting sea refus'd to drown me,
Knowing that thou would'st have me drown'd
on shore

With *tears* as salt as sea, through thy unkind-
ness. *Shak.*

Cromwell, I did not think to shed a *tear*
In all my miseries; but thou hast forc'd me.

Shak.
—*Tears* are the effects of compression of the moisture of the brain. *Bacon.*—

She silently a gentle *tear* let fall. *Milton.*

3. Any moisture trickling in drops.—

Let Araby extol her happy coast,

Her fragrant flow'rs, her trees with precious
tears,

Her second harvests. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **TEAR.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] A rent; a fissure.

(3.) **TEARS** are a lymph or aqueous humour, which is limpid, and a little saltish: it is separated from the arterial blood by the lachrymal glands and small glandulous grains on the inside of the eyelids.

(1.) * **To TEAR**, pret. *tore*, anciently *sare*; part. pass. *torn*; *teran*, Saxon; *tara*, Swedish; *ea* is pronounced as *a*; *tear* rhymes to *square*.] 1. To pull in pieces; to lacerate; to rend; to separate by violent pulling.—

Come, feeling night,

Cancel and *tear* to pieces that great bond
Which keeps me pale. *Shak.*

—Surely he is *torn* in pieces. *Gen.* xlv. 28.—

John *tore* off lord Strutt's servants cloaths. *John Bull.*—Ambassadors sent to Carthage were like to be *torn* to pieces. *Arbutnot.* 2. To laniate; to wound with any sharp point drawn along.—

The women beat their breasts, their cheeks
they *tare*. *Shak.*

—Neither shall men *tear* themselves for them. *Jer.* xvi. 7. 3. To break or take away by violence.—

As storms the skies, and torrents *tear* the
ground,

Thus rag'd the prince. *Dryden.*

4. To divide violently; to shatter.—Is it not as much reason to say, that God destroys fatherly authority, when he suffers one in possession of it to have his government *torn* in pieces. *Locke.* 3. To pull with violence; to drive violently.—

He roar'd, he beat his breast, he *tore* his hair.
Dryden.

On rough seas from their foundations *tore*,
Got by the winds, and in a tempest born. *Dryd.*
Blush rather, that you are a slave to passion,
Which, like a whirlwind, *tears* up all your virtues. *A. Philips.*

6. To take away by sudden violence.—

Solyman

Rhodes and Buda from the Christians *tore*. *Wal.*

The hand of fate

Has *torn* thee from me. *Addison.*

7. To make a violent rent.—

In the midst a *tearing* groan did break. *Shak.*

(2.) * **To TEAR.** *v. n.* [*tieren*, Dutch.] To fume; to rave; to rant turbulently.—All men transported into outrages for small trivial matters, fall under the innuendo of this bull, that ran *tearing* mad for the pinching of a mouse. *L'Estrange.*

* **TEARER.** *n. f.* [from *to tear*.] He who rends or tears.

* **TEARFALLING.** *adj.* [*tear* and *fall*.] Tender; shedding tears.—

Tearfalling pity dwells not in this eye. *Shak.*

* **TEARFUL.** *adj.* [*tear* and *full*.] Weeping; full of tears.—

Is't meet that he

With *tearful* eyes add water to the sea? *Shak.*

This clears the cloudy front of wrinkled
care,

And drives the *tearful* juices of despair. *Pope.*

TEARN, a town of England, in Shropshire and Staffordshire.

TEARUS, a river of ancient Thrace, rising in the same rock from 38 different sources; some of which were hot, and others cold. Darius raised a column on its banks when he marched against the Scythians. *Plin.* iv. c. 11.

* **To TEASE.** *v. a.* [*tejan*, Saxon.] 1. To comb or unravel wool or flax. 2. To scratch cloth in order to level the nap. 3. To torment with importunity; to vex with assiduous importuneness.

Not by the force of carnal reason,

But indefatigable *teasing*. *Butler.*

—My friends always *tease* me about him. *Spett.*—
He was *teased* by his mother to inform her of what
had passed. *Addison.*—

We system makers can sustain,

And with remarks and comments *tease* ye,
In case the thing before was easy. *Prior.*

(1.) * **TEASEL.** *n. f.* [*teaf*, Saxon; *dipsacus*, Lat.] A plant. The species are three; one is called carduus fullonum, and is of singular use in raising the knap upon woollen cloth. *Miller.*

(2.) **TEASEL** is cultivated in the W. of England for the use of clothiers. See **DIPSACUS**.

* **TEASER.** *n. f.* [from *tease*.] Any thing that torments by incessant importunity.—You must take off his little *teaser*, which holds his reason at bay. *Collier.*

* **TEAT.** *n. f.* [*teth*, Welsh; *tit*, Saxon; *tette*, Dutch; *teton*, French.] The dug of a beast; anciently the pap of a woman.—

Even of thy *teat* thou hadst thy tyranny. *Shak.*

—The earth sucks it out of the *teat*. *Bacon.*—
When we perceive that bats have *teats*, we infer,
that they suckle their younglings with milk.
Brown.—

It more pleas'd my sense,
Than smell of sweetest fennel, or the *teats*

Of

Of ewe or goat dropping with milk at even.

Milton.

—Infants are seldom awake but when hunger calls for the *teat*. *Locke.*—

Kind Amalthea reach'd her *teat* dissent

With milk, thy early food.

Prior.

TEA-TABLE, *n. f.* A well known piece of furniture for holding tea (quipage).

TEATE, } or TEGATE, an ancient town of
TEATEA, } Italy in Latium. *Sil Ital.* 8. v. 522.

TEATH, or TEITH, a river of Scotland, in Perthshire; which rises from *Loch Catharine*, in Biquhiddy, whence it runs E. through the lake *Fannachair* and *Loch Achray*, and falls into *Loch Lubnaig*, amidst stupendous rocks and mountains. After issuing from its S.E. extremity, it dashes over many rocks and precipices, in beautiful cataracts, till it reaches the romantic scenery of *CALLANDER*, where it receives a considerable stream from NW. After meandering some miles, it becomes rapid; runs past the church of *Kilmadock*, and the town and castle of *DOUNNE*, where it is joined by the *Ardoch*. After this it runs gently through the valleys of *Blair-Drummond*, and joining the *ALLAN*, falls into the *FORTH*, 3 miles NW. of *Stirling*. It abounds with salmon and trouts; and gives name to *Monteath*, or *MONTEITH*.

TEA-TREE, *n. f.* A moveable board, with a raised border, generally pierced, made of metal, mahogany, or other wood; for holding the tea apparatus.

TEA-TREE of New Zealand, a species of myrtle, of which an infusion was drunk by Captain Cook's people in their voyages round the world. Its leaves were finely aromatic, astringent, and had a particular pleasant flavour at the first infusion; but this went off at the next filling up of the tea-pot, and a great degree of bitterness was then extracted; for which reason it was never suffered to be twice infused. In a fine soil in thick forests this tree grows to a considerable size; sometimes 30 or 40 feet in height, and one foot in diameter. On a hilly and dry exposure it degenerates into a shrub of 5 or 6 inches; but its usual size is about 8 or 10 feet high, and 3 inches in diameter. In that case its stem is irregular and unequal, dividing very soon into branches, which rise at acute angles, and only bear leaves and flowers at top. The flowers are white, and very ornamental to the whole plant. Mr White in his *Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales*, mentions a shrub which he calls a *tea-tree*, merely from its being used by the convicts as a succedaneum for tea; for he had not seen the flower, nor did he know to what genus it belonged. It is a creeping kind of a vine, running to a great extent along the ground: the stalk slender; the leaf not so large as the common bay leaf; the taste sweet, exactly like the liquorice root of the shops.

TEAZEL. See *DIPSACUS*, and *TEASEL*.

TEBALA, a town of Arabia, in Hedejas; 128 miles SSE. of Mecca.

TEBECRIT, a town of Algiers, 2 miles from Ned-Roma, on the coast of the Mediterranean.

TBREEN, a town of Egypt on the Nile; 16 miles N. of Cairo.

TEBELBELT, a town of Africa, in Taflet; 100 miles S. of Sugulmeffa.

TEBESSA, or } an ancient town of Tunis, at
TEBESTA, } the foot of a mountain, on the borders of Algiers, which has several beautiful ruins, and other relics of antiquity. It was anciently very strong, but was taken and ravaged by Muley Mahomet, in 1057. It abounds with wood and water, nuts, almonds, and other fruits; and lies 130 miles SSW. of Tunis, and 125 from the sea coast. Lon. 8. 5. E. Lat. 34. 51. N.

TEBETH, the 10th month of the Jewish ecclesiastical year, and 4th of the civil. It answers to December.

TEBRIS. See *TAURIS*, N° 1.

TEBZA, a strong town of Morocco, capital of a province so named; seated on the side of mount Atlas. It has a good trade. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 32. 50. N.

TECALETH, a town of Morocco, 121 miles WNW. of the city of Morocco.

TECEUT, or } one of the 4 chief towns of Sus,

TECHEIT, } (see *Sus*, N° 1.) seated in a fertile district, on the Sus, abounding with corn, dates, figs, grapes, sugar-canes, &c. It has a manufacture of Morocco leather; and lies 150 miles SW. of Morocco. Lon. 8. 25. E. Lat. 29. 10. N.

TECH, a river of France, which rises in the Pyrenees, and runs into the Mediterranean near Elne, in the dep. of the Eastern Pyrenees.

TECHERNIGOF. See *TCHERNIGOF*.

TECHES, a mountain of Pontus, from the top of which Xenophon and his 10,000 Greeks first saw the sea. *Xenophon* 4.

TECHIA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the Arabian Irak; 160 miles N. of Bagdad.

* TECHILY. *adv.* [from *techy*] Peevishly; fretfully; frowardly.

* TECHINESS. *n. f.* [from *techy*.] Peevishness; fretfulness.

TECHMESSA, the daughter of Teuthras, king of PHYRGIA, who was carried captive by Ajax, and became mother of his son *Erysiac* by him. She afterwards prevented him from killing himself; which forms the subject of a scene in one of Sophocles's tragedies.

(1.) * TECHNICAL. *adj.* [*τεχνικός*; *technique*, Fr.] Belonging to arts; not in common or popular use.—In *technical* words, or terms of art, they refrain not from calling the same substance sometimes the sulphur, and sometimes the mercury of a body. *Locke*.

(2.) TECHNICAL, expresses somewhat relating to arts and sciences. It is also particularly applied to a kind of verses wherein are contained the rules or precepts of any art, thus digested to help the memory to retain them.

* TECHY. *adj.* Peevish; fretful; irritable; easily made angry; froward.—

He is as *techy* to be woo'd to wooe,

As he is stubborn-chaffe against all suite. *Shak.*—Pretty fool, to see it *techy*, and fall out with the dug. *Shak.*—

TECK, a ci-devant county of Suabia, in the duchy of Wirtemberg, to which it is now annexed. It is 12 miles SE. of Stutgard.

(1.) TECKLENBURG, a county of Germany, in Westphalia, bounded on the N. and E. by the billicpie

bishopric of Osnaburg, and on the S. and W. by the ci-devant bishopric of Munster; about 20 miles long and 10 broad. It was anciently more extensive, and included the county of Lingen and part of Munster. The soil is fertile in corn and pasture; the rivers abound in fish; linen is the chief manufacture. It had formerly counts of its own; but they failing, it fell to the house of Solms-Braunfels, who sold it to the king of Prussia in 1707.

(2.) **TECKLENBURG**, the capital of the above county, has a castle built on a hill. It was bought by the king of Prussia in 1707. Lon. 8. 2. W. Lat. 53. 20. N.

TECLUT. See **TECEUT**.

TECMESSA. See **PHRYGIA**, N^o I. and **TECHMESSA**.

TECOMON, an ancient town of Epirus. *Liv.*

TECANTAPEQUE, a sea port town of Mexico, in Guaxaca, at the foot of a volcano, near the coast of the Pacific Ocean; 160 miles SE. of Acapulco. Lon. 99. 10. W. Lat. 15. 2. N.

TECORT, an ancient and strong town of Morocco, capital of a kingdom so named, in Biledalgerid, seated on a mountain. The people are kind to strangers. Lon. 7. 55. E. Lat. 29. 35. N.

TECRIT, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Mosul; built on a rock, near the W. bank of the Tigré, bordering on Arabian Irak; 130 miles S. of Mosul, and 360 NW. of Bagdad.

TECTAMUS, the son of Dorus, grandson of Helen, and great-grandson of DEUCALION. He went to Crete at the head of a body of Ætoliens and Pelasgi; was made king of Crete, and married a daughter of king Cretheus, by whom he had a son named Aferius.

TECTONA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*. The stigma is dentate; the fruit a dry spongy plum within an inflated calyx; and the nucleus is trilocular. There is only one species, viz.

TECTONA GRANDIS, *Indian oak*, or **TEAK WOOD**, which is a native of India.

* **TECTONICK**. *adj.* [*τεκτονικος*.] Pertaining to building. *Bailey*.

TECTOSAGÆ, or) an ancient nation of Gal-

TECTOSAGES, } lia Narbone: tis, so named because *sagis tegerentur*, they were protected by *furera*. They were among those Gauls who pillaged Rome under Brennus, (see **ROME**, § 22.); and afterwards attempted to plunder the temple of Apollo at Delphi. On their return home, they were attacked by a pestilence; and to stop it, were ordered to throw into the river all the plunder. Some of them went into Germany and settled in the Hercynian forest; another colony passed into Asia, and conquered Phrygia, Cappadocia, and Paphlagonia. *Cæs. de Bel. Gal. vi. 23. Strabo 4. Liv. 38. c. 16.*

TECUCZI, or **TECUTSCH**, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, on the Berbecz; 70 miles WNW. of Galatz.

TECULET, a sea port town of Morocco, on the side of a mountain, at the mouth of a river so named, on the coast of the Atlantic. In 1514 it was taken and sacked by the Portuguese, and great numbers of the Moors sold for slaves. It

VOL. XXII. PART I.

has been since repeopled; and lies 45 miles W. of Morocco. Lon. 9. 5. W. Lat. 30. 45. N.

TECUM, a river of ancient Gaul, running down from the Pyrenees into the Mediterranean.

TECUTSCH. See **TECUCZI**.

* *To TED*. *v. a.* [*teadan*, Saxon, to prepare.] To lay grass newly mown in rows.—

The smell of grain, or *tedded* grass. *Milton*.—Haymakers following the mowers, and casting it abroad, they call *tedding*. *Mortimer*.—

Prudent his fallen heaps

Collecting, cherish'd with the tepid wreaths—

Of *tedded* grass.

Philips.

TEDANUS, a river of Liburnia. *Plin. 3.*

TEDBURY. See **TETBURY**.

* **TEDDER**, or *tether*. *n. f.* [*tudder*, Dutch; *tindt*, a rope, Islandick.] 1. A rope with which a horse is tied in the field that he may not pasture too wide. *Teigber*, Erle. 2. Any thing by which one is restrained.—We lived joyfully, going abroad within our *tedder*. *Bacon*.—We know the length of their *tedder*. *Chibol*.

TEDDINGTON, a small town of England, in Middlesex, on the Thames; 12 miles WSW. of London.

TEDELEZ, a strong town of Algiers, in a province so named, on the coast of the Mediterranean, with a castle, and a great fishery; 50 miles NE. of Algiers. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 47. 5. N.

(1.) * **TE DEUM**. *n. f.* An hymn of the church, so called from the two first words of the Latin.—

The choir

Together sung *te Deum*.

Shak.

—*Te Deum* was sung at Saint Paul's after the victory. *Bacon*.

(2.) **TE DEUM** is sung in the Romish church with great pomp and solemnity upon the gaining of a victory, or other happy event; and is believed to be the composition of St AMBROS bishop of Milan.

TEDIEN, a river of Persia, which runs into the Caspian Sea, 20 miles W. of Zaveh.

TEDIÉ, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Aleppo; 21 miles E. of Aleppo.

TEDINGHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, in the duchy of Bremen; 9 miles S. of Otterberg.

* **TEDIOUS**. *adj.* [*tediosus*, Fr. *tedium*, Lat.]

1. Wearisome by continuance; troublesome; *irksome*.—

The one intense, the other still remiss,

Tedious alike.

Milton.

Pity only on fresh objects stays,

But with the *tedious* sight of woes decays.

Dryden.

2. Wearisome by prolixity. Used of authors or their performances.—They unto whom we shall seem *tedious* are in nowise injured by us. *Hooker*.—That I be not further *tedious* unto thee, hear us. *Alb. xxiv. 4.*—

Chief mastery to dissect

With long and *tedious* havock fabled knights.

Milton.

3. Slow.—

What men thought a *tedious* course to run,
Was finish'd in the hour it first begun. *Harte*.

7. * **TEDIOUSLY**

* **TEDIOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *tedious*.] In such a manner as to weary.

* **TEDIOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *tedious*.] 1. Wearisomeness by continuance.—

She distastes them all within a while,
And in the sweetest finds a *tediousness*. *Dorries*.
2. Wearisomeness by prolixity.—In vain we labour
to persuade them that any thing can take away
the *tediousness* of prayer. *Hooker*. 3. Prolixity;
length.—

Since brevity's the soul of wit,
And *tediousness* the limbs and outward flourishes,

I will be brief. *Shak.*

4. Unenfranchisement; tiresomeness; quality of wearying.
—*Tediousness* cannot fall into those operations that
are in the state of bliss when our union with God
is complete. *Hooker*.—

Thus friends absent speak: this ease con-
trouls

The *tediousness* of my life. *Donne*.
TEDLA, a province of Morocco, extending
along the E. side of Mount Atlas to the borders
of Fez and Algiers.

TEDNEST, or } a city of Morocco, capital of
TEDOEST, } the province of Hea, seated
on a river which surrounds it. In 1517 it was
taken and destroyed by the Portuguese; but re-
built soon after, partly by the Jews. The inha-
bitants are very hospitable. Lon. 8. 35. W. Lat.
30. 30. N.

TEDSI, a town of Morocco, in Sue, seated on
a plain abounding in corn; 17 miles from Mount
Atlas. 20 E. of Tarodant, and 90 SW. of Mo-
rocco.

(1.) * **To TEEM.** *v. n.* [*team*, Sax. offspring.]
1. To bring young.—

If the must *teem*,
Create her child of spleen, that it may live,
And be a thwart dissatur'd torment to her.

Shak.

2. To be pregnant; to engender young.—
Is not my *teeming* date drunk up with time?

Shak.

Teeming buds and cheerful greens appear.
Dryden.

—These are *teeming* truths, rich in store. *Locke*.

3. To be full; to be charged as a breeding ani-
mal.—We live in a nation where there is scarce
a single head that does not *teem* with politicks.
Addison.

(2.) * **To TEEM.** *v. a.* 1. To bring forth; to
produce.—

What's the newest grief?

Each minute *teems* a new one. *Shak.*

Common mother, thou

Whose womb unmeasurable, and infinite breast,

Teems and feeds all. *Shak.*

The earth obey'd; and strait

Op'ning her fertile womb, *teem'd* at a birth

Innumerable living creatures. *Milton*.

—The deluge wrought such a change, that the
earth did not then *teem* forth its increase as for-
merly. *Woodward*. 2. To pour. A low word,
imagined by Skinner to come from *tommen*, Da-
nish, to draw out; to pour. The Scots retain it;
as, *teem* that water out; hence *Swift* took this

word.—*Teem* out the remainder of the ale into
the tankard. *Swift*.

* **TEEMER.** *n. f.* [from *teem*.] One that brings
young.

* **TEEMFUL.** *adj.* [*teamful*, Saxon.] 1. Preg-
nant; prolific. 2. Raimful. *Sinsworth*.

* **TEEMLESS.** *adj.* [from *teem*.] Unfruitful;
not prolific.—

Such a *teemless* earth. *Dryden*.

* **TEEN.** *n. f.* [*tinan*, Saxon, to kindle; *teen*,
Flemish, to vex; *teonan*, Saxon, injuries.] Sorrow;
grief. Not in use.—

That barehead knight, for dread and doleful
teen,

Would fain have fled. *Spenser*.

Fry not in heartless grief and doleful *teen*.
Spenser.

My heart bleeds
To think o' th' *teen* that I have turn'd you to.

Shak.

Eighty odd years of sorrow have I *teen*,
And each hour's joy wreck'd with a week of
teen. *Shak.*

* **To TEEN.** *v. a.* [from *tinan*, to kindle, Saxon.]
To excite; to provoke to do a thing. Not in use.
Spenser.

* **TEENS.** *n. f.* [from *teen* for *ten*.] The years
reckoned by the termination *teen*; as, thirteen
fourteen.—

Our author would excuse these youthful
scenes,

Begotten at his entrance in his *teens*. *Grave*.

TEERAH, a province of Asia, in Cabul, W. of
Paislawar.

TEERRAWHITTE, a cape on the SW. point
of the northernmost island of New Zealand, N.
of Cook's Straits.

TEES, a river of England, which rises on the
confines of Cumberland, and running eastward
divides the county of Durham from Yorkshire
and falls into the German Sea below Stockton.

TEESTA, a river of Thibet, which runs into
the Ganges by two streams; the one 25 miles
N. of Moorshedabad, the other 80 miles ESE
of it.

(1.) * **TEETH**, the plural of *tooth*.—His *teeth*
are terrible round about. *Job* xli. 14.

(2.) **TEETH**, the bones placed in the jaws for
chewing food, that it may be the more easily di-
gested in the stomach. For the anatomical struc-
ture of these, see *ANATOMY* and *ZOOLOGY*.
The diseases to which they are liable, with the
most successful remedies, are fully detailed under
MEDICINE and *SURGERY*. Quacks and mount-
banks use various washes for teeth, the sudden
effects of which, in cleaning and whitening of
teeth, surprise and please people; but the effects
are very pernicious. All the strong acid spirits
will do this. The best mixture is the following:
Take plantane-water an ounce, honey of roses two
drams, muriatic acid ten drops; mix the whole
and rub the teeth with a piece of linen rag dipped
in this every day till they are whitened. The
mouth ought to be well washed with cold water
after the use of this or any other acid liquor; and
indeed the best of all washes is cold water, with
or without a little salt; the constant use of the

will keep them clean and white, and prevent them from aching.

(3.) **TEETH**, of various sorts of machines as of mill wheels, &c. These are often called *cogs* by the workmen; and by working in the pinions, rounds, or trundles, the wheels are made to turn one another. Mr Emerson (in his *Mechanics*, prop. 25.) treats of the theory of teeth, and shews that they ought to have the figure of epicycloids, for properly working in one another.

* **To TEETH**, *v. n.* [from the noun.] To breed teeth; to be at the time of dentition.—When the symptoms of *teething* appear, the gums ought to be relaxed. *Arbuthnot.*

TEETHING, *part. n. f.* See **MEDICINE**, *Index*.
TEFELSDORF, a town of Transylvania.

TEFEN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 28 miles SW. of Amaseh.

TEFESSAD, a town of Algiers, anciently called *Tifa*. It has mines along the coast of the Mediterranean, for three miles. It is 32 miles SW. of Algiers. Lon. 2. 54. E. Lat. 36. 32. N.

TEFETHNE, a town and river of Morocco. The town is 60 miles W. of Morocco; the river runs into the sea at Mogador.

TEFEZARA, an ancient, large, and strong town of Barbary, in Tremesen, 12 miles from Tremesen; famous for its mines of iron.

TEFF, in botany, a kind of grain, sown all over Abyssinia, from which is made the bread commonly used throughout the country. Mr Bruce says it is herbaceous; and that from a number of weak leaves surrounding the root proceeds a stalk of about 28 inches in length, not perfectly straight, smooth, but jointed or knotted at particular distances. This stalk is not much thicker than that of a carnation or julyflower. About five inches from the top, a head is formed of a number of small branches, upon which it carries the fruit and flowers; the latter of which are small, of a crimson colour, and scarcely perceptible by the naked eye but from the opposition of that colour. The pistil is divided into two, seemingly attached to the germ of the fruit, and has at each end small capillaments forming a brush. The stamina are 3; two on the lower side of the pistil, and one on the upper. These are each of them crowned with two oval stigmata, at first green, but afterwards crimson. The fruit is formed in a capsula, consisting of two conical hollow leaves, which, when closed, seem to compose a small conical pod, pointed at the top. The fruit or seed is oblong, and is not so large as the head of the small-ed pin; yet it is very prolific, and produces these seeds in such abundance, as to yield a very great quantity of meal. Of this teff bread the natives make a liquor. When well toasted, it is broken into small pieces, which are put into a large jar, and have warm water poured upon them. It is then set by the fire, and often stirred for several days, the mouth of the jar being close covered. After being allowed to settle 3 or 4 days, it acquires a sourish taste, and is what they call *bouza*, or the common beer of the country. The bouza in Athara is made in the same manner, only instead of teff, cakes of barley-meal are employed. Both are very bad liquors, but the worst is that made of barley.

TEFFEREG, a town of Bohemia, in Salzburg.

TEFFLIS, or **TIFFLIS**, a city of Asia, the capital of Georgia, one of the 7 principalities between the Black Sea and the Caspian. It is the residence of the sovereign, and is called by the inhabitants *Thilis Cabar*, i.e. *warm town*, from the warm baths in its neighbourhood. Though its circumference does not exceed two English miles, it contains 20,000 inhabitants, of which more than half are Armenians; the remainder are chiefly Georgians, with some Tartars. Major Rennel says, it has 20 Armenian and 15 Greek churches, and 3 *metheeds*. But Mr Cox, on the authority of Prof. Guldenstaedt, says, there are one Roman Catholic, 13 Greek, and 7 Armenian churches. There are some magnificent caravanseras, bazars, and palaces in the city, but no mosques. The houses are neatly built; the rooms are waincotted, and the floors spread with carpets. The streets are very narrow and filthy. Teflis is a place of considerable trade, especially in furs, which are sent hence to Constantinople by Erzerum. The silks are bought up on the spot by the Armenians, and exported to Smyrna and other ports of the Mediterranean, but the greatest part is first sent to Erzerum to be manufactured. Great quantities of a root called *baya* are also sent to Erzerum and Idofan for the use of the linen dyers. Here is likewise a foundry, at which are cast cannons, mortars, and balls. The gunpowder made here is very good. The Armenians have likewise established in this town all the manufactures carried on by their countrymen in Persia; the most flourishing is that of printed linens. Teflis is seated on the river Kur, at the foot of a mountain; and on the S. side of it stands a large castle or fortress, built by the Turks in 1576, when they made themselves masters of the city and country, under the command of the famous Mustafa Pacha. It is 125 miles W. of Terki. Lon. 63. 3. E. Lat. 41. 59. N.

TEFUT, a town of Africa in Durah.

TEFZA, a town of Morocco, on the side of a mountain, with walls of marble; 70 miles NE. of Morocco.

TEFZRA, a town of Algiers; 55 miles SSW. of Oran.

TEGADOO, a bay on the E. coast of the N. island of New Zealand.

TE-GAN, a city of China, of the first rank, capital of the province of Hou-quang; famous for worms which make white wax, like bees. Lon. 112. 31. E. Lat. 31. 0. N.

TEGAZA, a town of Africa, in Zaara, capital of a district so named, containing mountains of rock salt. It lies E. of Senegal, 300 miles from the Atlantic. Lon. 6. 30. E. Lat. 21. 40. N.

TEGEA, an ancient town of Peloponnesus, where Orestes's gigantic bones were found. It was famous for its temples to Apollo, Pan, Ceres, Proserpine, and Venus.

(1.) **TEGEATES**, a son of Lycaon, the founder of **TEGEA**.

(2.) **TEGBATES**, the people of **TEGEA**.

TEGEGET, or } a town of Africa, in Fez;
TEGEGILT, } 120 miles SSW. of Fez.

TEGERHY, a principal town of Fezzan, about

80 miles SW. of the capital. Dates and Indian corn are its chief produce.

TEGEUT. See TECEUT.

TEGLIO, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the Valteline, capital of a ci-devant district so named. The town is seated on a mountain, 9 miles from Tirano, and 12 from Sondrio. In 1620, all the Protestants in this town and throughout the Valteline, were barbarously massacred. It is 20 miles SW. of Bormio, and 20 ENE. of Morbegno.

TEGOMAN, a town of Africa, in Soudan; 550 miles S. of Mourzook.

* TEGUMENT. *n. f.* [tegmentum, Latin.] Cover; the outward part. This word is seldom used but in anatomy or physics.—Trim those tender strings in the fashion of beard, or other hairy teguments. *Brocon*.—Proceed by section, separating the teguments. *Wifeman*.—In the nutmeg another tegument is the mace. *Ray*.

TEGYRA, a town of Æthiopia, memorable for a battle fought between the Thebans and Peloponnesians. It had a temple of Apollo. It is now called *Mekbia*.

TEGYRÆUS, a surname of Apollo.

TEHAMA, a barren sandy belt or district which surrounds the peninsula of ARABIA, from Suez to the mouth of the Euphrates. Its breadth varies, but in general, it is about two days journey from the sea coast to the rise of the hills.

* To TEH-HE. *v. n.* [a cant word made from the found.] To laugh with a loud and more insolent kind of cachinnation; to titter.—

They laugh'd and *teh-he'd* with derision.

Hudibras.

TE HING, a town of China, in Kiang-fi.

TEIA, the last king of the OSTROGOTHS, in Italy. See ITALY, § 13.

(1.) TEICHEL, a town of Upper Saxony; 6 miles N. of Rudolstadt, and 20 E. of Arnstadt.

(2.) TEICHEL, or } a river of Germany, in CA-
TEICHL, } rinthia, which runs into the
Moli, near Naplach.

TEIGN, a river of England, in Devonshire, formed by two rivulets, which rise in the centre of the county; and after uniting, run into the English Channel at Teignmouth.

TEIGNMOUTH, a sea-port town of Devonshire, which carries on a great coasting trade, sending pipe clay, &c. to Liverpool, and importing coals, salt, earthen wares, &c. It also sends many vessels to the Newfoundland fishery. At this port the Danes first landed. It is seated on the mouth of the *Teign*, 12 miles S. of Exeter, and 280 W. by S. of London. Lon. 3. 29. W. Lat. 50. 32. N.

(1.) TEIL, a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine; 7½ miles S. of Guerche, and 15 SE. of Rennes.

(2.) * TEIL TREE. *n. f.* [*tilia*, Lat.] The same with linden or lime tree; which see.—A *teiltree* and an oak have their substance in them. *Ips*. vi. 13.

(3.) TEIL TREE, in botany. See TILIA.

TEILLEUL, a town of France, in the department of the Channel; 6 miles S. of Mortain, and 21 ESE. of Avranches.

TEIN, a towns of Bohemia; 1. in Bechin, 4

miles S. of Bechin, and 51 S. of Prague; 2. in Pilsen, 6 miles NE. of Tachau.

(1.) TEIND. *n. f.* in Scots Law. See LAW, Part III. Chap. II. Sect. X.

(2.) TEINDS, COMMISSION OF. See COMMISSION, § VI.

TEINITZ, a town of Bohemia, in Pilsen.

(1.) * TEINT. *n. f.* [*teinte*, Fr.] Colour; touch of the pencil.—The different *teints* are simply laid on, each in its place. *Dryden*.

(2.) TEINTS, and SEMITEINTS, in painting, denote the several colours used in a picture, considered as more or less high, bright, deep, thin, or weakened and diminished, &c. to give the proper relieve, softness, or distance, &c. of the several objects.

TEIN-YUEN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-fi; 20 miles SSW. of Tai.

TEIOS. See TEOS.

TEISBACH, a town of Bavaria, 13 miles ENE. of Landshut.

TEISENDORF, a town of Bavaria, 12 miles WNW. of Saltzburg.

TEITH. See TEATH. This river gives name to the district of MONTEITH, which it runs through.

TEIUM, a town of Paphlagonia, on the Euxine Sea.

TEKAT, a town of Asiatic Turkey in Natolia; 10 miles N. of Kiangari.

TEKAWY, in the language of Bengal, money advanced by government to the proprietors of lands, to assist them under circumstances of distress.

TEKEBI, a town of Egypt; 22 miles WSW. of Damietta.

TEKIN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania; 10 miles W. of Tocat.

TEKKIUR, mountains of European Turkey, in Romania; 32 miles SSE. of Adrianople.

TEKLA, a town of Bohemia, in Chrudim.

TELA, an ancient town of Spain.

TELACH, an island of Russia, in the Penzinskoi Sea. Lon. 177. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 61. 35. N.

TELAMON, a celebrated Grecian hero, the son of ZEACUS and Endeis; brother of PLEUS and PHOCUS; and father of TEUCER and AJAX. Having accidentally killed his brother Phocus, he fled from Megara, his birth-place; and arriving at SALAMIS, married Glaucé, the daughter of king Cychreus, whom he succeeded. He was one of the ARGONAUTS, and accompanied Hercules, when he took Troy, who gave him the princely HESIONE to wife.

TELAMONE, a town of Naples, the chief port of the Presidii, 10 miles N. of Orbitello. It is famous for the victories obtained by the Romans, under the consuls C. A. Regulus and Æmilii Lepidus over the Gauls.

* TELARY. *adj.* [*tela*, a web, Lat.] Spinning webs.—The pictures of *telary* spiders, and their position in the web, are commonly made lateral. *Brocon*.

TEICHINES, an ancient people of Rhodes, originally from Crete. They were the inventors of many useful arts, whence the poets fabled that they could change themselves into whatever shapes they pleased. *Died*.

TEL CHINIA,

TELCHINIA, a territory of Crete, whence the Telchines emigrated to Rhodes.

TELGCHIS, the son of Europus, and grandson of *Ægialeus*; one of the first kings of Peloponnesus.

TELEBOIDES. See **TAPHIÆ**.

TELEBOUS. See **TAPHIUS**.

TELEGONUS, a son of Ulysses, by *CIRCE*, born in *Ætea*. He went to Ithaca, to seek his father, but being shipwrecked on the coast, he got into a quarrel with the people after landing, and killed his father in the squabble without knowing him, to his great grief, upon the discovery. He afterwards founded *Tusculum* in Italy, and left a daughter, named *Mamilia*, from whom the Roman family of *Mamilii* claimed their name and descent.

(1.) **TELEGRAPH**. *n. f.* [from *τῆλε*, *far off*, and *γραφω*, *to write*,] the name very properly given to an instrument by means of which information may be almost instantaneously conveyed to a considerable distance.

(2.) **TELEGRAPH, ANCIENT ATTEMPTS TO DISCOVER THE**. The telegraph, though it has been generally known and used by the moderns only for a few years, is perhaps not entirely a modern invention. There is reason to believe that amongst the Greeks there was some sort of telegraph in use. The burning of Troy is said to have been known in Greece very soon after it happened, and before any person had returned from thence. But we have no certainty of this. The Chinese, when they send couriers on the great canal, or when any great man travels there, make sign: by fire from one day's journey to another, to have every thing prepared; and most of the barbarous nations used formerly to give the alarm of war by fires lighted on the hills or rising grounds. Polybius calls the different instruments used by the ancients for communicating information *πυροὶ*, *πυρρῆ*, because the signals were always made by fire. At first they communicated information of events merely by torches; but this method was of little use, because it was necessary before hand to fix the meaning of every particular signal. *Æneas*, a contemporary of Aristotle, who wrote a treatise on the duties of a general, endeavoured to correct those imperfections, but by no means succeeded. His method was defective, because it could not convey any other intelligence except what was written on the sticks, and even that not exactly. With regard to all unforeseen events, it was quite useless. A method was invented by *Cleoxenus*, or *Democritus*, and very much improved by *Polybius*, as he himself informs us. This was by the letters of the Greek alphabet, divided into five parts. But neither this nor any other method mentioned by the ancients seems ever to have been brought into general use.

(3.) **TELEGRAPH, DISCOVERY OF THE**. The most ingenious of the moderns had not thought of such a machine as a *telegraph* till 1663, when the Marquis of Worcester, in his *CENTURY OF INVENTIONS*, affirmed that he had discovered "a method by which, at a window, as far as eye can discover black from white, a man may hold discourse with his correspondent, without noise made or notice taken; being according to occa-

sion given, or means afforded *ex re nata*, and no need of provision before hand; though much better if foreseen, and course taken by mutual consent of parties." This could be done only by means of a telegraph, which in the next sentence is declared to have been rendered so perfect, that by means of it the correspondence could be carried on "by night as well as by day, though as dark as pitch is black."

(4.) **TELEGRAPH, IMPROVEMENT OF THE**. About 40 years after this, M. Amontons proposed a telegraph. His method was this: Let there be people placed in several stations, at such a distance from one another, that by the help of a telescope a man in one station may see a signal made in the next before him; he must immediately make the same signal, that it may be seen by persons in the station next after him, who are to communicate it to those in the following station, and so on. Amontons tried this method in a small tract of land before several persons of the highest rank at the court of France.

(5.) **TELEGRAPH, PERFECTION OF THE, IN FRANCE**. It was not till the French revolution that the telegraph was applied to useful purposes. M. Chappe invented the telegraph first used by the French about the end of 1793. On principles nearly similar, to those of Amontons. The manner of using this telegraph was as follows: At the first station which was on the roof of the palace of the Louvre at Paris, M. Chappe, the inventor, received in writing, from the committee of public safety, the words to be sent to Lille, near which the French army then was. An upright post was erected on the Louvre, at the top of which were two transverse arms, moveable in all directions by a single piece of mechanism, and with inconceivable rapidity. He invented a number of positions for these arms which stood as signs for the letters of the alphabet; and these, for the greater celerity and simplicity, he reduced in number as much as possible. The intermediate operators were only instructed generally in sixteen signals; which were so distinct, so marked, so different the one from the other, that they were easily remembered. The construction of the machine was such, that each signal was uniformly given in precisely the same manner at all times. M. Chappe having received at the Louvre the sentence to be conveyed, gave a known signal to the 2d station, which was Mont Martre, to prepare. At each station there was a watch tower, where telescopes were fixed, and the person on watch gave the signal of preparation which he had received, and this communicated successively through all the line, which brought them all into a state of readiness. The person at Mont Martre then received, letter by letter, the sentence from the Louvre, which he repeated with his own machine; and this was again repeated from the next height, with inconceivable rapidity, to the final station at Lille. The first description of the telegraph was brought from Paris to Frankfurt on the Maine by a ci-devant member of the parliament of Bourdeaux, who had seen that which was erected on the mountains of Belville. As given by Dr Hutton from some of the English papers, it is as follows. AA is a beam or mast

of wood placed upright on a rising ground, (*Plate CCCXXXI. fig. 1.*) which is about 15 or 16 feet high. BB is a beam or balance moving upon the centre AA. This balance-beam may be placed vertically or horizontally, or any how inclined, by means of strong cords, which are fixed to the wheel D, on the edge of which is a double groove to receive the two cords. This balance is about 11 or 12 feet long, and 9 inches broad, having at the ends two pieces of wood CC, which likewise turn upon angles by means of four other cords that pass through the axis of the main balance, otherwise the balance would derange the cords; the pieces C are each about 3 feet long, and may be placed either to the right or left, straight or square, with the balance-beam. By means of these three, the combination of movement is very extensive, remarkably simple, and easy to perform. Below is a small wooden hut, in which a person is employed to observe the movements of the machine. In the mountain nearest to this another person is to repeat these movements, and a 3d to write them down. The time taken up for each movement is 20 seconds; of which the motion alone is 4 seconds, the other 16 the machine is stationary. Two working models of this instrument were executed at Frankfort, and sent by Mr W. Playfair to the Duke of York; and hence the plan and alphabet of the machine came to England.

(6.) TELEGRAPH, STILL FARTHER IMPROVED IN ENGLAND. Various experiments were in consequence tried upon telegraphs in this country; and one was soon after set up by government in a chain of stations from the admiralty-office to the sea coast. It consists of six octagon boards, each of which is poised upon an axis in a frame, in such a manner that it can be either placed vertically, so as to appear with its full size to the observer at the nearest station, as in *fig. 2.* or it becomes invisible to him by being placed horizontally, as in *fig. 3.* so that the narrow edge alone is exposed, which narrow edge is from a distance invisible. *Fig. 2.* is a representation of this telegraph, with the parts all shut, and the machine ready to work. T, in the officer's cabin, is the telescope pointed to the next station. *Fig. 3.* is a representation of the machine not at work, and with the ports all open. The opening of the first port (*fig. 2.*) expresses *a*, the 2d *b*, the 3d, *c*, the 4th *d*, the 5th *e*, and the 6th *f*, &c. Six boards make 36 changes, by the most plain and simple mode of working; and they will make many more if more were necessary.

(7.) TELEGRAPH, STILL FARTHER IMPROVEMENTS OF THE PROPOSED. Several other improvements have been proposed; but none, perhaps, of the telegraphs hitherto offered to the public exceeds the following, either in simplicity, cheapness, or facility in working, and it might, with a few trifling additions, be made exceedingly distinct. It is thus described in the *Repertory of Arts*, vol. I. p. 382. For a nocturnal telegraph, let there be four large patent reflectors, lying on the same plane, parallel to the horizon, placed on the top of an observatory. Let each of these reflectors be capable, by means of two winches, either of elevation or depression to a certain degree. By elevating or depressing one or two of

the reflectors, 18 very distinct arrangements may be produced, each reflector, after every arrangement, being restored to its place, as the following scheme will explain.

A	B	D	E	F	G
o oo	o oo	o oo	o ooo	ooo o	oo o
I	K	L	M	N	O
oo o	ooo o	oo oo	oo oo	oo oo	oo oo
P	R	S	T	U	Y
oo oo	oo oo	oo oo	o co	oo oo	o oo

For the sake of example, the above arrangements, are made to answer to the most necessary letters of the alphabet; but alterations may be made at will, and a greater number of changes produced, without any addition to the reflectors. In the first observatory there need only be a set of *single* reflectors; but in the others each reflector should be double, so as to face both the preceding and subsequent observatory: and each observatory should be furnished with two telescopes. The proper diameter of the reflectors, and their distance from each other, will be ascertained by experience. To convert this machine into a diurnal telegraph, nothing is necessary but to insert, in the place of the reflectors, gilt balls, or any other conspicuous bodies.

TELEMACHUS, the son of Ulysses and Penelope, was in the cradle when his father went with the rest of the Greeks to the Trojan war. When a child, he fell into the sea, but was brought ashore by a dolphin. At the end of that war, Telemachus went to seek his father; and as the place of his residence, and the cause of his long absence, were unknown, he visited the courts of Menelaus and Nestor to obtain information; accompanied by Minerva in the form of Mentor. He afterwards returned to Ithaca, where the suitors of Penelope had conspired to murder him, but he avoided their snares; and by means of Minerva he discovered his father, who had arrived in the island two days before him, and was then in the house of Eumæus. With this faithful servant and Ulysses Telemachus concerted how to deliver his mother from the importunities of her suitors, and it was effected with great success. After his father's death, he went to the island of Ææa, where he married Calypso the daughter of Circe, by whom he had a son called *Latinus*. He some time after had the misfortune to kill his mother in law Circe, and fled to Italy, where he founded Clusium. From these stories, collected from Homer and the other poets, the celebrated Fenelon Abp. of Cambray composed his well known *Adventures of Telemachus*; which, though not in verse, is justly esteemed a poem.

TELEPHASSA,

TELEPHASSA, the wife of Agenor, and mother of CADMUS, PHOENIX, CILIX, and EUROPA. She died in Thrace, seeking her daughter Europa.

TELEPHIUM, TRUE ORPINS, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *trigynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 54th order, *Miscellaneæ*. The calyx is pentaphyllous; there are five petals, which are inserted into the receptacle; the capsule is unilocular and trivalvular. There are two species:

1. **TELEPHIUM IMPERATI**; and

2. **TELEPHIUM OPOSITIFOLIA**.

TELEPHUS, a son of Hercules by Auge, the daughter of Aleus. He was exposed as soon as born, on mount Parthenis, but was preserved by a she-goat and her shepherd. Auge, to avoid her father's rage, fled to TEUTHRAS king of Mysia, and was by him adopted as his daughter. Mean time Telephus grew up, and on consulting the oracle as to his parentage, was advised to go to Mysia. Teuthras, being harassed by the depredations of Idas the son of Aphareus, offered his daughter Auge, and the succession to his crown, to any man who would repel Idas. Telephus undertook the task, and at the head of the Mysian troops conquered Idas, and claimed his reward. But as he was just going to marry Auge, a monstrous serpent interrupted the ceremony; upon which Auge imploring the aid of Hercules, the god appeared, and told her that Telephus was her own son. After this Telephus became king of Mysia, married a daughter of Priam king of Troy, and assisted him in his war against the Greeks, a party of whom he defeated; but was mortally wounded by Achilles, who, however, was ordered by the oracle to cure him with the same spear that had wounded him. This Achilles did by the rust of the spear; and Telephus, in gratitude, joined the Greeks against the Trojans. *Pauf. 8. c. 48. Diod. 4. &c.*

(1.) **TELESCOPE**. *n. f.* [*telescope*, Fr. *telescope* and *oculus*.] A long glass by which distant objects are viewed.—The telescope discovers to us distant wonders in the heavens. *Watts.*

(2.) **TELESCOPE** is derived from the Greek, *tele*, far off, and *σκοπεω*, to look at. This name is commonly appropriated to the larger sizes of the instrument, while the smaller are called **PERSPECTIVE GLASSES**, **SPY GLASSES**, or **OPERA GLASSES**. A particular kind, which is thought to be much brighter than the rest, is called a **NIGHT GLASS**.

(3.) **TELESCOPE, ACCOUNT OF THE INVENTION OF THE**. To what has been said on the invention of this most noble instrument in the article **OPTICS**, we may add the following: Mr Leonard Digges, a gentleman of the 17th century, of great and various knowledge, asserts in his *Stratopicos*, and in another work, that his father, a military gentleman, had an instrument which he used in the field, by which he could bring distant objects near, and could know a man at the distance of three miles. He says, that when his father was at home he had often looked through it, and could distinguish the waving of the trees on the opposite side of the Severn. Mr Digges resided near Bristol. Francis Fontana, in his *Celestial*

Observations, published at Naples in 1646, says, that he was assured by a Mr Hardy, advocate of the parliament of Paris, a person of great learning and undoubted integrity, that on the death of his father there was found among his things an old tube, by which distant objects were distinctly seen; and that it was of a date long prior to the telescope lately invented, and had been kept by him as a secret. From the table and scheme which Sirturus has given us of the tools or dishes in which the spectacle-makers fashioned their glasses, that they had convex lenses formed to spheres of 24 inches diameter, and of 11 inferior sizes. He has given us a scheme of a set which he measured belonging to a spectacle-maker of the name of *Regette* at Corunna in Spain; who, he says, had tools of the same sizes for concave glasses. It also appears, that it was a general practice to use a convex and concave glass together. If any person should put together a 24 inch convex and a 12 inch concave (wrought on both sides) at the distance of 6 inches, he would have distinct vision, and the object would appear of double size. Concaves of 6 inches were not uncommon; and one such combined with the convex of 24, at the distance of 9 inches, would have distinct vision, and objects would be quadrupled in diameter. When such a thing occurred, it was natural to keep it as a curiosity, although the *rationale* of its operation was not understood. It is plain that GALILEO's first telescope was of this kind, made up of such spectacle-glasses as he could procure; for it magnified only three times in diameter; a thing easily procured by such glasses as he could find with every spectacle-maker. And he could not but observe, in his trials of their glasses, that the deeper concaves and flatter convexes he employed, he produced the greater amplification; and then he would find himself obliged to provide a tool not used by the spectacle-makers, viz. either a much flatter tool for a convex surface, or a much smaller sphere for a concave. His next telescope magnified but five times. But he groped his way with such spectacle-glasses as he could get, till he at last made tools for very flat object-glasses and very deep eye-glasses, and produced a telescope which magnified about 25 times. Sirturus saw it, and took the measures of it. He afterwards saw a scheme of it which Galileo had sent to a German prince at Inspruck, who had it drawn (that is, the circles for the tools) on a table on his gallery. The object-glass was a plano-convex, a portion of a sphere, of 24 inches diameter; the eye-glass was a double concave of 2 inches diameter: the focal distances were therefore 24 inches and 1 inch nearly. This must have been a very lucky operation, for Sirturus says it was the best telescope he had seen; and we know that it requires the very best work to produce this magnifying power with such small spheres. Telescopes continued to be made in this way for many years; and Galileo never made them of any other form. Kepler published his *Dioptrics* in 1611; in which he tells us all that he or others had discovered of the law of refraction, viz. that in very small obliquities of incidence, the angle of refraction was nearly $\frac{3}{4}$ of the angle of incidence. This was indeed enough to have pointed out, with sufficient exactness,

exactness, the construction of every optical instrument that we are even now possessed of; for this proportionality of the angles of incidence and refraction is assumed in the construction of the optical figure for all of them; and the deviation from it is still considered as the *refinement* of the art, and was not brought to any rule till 50 years after by HUYGHENS, and called by him *ABERRATION*. Yet even the sagacious Kepler seems not to have seen the advantage of any other construction of the telescope; he just seems to acknowledge the possibility of it; and we are surprised to see writers giving him as the author of the astronomical telescope, or even as hinting at its construction. It is true, in the last proposition he shows how a telescope may be made *apparently* with a convex eye-glass: but this is only a frivolous fancy; for the eye-glass is directed to be made convex externally, and a very deep concave on the inside; so that it is, in fact, a meniscus with the concavity prevalent. In the 86th proposition, he indeed shows that it is possible to place a convex glass behind another convex glass, that an eye shall see objects distinct, magnified, and inverted; and he speaks very sagaciously on the subject. After having said that an eye placed behind the point of union of the first glass will see an object inverted, he shows that a small part only will be seen; and then he shows that a convex glass, duly proportioned and properly placed, will show more of it. But in showing this, he speaks in a way which shows evidently that he had formed no distinct notions of the manner in which this effect would be produced, only saying vaguely that the convergency of the second glass would counteract the divergency beyond the focus of the first. Had he conceived the matter with any tolerable distinctness, after seeing the great advantage of taking in a field greater in almost any proportion, he would have eagerly caught at the thought, and enlarged on the immense improvement. Had he but drawn one figure of the progress of the rays through two convex glasses, such as *fig. 3. Pl. CCLX*, the whole would have been open to his view. This step, so easy and so important, was reserved for SCHEINER, as has been observed under *OPTICS*; and the construction of this author, together with that of JENSEN, are the models on which all refracting telescopes are now constructed; and in all that relates to their magnifying power, brightness, and field of vision, they may be constructed on Kepler's principle, that the angles of refraction are in a certain given proportion to the angles of incidence. But after Huyghens had applied his elegant geometry to the discovery of SNELLIUS, viz. the proportionality, not of the angles, but of the sines, and had ascertained the aberrations from the foci of infinitely slender pencils, the reasons were clearly pointed out why there were such narrow limits naturally affixed to the performance of optical instruments, in consequence of the indistinctness of vision which resulted from constructions where the magnifying power, the quantity of light, or the field of vision, were extended beyond certain moderate bounds. The theory of aberrations, which that most excellent geometer established, has enabled us to diminish this indistinctness arising from all these causes;

and this diminution is the sole aim of all the different constructions which have been contrived since the days of Galileo and Scheiner.

(4.) TELESCOPE, CONSTRUCTION OF THE. The general aim in the construction of a telescope is, to form, by means of mirrors or lenses, an image of the distant object, as large, as bright, and as extensive as is possible, consistently with distinctness; and then to view the image with a magnifying glass in any convenient manner. This gives us an arrangement of our subject. We shall first show the principles of construction of the object-glass or mirror, so as that it shall form an image of the distant object with these qualities; and then show how to construct the magnifying glass or eye-piece, so as to preserve them unimpaired. This indistinctness which we wish to avoid arises from two causes; the spherical figures of the refracting and reflecting surfaces, and the different refrangibility of the differently coloured rays of light. The first may be called the *SPHERICAL*, and the second the *CHROMATIC* indistinctness; and the deviations from the foci, determined by the elementary theorem (see *OPTICS, Index*), may be called the *SPHERICAL* and the *CHROMATIC* aberrations. The limits of our work will not permit us to give any more of the doctrine of aberrations than is absolutely necessary for the construction of achromatic telescopes; and we refer the reader for a general view of the whole to Euler's *Dioptrics*, and other works of that kind. Dr Smith has given as much as was necessary for the comparison of the merits of different glasses of similar construction, and in a very plain and elegant manner. His improvement of the fundamental theorem of that most elegant geometer Huyghens is as follows.

(5.) TELESCOPE, DR SMITH'S FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF THE. I. IN REFLECTION. Let AVB (*Fig. 1. Plate CCCCXXI.*) be a concave spherical mirror, of which C is the centre, V the vertex, CV the axis, and F the focus of an infinitely slender pencil of parallel rays passing through the centre. Let the ray *aA*, parallel to the axis, be reflected in AG, crossing the central ray CV in *f*. Let AP be the line of the semi-aperture AV, AD its tangent, and CD its secant. The aberration Ff from the principal focus of central rays is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the excess VD of the secant above the radius, or very near equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of VP, the versed sine of the semi-aperture. For because AD is perpendicular to CA, the points C, A, D, are in a circle, of which CD is the diameter; and because Af is equal to Cf, by reason of the equality of the angles fAC, fCA, and CAa, f is the centre of the circle thro' C, A, D, and fD is $=\frac{1}{2}$ CD. But FC is $=\frac{1}{2}$ CV. Therefore Ff is $\frac{1}{2}$ of VD. But because DV:VP=DC:VC, and DC is very little greater than VC when the aperture AB is moderate, DV is very little greater than VP, and Ff is very nearly equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of VP. COR. 1. The longitudinal aberration is $=\frac{AV^2}{4CN^2}$ for PV is very nearly

$=\frac{AV^2}{2CV}$. COR. 2. The lateral aberration FG is $=\frac{AV^3}{2CV^2}$. For FG:Ff=AP:Pf= $AV:\frac{1}{2}CV$

nearly.

nearly, and therefore $FG = \frac{AV^3}{4CV} \times \frac{2}{CV} =$

$\frac{AV^3}{2CV^2}$. II. In REFRACTIONS. Let ABV (Fig.

2 or 3, Plate CCCXXXII.) be a spherical surface separating two refracting substances, C the centre, V the vertex, AV the semi-aperture, AP its line, PV its versed line, and F the focus of parallel rays infinitely near to the axis. Let the extreme ray a A, parallel to the axis, be refracted into AG, crossing CF in f, which is therefore the focus of extreme parallel rays. The rectangle of the sine of incidence, by the difference of the sines of incidence and refraction, is to the square of the sine of refraction, as the versed sine of the semi-aperture is to the longitudinal aberration of the extreme rays. Call the sine of incidence i, the sine of refraction r, and their difference d. Join CA, and about the centre f describe the arch AD. The angle ACV is equal to the angle of incidence, and CA f is the angle of refraction. Then, since the sine of incidence is to the sine of refraction as VF to CF, or as A f to C f, that is, as D f to C f, we have

CF : FV = C f : f D
by conversion CF : CV = C f : CD

altern. convers. CF - C f : CV - CD = CF : CV
or F f : VD = CF : CV, r : d.

Now PV = $\frac{AP^2}{CF + CV} = \frac{AP^2}{2CV}$ nearly, and

PD = $\frac{AP^2}{fP + fV} = \frac{AP^2}{2fV}$ nearly, = $\frac{AP^2}{2FV}$

nearly. Therefore PV : PD = FV : CV, and DV : PV = CF : FV nearly.

We had above F f : VD = r : d;
and now VD : PV = CF : FV, = r : i;

therefore F f : PV = r² : d i,

and F f = $\frac{r^2}{d i} \times PV$. Q. E. D. The aberration will be different according as the refraction is made towards or from the perpendicular; that is, according as r is less or greater than i. They are in the ratio of $\frac{r^2}{d i}$ to $\frac{i^2}{d r}$, or of r³ to i³. The

aberration therefore is always much diminished when the refraction is made from a rare into a dense medium. The proportion of the sines for air and glass is nearly that of 3 to 2. When the light is refracted into the glass, the aberration is nearly $\frac{4}{9}$ of PV; and when the light passes out of glass into air, it is about $\frac{2}{9}$ of PV. Cor. 1. F f = $\frac{r^2}{d i} \times \frac{AP^2}{2CV}$ nearly, and it is also = $\frac{r^2}{d^2} \times \frac{AF^2}{2FV}$, be-

cause PV = $\frac{AP^2}{2CV}$ nearly, and i : d = FV : CV.

Cor. 2. Because f P PA = F f : FG
or FV : AV = F f : FG nearly.

we have FG, the lateral aberration, = F f $\times \frac{AV}{FV} = \frac{r^2}{d^2} \times \frac{AV^3}{2FV^3} = \frac{r^2}{i^2} \times \frac{AV^3}{2CV^3}$. Cor. 3. Be-

cause the angle F A f is proportional to $\frac{FG}{FV}$ very

nearly, we have the angular aberration F A f = $\frac{r^2}{d^2} \times \frac{AV^3}{2FV^3} = \frac{r^2}{i^2} \times \frac{AV^3}{2CV^3}$. In general, the longitudinal aberrations from the focus of central pa-

ral rays are as the squares of the apertures directly, and as the focal distances inversely; and the lateral aberrations are as the cubes of the apertures directly, and the squares of the focal distances inversely; and the angular aberrations are as the cubes of the aperture directly, and the cubes of the focal distances inversely. To simplify the investigation, some small errors are admitted. PV and PD are not in the exact proportion that we assumed them, nor is D f equal to FV. But in the small apertures which suffice for optical instruments, these errors may be disregarded. This spherical aberration produces an indistinctness of vision, in the same manner as the chromatic aberration does, viz. by spreading out every mathematical point of the object into a little spot in its picture; which spots, by mixing with each other, confuse the whole. We must now determine the diameter of the circle of diffusion. Let a ray $\beta \alpha$ (fig. 4. pl. 332.) be refracted on the other side of the axis, into $\alpha H \phi$, cutting A f G in H, and draw the perpendicular EH. Call AV α , $\alpha V \alpha$, V f (or VF, or V ϕ , which in this comparison may be taken as equal) = f, F f = b, and f E = ϕ . $AV^2 : \alpha V^2 = F f : F \phi$ (already demonstrated) and $F \phi = \frac{\alpha^2}{a^2} b$, and F f - F ϕ , (or

$f \phi$) = $b - \frac{\alpha^2}{a^2} b = \frac{a^2 b - \alpha^2 b}{a^2} = \frac{b}{a^2} \times a^2 - \alpha^2$,

= $\frac{b}{a^2} \times a + \frac{b}{a^2} \times a - \alpha^2$. Also P f : PA = f E : EH;

or f : $\alpha = x : \frac{a x}{f} = EH$. And P π : P $\phi = EH$:

E ϕ , or $\alpha : f = \frac{a x}{f} : \frac{a x}{a} = E \phi$. Therefore f $\phi =$

$\frac{a x}{a} + x = \frac{a + x}{a} x = \frac{x}{a} \times a + x$. Therefore $\frac{x}{a}$

$\times a + x = \frac{b}{a^2} \times a + \frac{b}{a^2} \times a - \alpha^2$, and $\frac{x}{a} = \frac{b}{a^2} \times$

$a - \alpha$, and $x = \frac{b}{a^2} \times a(a - \alpha)$. Therefore π

is greatest when $\alpha \times a - \alpha^2$ is greatest; that is, when $\alpha = \frac{1}{2} a$. Therefore EH is greatest when P π is equal to the half of AP. When this is the

case, we have at the same time $\frac{b}{a^2} \times a(a - \alpha) =$

$\frac{b}{a^2} \times \frac{1}{4} a^2$, and $x = \frac{1}{4} b$, or EH = $\frac{1}{4}$ FG. That

is, the diameter of the circle of aberration, through which the whole of the refracted light must pass, is $\frac{1}{4}$ of the diameter of the circle of aberration at the focus of parallel central rays. In the chromatic aberration it was $\frac{1}{2}$; so that in this respect the spherical aberration does not create so great confusion as the chromatic. We are now able to compare them, since we have now the measure of both the circles of aberration. It has not been found possible to give more than four inches of aperture to an object glass of 100 feet focal distance, so as to preserve sufficient distinctness. If we compute the diameter of the circle EHH corresponding to this aperture, we shall find it not

much to exceed $\frac{1}{120,000}$ of an inch. If we re-

duce this to the diameter of the circle of diffusion, we shall find it not

much to exceed $\frac{1}{120,000}$ of an inch. If we re-

duce this to the diameter of the circle of diffusion, we shall find it not

much to exceed $\frac{1}{120,000}$ of an inch. If we re-

duce this to the diameter of the circle of diffusion, we shall find it not

much to exceed $\frac{1}{120,000}$ of an inch. If we re-

duce this to the diameter of the circle of diffusion, we shall find it not

much to exceed $\frac{1}{120,000}$ of an inch. If we re-

duce this to the diameter of the circle of diffusion, we shall find it not

much to exceed $\frac{1}{120,000}$ of an inch. If we re-

duce this to the diameter of the circle of diffusion, we shall find it not

strict the circle of chromatic dispersion to $\frac{1}{10}$ of the aperture, which is hardly the fifth part of the whole dispersion in it, it is $\frac{1}{62\frac{1}{2}}$ of an inch, and is about 1900 times greater than the other. The circle of the spherical aberration of a plano-convex lens, with the plane side next the distant object, is equal to the circle of chromatic dispersion when the semi-aperture is about 15° . For we saw formerly that EL is $\frac{1}{2}$ of FG , and that EG is $= \frac{1}{2} \frac{AP^2}{AC^2}$, and therefore $EG = \frac{r^2}{f^2} \times \frac{AP^2}{8AC^2}$. This

being made $= \frac{AP}{55}$, gives us $AP = \sqrt{\frac{8r^2 AC^2}{55 r^2}}$, which is nearly $\frac{AC}{4}$, and corresponds to an aper-

ture of 30° diameter, if r be to f as 3 to 2. Sir Isaac Newton was therefore well entitled to say, that it was quite needless to attempt figures which should have less aberration than spherical ones, while the confusion produced by the chromatic dispersion remained uncorrected. Since the indistinctness is as the squares of the diameters of the circles of aberration, the disproportion is quite beyond our imagination, even when Newton has made such a liberal allowance to the chromatic dispersion. But it must be acknowledged, that he has not attended to the distribution of the light in the circle of spherical aberration, and has hastily supposed it to be like the distribution of the coloured light, indefinitely rare in the margin, and denser in the centre. We are indebted to Abbe Boscovich for the elegant determination of this distribution, which we have given in the article OPTICS. From this it appears, that the light in the margin of the circle of spherical aberration, instead of being incomparably rarer than in the spaces between it and the centre, is incomparably denser. The indistinctness, therefore, produced by the intersection of these luminous circumferences is vastly great, and increases the whole indistinctness exceedingly. By a gross calculation, it appears to be increased at least 500 times. The proportional indistinctness therefore, instead of being 1900² to 1, is only $\frac{1900^2}{500}$, or near-

ly 7210 to 1; a proportion still sufficiently great to warrant Newton's preference of the reflecting telescope of his invention. And we may now observe, that the reflecting telescope has even a great advantage over a refracting one of the same focal distance with respect to its spherical aberration: For we have seen (Cor. 2.) that the lateral aberration is $\frac{r^2}{f^2} \times \frac{AV^2}{2CV^2}$. This for a plano-convex glass

is nearly $\frac{2}{4} \frac{AV^2}{2CV^2}$. And the diameter of the circle

of aberration is one fourth of this, or $\frac{2}{16} \times \frac{AV^2}{2CV^2}$.

In like manner, the lateral aberration of a concave mirror is $\frac{AV^2}{2CV^2}$; and the diameter of the cir-

cle of dispersion is $\frac{AV^2}{8CV^2}$; and therefore if the surfaces were portions of the same sphere, the dia-

meter of the circle of aberration of refracted rays would be to that of the circle of aberration of reflected rays as $\frac{2}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$, or as 9 to 4. But when the refracting and reflecting surfaces, in the position here considered have the same focal distance, the radius of the refracting surface is four times that of the reflecting surface. The proportion of the diameters of the circles of spherical aberration is that of 9×4^2 to 4, or of 144 to 4, or 36 to 1. The distinctness therefore of the reflector is 36×36 , or 1296 times greater than that of a plano-convex lens (placed with the plane side next the distant object) of the same breadth and focal distance, and will therefore admit of a much greater magnifying power. This comparison is indeed made in circumstances most favourable to the reflector, because this is the very worst position of a plano-convex lens. But we have not as yet learned the aberration in any other position. In another position the refraction and consequent aberration of both surfaces are complicated. Before we proceed to the consideration of this very difficult subject, we may deduce from what has been already demonstrated several general rules and maxims in the construction of telescopes, which will explain (to such readers as do not wish to enter more deeply into the subject), and justify the proportion which long practice of the best artists has sanctioned. Indistinctness proceeds from the commixture of the circles of aberration on the retina of the eye. For any one sensible point of the retina, being the centre of a circle of aberration, will at once be affected by the admixture of the rays of as many different pencils of light as there are sensible points in the area of that circle, and will convey to the mind a mixed sensation of as many visible points of the object. This number will be as the area of the circle of aberrations, whatever be the size of a sensible point of the retina. Now, in vision with telescopes, the diameter of the circle of aberration on the retina is as the apparent magnitude of the diameter of the corresponding circle in the focus of the eye-glass; that is, as the angle subtended by this diameter at the centre of the eye-glass; that is, as the diameter itself directly, and as the focal distance of the eye-glass inversely. And the area of that circle on the retina is as the area of the circle in the focus of the eye-glass directly, and as the square of the focal distance of the eye-glass inversely. And this is the measure of the apparent indistinctness. Cor. In all sorts of telescopes, and also in compound microscopes, an object is seen equally distinct when the focal distance of the eye-glasses are proportional to the diameters of the circles of aberration in the focus of the object-glass. Here we do not consider the trifling alteration which well constructed eye-glasses may add to the indistinctness of the first image. In refracting telescopes, the apparent indistinctness is as the area of the object-glass directly, and as the square of the focal distance of the eye-glass inversely. For it has been shown, that the area of the circle of dispersion is as the area of the object-glass, and that the spherical aberration is insignificant when compared with this. Therefore, to make reflecting telescopes equally distinct, the diameter of the object-glass must be proportional to the focal

cal distance of the eye-glass. But in reflecting telescopes, the indistinctness is as the sixth power of the aperture of the object-glass directly, and as the fourth power of the focal distance of the eye-glass and square of the focal distance of the object-glass inversely. This is evident from the dimensions of the circle of aberration, which was found proportional to $\frac{AV^3}{CV^3}$. Therefore, to have

them equally distinct, the cubes of the apertures must be proportional to the squares of the focal distance multiplied by the focal distance of the eye-glass. By these rules, and a standard telescope of approved goodness, an artist can always proportion the parts of any instrument he wishes to construct. Mr Huyghens made one, of which the object-glass had 30 feet focal distance and 3 inches diameter. The eye-glass had 3.3 inches focal distance. And its performance was found superior to any which he had seen: nor did this appear owing to any chance goodness of the object-glass, because he found others equally good which were constructed on similar proportions. This has therefore been adopted as a standard. We should now proceed to the most difficult part of our subject, the compound aberrations of different surfaces. But our limits will not permit us to enlarge on this deep subject. We must therefore refer to what we have said upon it under the article OPTICS. We may also recommend to the curious reader, *Clairault's dissertations*, in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Paris*, 1756, &c.; those of *Bojéovich* in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Bologna*, and in his 5 volumes of *Opuscula*, published at Bassano in 1785, and those of D'Alembert and Euler. The only treatise in our language is the translation of a very imperfect work by Scherzer. In what follows, we shall, however, give a general view of it.

(6.) TELESCOPE, ESTIMATE OF THE DISPERSIVE POWER OF THE REFRACTING SUBSTANCE OF. The separation of the red, violet, and intervening rays, is called *dispersion*; and although this arises merely from a difference of the refractive power in respect of the different rays, it is convenient to distinguish this particular modification of the refractive power by a name, and we call it the *DISPERSIVE POWER* of the refracting substance. It is susceptible of degrees; for a piece of flint-glass will refract the light, so that when the sine of refraction of the red ray is 77, the sine of the refraction of the violet ray is nearly 78½; or if the sine of refraction of the red ray, measured on a particular scale, is 1.54, the sine of refraction of the violet ray is 1.57. The dispersion of this substance, being measured by the difference of the extreme sines of refraction, is greater than the dispersion of the other glass, in the proportion of 1 to 2. But this alone is not a sufficient measure of the absolute dispersive power of a substance. Although the ratio of 1.54 to 1.56 remains constant, whatever the real magnitude of the refractions of common glass may be; and though we therefore say that its dispersive power is constant, we know, that by increasing the incidence and the refraction, the absolute dispersion is also increased. Another substance shows the same prop-

erties, and in a particular case may produce the same dispersion; yet it has not for this sole reason the same dispersive power. If indeed the incidence and the refraction of the mean ray be also the same, the dispersive power cannot be said to differ; but if the incidence and the refraction of the mean ray be less, the dispersive power must be considered as greater, though the actual dispersion be the same; because if we increase the incidence till it becomes equal to that in the common glass, the dispersion will now be increased. The proper way of conceiving the dispersion therefore is, to consider it as a portion of the whole refraction; and if we find a substance making the same dispersion with half the general refraction, we must say that the dispersive quality is double; because, by making the refraction equal, the dispersion will really be double. If therefore we take m as a symbol of the separation of the extreme rays

from the middle ray, $\frac{m}{m-1}$ is the natural measure of the dispersive power. We shall express this in the Leibnitzian notation, thus $\frac{dm}{m-1}$ that

we may avoid the indistinctness which the Newtonian notation would occasion when m is changed for m' or m'' . It is not unusual for optical writers to take the whole separation of the red and violet rays for the measure of the dispersive power, and to compare this with the refracting power, with respect to one of the extreme rays. But it is surely better to consider the mean refraction as the measure of the refracting power; and the deviation of either of the extremes from m as mean is a proper enough measure of the dispersion, being always half of it. It is attended with this convenience, that being introduced into our computations as a quantity infinitely small, and treated as such for the ease of computation, while it is really a quantity of sensible magnitude; the errors arising from this supposition are diminished greatly, by taking one half of the deviation and comparing it with the mean refraction. This method has, however, this inconvenience, that it does not exhibit at once the refractive power in all substances respecting any particular colour of light; for it is not the ray of any particular colour that suffers the mean refraction. In common glass it is the ray which is in the confines of the yellow and blue; in flint glass it is nearly the middle blue ray; and in other substances it is a different ray. These circumstances appear plainly in the different proportions of the colours of the prismatic spectrum exhibited by different substances. This is a great bar to the perfection of achromatic instruments.

(7.) TELESCOPE, METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING AN ACHROMATIC LENS FOR THE. The way in which an *achromatic lens* is constructed, is to make use of a contrary refraction of a second lens to destroy the dispersion or spherical aberration of the first. The first purpose will be answered if $\frac{dm}{n}$ be equal to $\frac{dm'}{n'}$. For, in order that the different coloured rays may be collected into one point by

two lenses, it is only necessary that $\frac{1}{f}$ the reciprocal of the focal distance of rays refracted by both, may be the same for the extreme and mean rays, that is, that $\frac{m + d m - 1}{n} + \frac{m' + d m' - 1}{n'}$

$+\frac{1}{r}$ be of the same value with $\frac{m-1}{n} + \frac{m'-1}{n'}$ $+\frac{1}{r}$; which must happen if $\frac{d m}{n} + \frac{d m'}{n'} = 0$, or $\frac{d m}{n} = -\frac{d m'}{n'}$. This may be seen in another way, more comprehensible by such as are not versant in these discussions. In order that the extreme colours which are separated by the first lens may be rendered parallel by the second; we have shown already that n and n' are proportional to the radii of the equivalent isosceles lenses, being the halves of these radii. They are therefore (in these small refractions) inversely proportional to the angles formed by the surfaces at the edges of the lenses; n' may therefore be taken for the angle of the first lens, and n for that of the second. Now the small refraction by a prism,

whose angle (also small) is n' , is $m-1 \times n'$. The dispersive power being now substituted for the refractive power, we have for this refraction of the prism $d m \times n'$. This must be destroyed by the opposite refraction of the other prism $d m' \times n$. Therefore $d m \times n' = d m' \times n$, or $\frac{d m}{n} = -\frac{d m'}{n'}$. In like manner, this effect will be produced by three lenses if $\frac{d m}{n} + \frac{d m'}{n'} + \frac{d m''}{n''} = 0$, &c. Lastly, the errors arising from the spherical figure, which we expressed by $-R^2(q+q')$ will be corrected if $q+q' = 0$.

(8.) TELESCOPE, METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING A DOUBLE ACHROMATIC OBJECT-GLASS FOR THE. Here we have to determine four radii, $a, b, a',$ and b' . Make $n = 1$. This greatly simplifies the calculus, by exterminating it from all the denominators. This gives for the equation $\frac{d m}{n} +$

$\frac{d m'}{n'} = 0$, the equation $d m + \frac{d m'}{n'} = 0$, or $d m = -\frac{d m'}{n'}$, and $\frac{1}{n'} = -\frac{d m}{d m'} = -u$. Also we have

r' , the focal distance of the light incident on the second lens, the same with the principal focal distance p of the first lens (neglecting the interval, if any.) Now $\frac{1}{p} = \frac{m-1}{n}$, which in the present case

is $m-1$. Also $\frac{1}{p'} = -u(m'-1)$, and $\frac{1}{p} = m-1-u(m'-1) = u'$. Make these substitutions in the values of $\frac{q}{m-1}$ and $\frac{q'}{m'-1}$,

and we obtain the following equation; $c m^2 - \frac{c(2m+1)}{a} + \frac{c(m+2)}{m a^2} - u^3 m^2 - \frac{u^2(2m'+1)}{a}$

$$- \frac{u(m'+2)}{m' a'^2} + u^2(3m'+1)(m-1) + \frac{4u(m'+1)(m-1)}{m a'} - \frac{u(3m'+2)(m-1)}{m} = 0.$$

Arrange these terms in order, according as they are factors of $\frac{1}{a^2}$, $\frac{1}{a}$, $\frac{1}{a'}$, $\frac{1}{a'^2}$, or independent quantities. It puts on this form: $\frac{c(m+2)}{m} \times$

$$\frac{1}{a^2} - c(2m+1) \times \frac{1}{a} - \frac{u(m'+2)}{m'} \times \frac{1}{a'} - (u^2(2m'+1) - \frac{4u(m'+1)(m-1)}{m'}) \times \frac{1}{a'} + \frac{c m^2 + u^2(3m'+1)(m-1) - u^3 m^2 - u(3m'+2)(m-1)}{m'} = 0.$$

Let A be the coefficient of $\frac{1}{a^2}$, B that of $\frac{1}{a}$, C that of $\frac{1}{a'}$, D that of $\frac{1}{a'^2}$, and E the sum of the independent quantities: that is, let A be $\frac{c(m+2)}{m}$, B = $c(2m+1)$,

$$C = \frac{u(m'+2)}{m'}, D = u^2(2m'+1) - \frac{4u(m'+1)(m-1)}{m'}, \text{ and } E = c m^2 + u^2(3m'+1)(m-1) - u^3 m^2 - \frac{u(3m'+2)(m-1)}{m'}.$$

Our final equation becomes $\frac{A}{a^2} - \frac{B}{a} - \frac{C}{a'} - \frac{D}{a'^2} + E = 0$.

The coefficients of this equation and the independent quantity are all known, from our knowledge of $m, m', d m, d m'$; and we are to find the values of a and a' , and from them and $n = 1$, to find the values of b and b' . But it is evidently an indeterminate equation, because there are two unknown quantities; so that there may be an infinity of solutions. It must be rendered determinate by means of some other conditions to which it may be subjected. These conditions must depend on some other circumstance which may direct our choice. One circumstance occurs which we think of very great consequence. In the passage of light from one substance to another, there is always a considerable portion reflected from the posterior surface of the first and from the anterior surface of the last; and this reflection is more copious in proportion to the refraction. This loss of light will therefore be diminished by making the internal surfaces of the lenses to coincide; that is, by making $b = d$. This will be attended with another advantage. If we put between the glasses a substance of nearly the same refracting power, we shall not only completely prevent this loss of light, but we shall greatly diminish the errors which arise from an imperfect polish of the surfaces. We have tried this and find the effect very surprising. The lens, being polished immediately after the figure has been given it, and while it was almost impervious to light by reason of its roughness, which was still sensible to the naked eye, performed as well as when finished in the finest manner. This condition, by taking away one refraction, obliges us to increase those which remain,

remain, and therefore increases the spherical aberrations. And since our formulæ do not fully remove those (by reason of the small quantities neglected in the process), it is uncertain whether this condition be the most eligible. We have, however, no direct argument to the contrary. By comparing this object-glass with the former, we may remark, that diminishing a a little increases b , and in this respect improves the lens. It indeed has diminished b' , but this being already considerable, no inconvenience attends this diminution. But we learn, at the same time, that the advantage *must* be very small; for we cannot diminish a much more, without making it as small as the smallest radius of the object-glass. This proportion is therefore very near the maximum, or best possible; and we know that in such cases, even considerable changes in the radii will make but small changes in the result: for these reasons we are disposed to give a strong preference to the first construction, on account of the other advantages which we showed to attend it. As another example, we may take a case which is very nearly the general practice of the London artists. The radius of curvature for the anterior surface of the convex crown-glass is $\frac{2}{3}$ ths of the radius of the posterior surface, so that $b = \frac{2}{3}$. This being introduced into the determinate equation, gives

$$a = -0.2938 \quad a' = -0.3443$$

$$b = -0.3526 \quad b' = -1.1474$$

(9.) TELESCOPES, METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING A TRIPLE ACHROMATIC OBJECT-GLASS FOR. It is plain that there are more conditions to be assumed before we can render this a determinate problem, and that the investigation must be more intricate. At the same time, it must give us a much greater variety of constructions, in consequence of our having more conditions necessary for giving the equation this determinate form. Our limits will not allow us to give a full account of all that may be done in this method. We shall therefore content ourselves with giving one case which will sufficiently point out the method of proceeding. We shall then give the results in some other eligible cases, as rules to artists by which they may construct such glasses. Let the first and second glasses be of equal curvatures on both sides; the first being a double convex of crown-glass, and the second a double concave of flint-glass. Still making n the unit of our calculation, we have in the first place $a = -b$, $= -a'$,

$$= b'. \text{ Therefore } \frac{1}{a'} - \frac{1}{b'} = -\left(\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b}\right), \text{ or } \frac{1}{n} =$$

$$-\frac{1}{n} = -1. \text{ Therefore the equation } \frac{d m}{n} + \frac{d m'}{n'} =$$

$$+\frac{d m''}{n''} = 0 \text{ becomes } u - 1 + \frac{u}{n''} = 0, \text{ or } \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{u}$$

$$-1. \text{ Let us call this value } u'. \text{ We have } \frac{1}{p} =$$

$$m - 1; \frac{1}{p'} = -(m' - 1); \frac{1}{p''} = u'(m - 1); \frac{1}{p}$$

$$= \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p'} + \frac{1}{p''} = m - m' + u'(m - 1). \text{ And if}$$

$$\text{we make } m' - m = C', \text{ we shall have } \frac{1}{p} = -C,$$

+ $u'(m - 1)$. Also $\frac{1}{p'} = m - 1; \frac{1}{p''} = m - 1 - (m' - 1) = m - m' = -C'$. The equality of the two curvatures of each lens gives $\frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{2n}$.

Therefore $\frac{1}{a} = -\frac{1}{b} = -\frac{1}{a'} = \frac{1}{b'} = \frac{1}{2}$; and

$\frac{1}{b''} = \frac{1}{a''} - \frac{1}{n''} = \frac{1}{a''} - u'$. Substituting these values in the equation, we obtain the three formulæ:

$$1. \quad c m^2 - \frac{1}{2} c (2 m + 1) + \frac{c (m + 2)}{4 m}$$

$$2. \quad -m' + \frac{1}{2} (2 m' + 1) - \frac{m' + 2}{4 m'} + (3 m' + 1) (m - 1) - \frac{2 (m' + 1) (m - 1)}{m'} - \frac{(3 m' + 2) (m - 1)^2}{m'}$$

$$3. \quad c u' 3 m^2 - \frac{c u' (2 m + 1)}{a''} + \frac{c u' (m + 2)}{m a''^2} - c' u' (3 m + 1) + \frac{4 c' u' (m + 1)}{m a''} + \frac{c' u' (3 m + 2)}{m} = 0.$$

Now arrange these quantities according as they are coefficients of $\frac{1}{a^2}$ and of $\frac{1}{a}$, or independent quantities. Let the coefficient of $\frac{1}{a^2}$ be A ,

that of $\frac{1}{a}$ be B , and the independent quantity

be C , we have $A = \frac{c u' (m + 2)}{m}$; $B = c u' (2 m + 1)$

$$- \frac{4 c' u' (m + 1)}{m}, \text{ and } C = c m^2 + \frac{c (m + 2)}{4 m}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} (2 m' + 1) + (3 m + 1) (m - 1) + c u' m^2$$

$$+ \frac{c' u' (3 m + 2)}{m} - \frac{1}{2} c (2 m + 1) - m' -$$

$$\frac{m' + 2}{4 m'} - \frac{2 (m' + 1) (m - 1)}{m'} - \frac{(3 m' + 2) (m - 1)^2}{m'}$$

$$- c' u' (3 m + 1). \text{ Our equation now becomes}$$

$$\frac{A}{a^2} - \frac{B}{a} + C = 0. \text{ This reduced to numbers,}$$

by computing the values of the coefficients, is $\frac{1.312}{a^2}$

$$- \frac{1.207}{a} - 0.3257 = 0. \text{ This, divided by } 1.312,$$

$$\text{gives } s = -0.92; \text{ and } t = -0.2482; -\frac{1}{2} s =$$

$$0.46; \frac{1}{2} s^2 = 0.2116; \text{ and } \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} s^2 - t} = \pm 0.6781.$$

And, finally, $\frac{1}{a''} = 0.46 \pm 0.6781$. This has

two roots, viz. 0.2181 and -1.1381. The last would give a very small radius, and is therefore

rejected. Now, proceeding with this value of $\frac{1}{a''}$

and the $\frac{1}{n''}$, we get the other radius b'' , and then,

by means of u' , we get the other radius which is

common to the four surfaces. Then, by $\frac{1}{p} =$

$\frac{x}{p'}$. — c' , we get the value of P . The radii being all on the scale of which n is the unit, they must be divided by P to obtain their value on the scale which has P for its unit. They will give us

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -b, = -a', = b', = 0.530 \\ a'' &= 1.215 \\ b'' &= -0.3046 \\ P &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

(10.) TELESCOPE, METHODS ADOPTED TO IMPROVE THE. Upon the whole, an amateur has little chance of succeeding in these attempts. The diversity of glasses, and the uncertainty of the workman's producing the very curvatures which he intends, is so great, that the object-glass turns out different from his expectation. The artist who makes great numbers acquires a pretty certain guess at the remaining error; and having many lenses, intended to be of one form, but unavoidably differing a little from it, he tries several of them with the other two, and finding one better than the rest, he makes use of it to complete the set. The great difficulty in the construction is to find the exact proportion of the disperse powers of the crown and flint glass. The crown is pretty constant; but there are hardly two pots of flint glass which have the same disperse power. Even if constant, it is difficult to measure it accurately; and an error in this greatly affects the instrument, because the focal distances of the lenses must be nearly as their disperse powers. The best method of examining this circumstance is as follows: The sun's light, or that of a brilliant lamp, passed through a small hole in a board, and fell on another board pierced also with a small hole. Behind this was placed a fine prism A (fig. 5.), which formed a spectrum ROV on a screen pierced with a small hole. Behind this was placed a prism B of the substance under examination. The ray which was refracted by it fell on the wall at D , and the distance of its illumination from that point to C , on which an unrefracted ray would have fallen, was carefully measured. This showed the refraction of that colour. Then, in order that we might be certain that we always compared the refraction of the same precise colour by the different prisms placed at B , we marked the precise position of the prism A when the ray of a particular colour fell on the prism B . This was done by an index AG attached to A , and turning with it, when we caused the different colours of the spectrum formed by A to fall on B . Having examined one prism B with respect to all the colours in the spectrum formed by A , we put another B in its place. Then bringing A to all its former positions successively, by means of a graduated arch HGK , we were certain that when the index was at the same division of the arch it was the very ray which had been made to pass through the first prism B in a former experiment. We did not solicitously endeavour to find the very extreme red and violet rays; because, although we did not learn the whole dispersions of the two prisms, we learned their proportions, which is the circumstance wanted in the construction of achromatic glasses. It is in vain to attempt this by measuring the spectrums themselves; for we

cannot be certain of selecting the very same colours for the comparison, because they succeeded in an insensible gradation. We have hitherto proceeded on the supposition, that when, by means of contrary refractions, we have united the extreme red and violet rays, we have also united all the others. But this is quite gratuitous. Sir Isaac Newton would, however, have made the same supposition; for he imagined that the different colours divided the spectrum formed by all substances in the proportions of a musical canon. This is a mistake. When a spectrum is formed by a prism of crown-glass, and another of precisely the same length is formed by the side of it by a prism of flint-glass, the cosine between the green and blue will be found precisely in the middle of the first spectrum, but in the second it will be considerably nearer to the red extremity. In short, different substances do not disperse the colours in the same proportion. The effect of this *irrationality* (so to call it) of dispersion, will appear plainly. Let A (fig. 6. *Pl.* 332.) represent a spot of white solar light falling perpendicularly on a wall. Suppose a prism of common glass placed behind the hole through which the light is admitted, with its refracting angle facing the left hand. It will refract the beam of light to the right, and will at the same time disperse this heterogeneous light into its component rays, carrying the extreme red ray from A to R , the extreme orange from A to O , the extreme yellow from A to Y , &c. and will form the usual prismatic spectrum $ROYGBPVC$. If the whole length RC be divided into 1000 parts, we shall have (when the whole refraction AR is small) RO very nearly 125, $RY = 200$, $RC = 333$, $RB = 500$, $RP = 667$, $RV = 778$, and $RC = 1000$; this being the proportion observed in the differences of the lines of refraction by Sir Isaac Newton. Dr Blair has found that certain fluids, particularly such as contain the muriatic acid, when formed into a prism, will refract the light from H (on the lower line) so as to form a spectrum $R'C'$ equal to RC , and as far removed from A' as RC is from A , but having the colours more dilated toward R' , and more condensed toward C , than is observed in RC ; so that the ray which was carried, by the prism of common glass to the middle point B' , considerably nearer to C' . Let us now suppose that, instead of a white spot at A , we have a prismatic spectrum AB (fig. 7. *Pl.* 332.), and that the prism of common glass is applied as before, immediately behind the prism which forms the spectrum AB . We know that this will be refracted sideway, and will make a spectrum $ROYGBFC$, inclined to the plane of refraction in an angle of 45° ; so that drawing the perpendicular RC' , we have $RC' = CC$. We also know that the prism of flint glass would refract the spectrum formed by the first prism on EHF , in such a manner that the red ray will go to R , the violet to C , and the intermediate rays to points o, y, g, b, p, v , so situated that $O'o$ is $R'O'$ of the other figure: Yy is RY , &c. These points must therefore lie in a curve $Ro y g b p v C$, which is convex toward the axis RC' . In like manner we may be assured that Dr Blair's fluid will form a spectrum $R d y' g' b' p' v' C$, concave

cave towards R'C. This is a very good method for discovering whether a medium disperses the light in the same proportion, with the prism which is employed for forming the first spectrum AB or EF. It disperses in the same or in a different proportion, according as the oblique spectrum is straight or crooked; and the exact proportion corresponding to each colour is had by measuring the ordinates of the curves R b C or R b C. Having formed the oblique spectrum RBC by a prism of common glass, an equal prism of the same glass, placed in a contrary position, will bring back all the rays from the spectrum RBC to the spectrum AB, laying each colour on its former place. In like manner, having formed the oblique spectrum R b C by a prism of flint-glass, we know that another prism of flint-glass, placed in the opposite direction, will bring all the rays back to the spectrum EHF. But having formed the oblique spectrum RBC by a prism in common glass, if we place the flint-glass prism in the contrary position, it will bring the colour R back to E, and the colour C to F; but it will not bring the colour B to H, but to a point *h*, such that B *h* is equal to *b* H, and *b* B to *h* H. In like manner, the other colours will not be brought back to the straight line EHF, but to a curve E *h* F, forming a crooked spectrum. In like manner, the fluids discovered by Dr Blair when employed to bring back the oblique spectrum RBC formed by common glass, will bring its extremities back to E and F, and form the crooked spectrum E *h* F lying beyond EHF. This experiment evidently gives us another method for examining the proportionality of the dispersion of different substances. Having, by common glass, brought back the oblique spectrum formed by common glass to its natural place AB, suppose the original spectrum at AB to contract gradually (as Newton has made it do by means of a lens), it is plain that the oblique spectrum will also contract, and so will the second spectrum at AB; and it will at last coalesce into a white spot. The effect will be equivalent to a gradual compression of the whole figure, by which the parallel lines AR and BC gradually approach, and at last unite. In like manner, when the oblique spectrum formed by flint glass is brought back to EHF by a flint-glass prism, and the figure compressed in the same gradual manner, all the colours will coalesce into a white spot. But when flint-glass is employed to bring back the oblique spectrum formed by common glass, it forms the crooked spectrum E *h* F. Now let the figure be compressed. The curve E *h* F will be doubled down on the line H *h*, and there will be formed a compound spectrum H *h*, quite unlike the common spectrum, being purple or claret coloured at H by the mixture of the extreme red and violet, and green edged with blue at *h* by the mixture of the green and blue. The fluid prisms would in like manner form a spectrum of the same kind on the other side of H. This is precisely what is observed in achromatic object-glasses made of crown-glass and flint; for the refraction from A to R corresponds to the refraction of the convex crown-glass; and the contrary refraction from R to E corresponds to the contrary refraction of the con-

cave flint-glass, which still leaves a part of the first refraction, producing a convergence to the axis of the telescope. It is found to give a purple or wine coloured focus, and within this a green one, and between these an imperfect white. Dr Blair found, that when the eye-glass was drawn out beyond its proper distance, a star was surrounded by a green fringe, by the green end of the spectrum, which crossed each other within the focus; and when the eye-glass was too near the object-glass, the star had a wine coloured fringe. The green rays were ultimately most refracted. Dr Blair very properly calls these spectrums, H *h* and H *h*, *secondary spectrums*, and seems to think that he is the first who has taken notice of them. But Mr Clairault was too accurate a mathematician, and too careful an observer, not to be aware of a circumstance which was of primary consequence to the whole inquiry. He could not but observe that the success rested on this very particular, and that the proportionality of dispersion was indispensably necessary. This subject was touched on by Clairault; and fully discussed by Boscovich, first in his *Dissertations* published at Vienna in 1759; then in the *Comment. Bononiensis*; and, lastly, in his *Opuscula*, 1785. Dr Blair read an ingenious Dissertation on Achromatic Glasses, to the Royal Society of Edinburgh in 1793. Boscovich shows how to unite the two extremes with the most outstanding colour of the secondary spectrum, by means of a third substance. When we have done this, the aberration occasioned by the secondary spectrums must be prodigiously diminished; for it is evidently equivalent to the union of the points H and *h* of our figure. Whatever cause produces this must diminish the curvature of the arches E *h* and *h* F; but even if these curvatures were not diminished, their greatest ordinates cannot exceed $\frac{1}{16}$ th of H *h*; and we may say, without hesitation, that by uniting the mean or most outstanding ray with the two extremes, the remaining dispersion will be as much less than the uncorrected colour of Dolland's achromatic glass, as this is less than four times the dispersion of a common object-glass. It must therefore be altogether insensible. Boscovich asserts, that it is not possible to unite more than two colours by the opposite refraction of two substances, which do not disperse the light in the same proportions. Dr Blair makes light of this assertion, as he finds it made in general terms in the extract made by Priestly from Boscovich in his *Essay on the History of Optics*; but had he read this author in his own dissertations, he would have seen that he was perfectly right. Dr Blair, however, has hit on a very ingenious and effectual method of producing this union of three colours. In the same way as we correct the dispersion of a concave lens of crown-glass by the opposite dispersion of a concave lens of flint-glass, we may correct the secondary dispersion of an achromatic convex lens by the opposite secondary dispersion of an achromatic concave lens. But this union does not contradict the assertion of Boscovich, because it is *necessarily* produced by means of three refracting substances. The most essential service which the public has received from Dr BLAIR is the discovery of fluid mediums of a proper dis-

dispersive power. By composing the lenses of such substances, we are at once freed from the irregularities in the refraction and dispersion of flint-glass, which the chemists have not been able to free it from. In whatever way this glass is made, it consists of parts which differ both in refractive and dispersive power; and when taken up from the pot, these parts mix in threads, which may be disseminated through the mass in any degree of fineness. But they still retain their properties; and when a piece of flint-glass has been formed into a lens, the eye, placed in its focus, sees the whole surface occupied by glistening threads or broader veins running across it. Great rewards have been offered for removing this defect, but hitherto to no purpose. We would propose the following method: Let the glass be reduced to powder, and then melted with a great proportion of alkaline salt, so as to make a liquor silicium. When precipitated from this by an acid, it must be in a state of very uniform composition. If again melted into glass, we should hope that it would be free from this defect; if not, the case seems to be desperate. But by using a fluid medium, Dr Blair was free from all this embarrassment; and he acquired another immense advantage, that of adjusting at pleasure both the refractive and dispersive powers of his lenses. In solid lenses, we do not know whether we have taken the curvatures suited to the refractions till our glass is finished; and if we have mistaken the proportions, all our labour is lost. But when fluids are used, it is enough that we know nearly the refractions. We suit our focal distances to these, and then select our curvatures, so as to remove the aberration of figure, preserving the focal distances. Thus, by properly tempering the fluid mediums, we bring the lens to agree precisely with the theory, perfectly achromatic, and the aberration of figure as much corrected as is possible. Dr Blair examined the refractive and dispersive powers of a great variety of substances, and found great varieties in their actions on the different colours. This was indeed to be expected. There is no doubt now among naturalists about the mechanical connection of the phenomena of nature; and all agree that the chemical actions of the particles of matter are perfectly like in kind to the action of gravitating bodies; that all these phenomena are the effects of forces like those which we call *attractions* and *repulsions*, and which we observe in magnets and electrified bodies; that light is refracted by forces of the same kind, but differing chiefly in the small extent of their sphere of activity. One who views things in this way will expect, that as the actions of the same acid for the different alkalies are different in degree, and as the different acids have also different actions on the same alkali, in like manner different substances differ in their general refractive powers, and also in the proportion of their action on the different colours. Nothing is more unlikely, therefore, than the proportional dispersion of the different colours by different substances. Common glass disperses the rays in such a manner, that the ray which is in the centre of the green and blue occupies the middle of the prismatic spectrum; but in glasses, and many other substances, which are more dis-

persive, this ray is nearer to the ruddy extremity of the spectrum. While therefore the straight line RC' (fig. 7.) terminates the ordinates $O\delta$, YY , Gg' , &c. which represent the dispersion of common glass, the ordinates which express the dispersions of these substances are terminated by a curve passing through R and C' , but lying below the line RC' . When therefore parallel heterogeneous light is made to converge to the axis of a convex lens of common glass, as happens at F in fig. 5. C , the light is dispersed, and the violet rays have a shorter focal distance. If we now apply a concave lens of greater dispersive power, the red and violet rays are brought to one focus F ; but the green rays, not being so much refracted away from F , are left behind at e , and have now a shorter focal distance. But Dr Blair afterwards found that this was not the case with the muriatic acid, and some solutions in it. He found that the ray which common glass caused to occupy the middle of the spectrum was much nearer to the blue extremity when refracted by these fluids. Therefore a concave lens formed of such fluids which united the red and violet rays in F , refracted the green rays to f . Having observed this, it was an obvious conjecture, that a mixture of some of these fluids might produce a medium, whose action on the intermediate rays should have the same proportion that is observed on common glass; or that two of them might be found which formed spectra similarly divided, and yet differing sufficiently in dispersive power to enable us to destroy the dispersion by contrary refractions, without destroying the whole refraction. Dr Blair accordingly found a mixture of solutions of ammoniacal and mercurial salts, and also some other substances which produced dispersions proportional to that of glass, with respect to the different colours. And thus has the result of this intricate and laborious investigation corresponded to his utmost wishes. He has produced achromatic telescopes which seem as perfect as the thing will admit of; for he has been able to give them such apertures, that the *incorrigible* aberration arising from the spherical surfaces becomes a sensible quantity, and precludes farther amplification by the eye-glasses. We have examined one of his telescopes: The focal distance of the object-glass did not exceed 17 inches, and the aperture was fully $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. We viewed some single and double stars and some common objects with this telescope; and found that in magnifying power, brightness, and distinctness, it was manifestly superior to one of Mr Dollond's of 42 inches focal length. It also gave us an opportunity of admiring the dexterity of the London artists, who could work the glasses with such accuracy. We had most distinct vision of a star when using an erecting eye-piece, which made this telescope magnify more than a hundred times; and we found the field of vision as uniformly distinct as with Dollond's 42 inch telescope magnifying 46 times. The intelligent reader must admire the nice figuring and centering of the very deep eye-glasses which are necessary for this amplification. It is to be hoped that Dr Blair will extend his views to *glasses* of different compositions, and thus give us object-glasses which are solid; for those composed of fluids have un-

conveniences which will hinder them from coming into general use, and will confine them to the museums of philosophers. Antimonial glasses bid fair to answer this purpose, if they could be made free of colour, so as to transmit enough of light. We recommend this differtation to the careful perusal of our readers. Those who have not made themselves much acquainted with the delicate and abstruse theory of aberrations, will find it exhibited in such a popular form as will enable them to understand its general aim; and the well informed reader will find many curious indications of inquiries and discoveries yet to be made.

(II.) TELESCOPES, METHODS OF CONSTRUCTION, AND CORRECTING EYE-GLASSES FOR. The proper construction of an eye-piece is not less essential than that of the object-glass. But our limits will not allow us to treat this subject in the same detail. We have already extended this article to a great length, because we do not know of any performance in the English language which will enable our readers to understand the construction of achromatic telescopes; an invention which reflects honour on our country, and has completed the discoveries of our illustrious NEWTON. Our readers will find abundant information in *Dr Smith's Optics* concerning the eye-glasses, chiefly deduced from Huyghens's fine theory of aberration. At the same time, we must again pay Mr Dollond the merited compliment of saying, that he was the first who made any scientific application of this theory to the compound eye-piece for erecting the object. His eye-pieces of 3 and 6 glasses are very ingenious reduplications of Huyghens's eye-piece of two glasses, and would probably have superseded all others, had not his discovery of achromatic object-glasses caused opticians to consider the chromatic dispersion with more attention, and pointed out methods of correcting it in the eye-piece without any compound eye-glasses. They have found that this may be more conveniently done with four eye-glasses, without sensibly diminishing the advantages which Huyghens showed to be the result from employing many small refractions instead of a lesser number of great ones. As this is a very curious subject, we shall endeavour to make our readers fully acquainted with it and content ourselves with merely mentioning the principles of the other rules for constructing an eye-piece. Such readers as are less familiarly acquainted with optical discussions, may consult our article, OPTICS. If AB , Fig. 8. *Pl.* 331. be a lens, R , a radiant point of focus of incident rays, and a the focus of parallel rays coming from the opposite side; then, 1. Draw the perpendicular aa' to the axis, meeting the incident ray in a' , and a' A to the centre of the lens. The refracted ray BF is parallel to $a'A$: for $Ra'a$ A ($= Ra : aA$) $= RB : BF$ ($= RA : AF$), which is the focal theorem. 2. An oblique pencil BPb proceeding from any point P which is not in the axis, is collected to the point f , where the refracted ray BF cuts the line PAf drawn from P through the centre of the lens: for $P a' : a' A$ $= Pb : bf$, which is also the focal theorem. The simple ACHROMATIC TELESCOPE is represented in Fig. 9. *Plate* 332. The beam of parallel rays, inclining to the axis, is made to converge to

a point G , where it forms an image of the lowest point of a very distant object. These rays, de-cussating from G fall on the eye-glass; the ray from the lowest point B of the object glass falls on the eye-glass at b ; and the ray from A falls on a ; and the ray from the centre O falls on O . These rays are rendered parallel, or nearly so, by refraction through the eye-glass, and take the direction $b'i, oI, aI$. If the eye be placed so that this pencil of parallel rays may enter it, they converge to a point of the retina, and give distinct vision of the lowest point of the object. It appears inverted, because the rays by which we see its lowest point come in the direction which in simple vision is connected with the upper point of an object. They come from above, and therefore are thought to proceed from above. We see the point as if situated in the direction Io . In like manner the eye placed at I , sees the upper point of the object in the direction IP , and its middle in the direction IE . The proper place for the eye is I : if brought much nearer the glass, or removed much farther from it, some, or the whole, of this extreme pencil of rays will not enter the pupil. It is therefore of importance to determine this point. Because the eye requires parallel rays for distinct vision, it is plain that F must be the principle focus of the eye-glass. Therefore, by the common focal theorem (OPTICS) $OF : OE = OE : OI$, or $OF : FE = OE : EI$. The magnifying power being measured by the magnitude of the visual angle, compared with the magnitude of the visual angle with the naked eye, we have $\frac{oIp}{oOp}$, or $\frac{oIF}{oOF}$ for the measure of the magnifying

power. This is very nearly $= \frac{OE}{EI}$, or $\frac{OF}{FI}$. As the line OE , joining the centres of the lenses, and perpendicular to their surfaces, is called the axis of the telescope, so the ray OG is called the axis of the oblique pencil, being really the axis of the cone of light which has the object-glass for its base. This ray is through its whole course the axis of the oblique pencil; and when its course is determined, the amplification, the field of vision, the apertures of the glasses are all determined. For this purpose we have only to consider the centre of the object glass as a radical point, and trace the process of a ray from this point through the other glasses; this will be the axis of some oblique pencil. It is evident therefore, that the field of vision depends on the breadth of the eye-glasses. Should we increase this, the extreme pencil will pass through I , because O and I are still the conjugate foci of the eye-glass. On the other hand, the angle reserved on for the extent of field of vision gives the breadth of the eye-glass. For all optical instruments there must be two optical figures considered. The first shows the progress of a pencil of rays coming from one point of the object. The various foci of this pencil show the places of the different images, real or virtual. Such a figure is formed by the three rays $AG a'$, $OG oI$, $BG bi$. The second shows the progress of the axis of the different pencils proceeding through the centre of the object-glass. The foci of this pencil of axes show the places

B b

where

where an image of the object-glass is formed; and this pencil determines the field of vision, the apertures of the lenses, and the application or magnifying power. The three rays OQ , OL , OEI , OIM , form this figure. See also Fig. 12, where the progress of both sets of pencils is more diversified. The perfection of a telescope is to represent an object in its proper shape, distinctly magnified, with a great field of vision, and sufficiently bright. But there are limits to all these qualities; and an increase of one of them, for the most part, diminishes the rest. The brightness depends on the aperture of the object-glass, and will increase in the same proportion, because it will always be to AB in the proportion of EF to FO , till the diameter of the emergent pencil is equal to that of the pupil of the eye. Increasing the object-glass any more, can send no more light into the eye. But we cannot make the emergent pencil nearly so large as this when the telescope magnifies much, for the great aperture of the object-glass produces an indistinct image at GF , and its indistinctness is magnified by the eye-glass. A great field of vision is incompatible with the true shape of the object; for since the angles of the marginal parts are enlarged by the aberration of the eye-glass, the marginal parts themselves will appear enlarged, or the object appear distorted. Thus a chess board viewed through a reading glass appears drawn out at the corners, and the straight lines are all changed into curves, as is represented in Fig. 10. Plate 331. The circumstance which most perceptibly limits the extent of field is the necessary indistinctness. If the vision be indistinct, it is useless, and no other quality can compensate this defect. The distortion is very inconsiderable in much larger angles of vision than we can admit, and it is unworthy of the attention paid to it by optical writers. They have been induced to take notice of it, because the means of correcting it, in a considerable degree, are attainable, and afford an opportunity of exhibiting their knowledge; whereas the indistinctness which accompanies a large field is a subject of most difficult discussion, and has hitherto baffled all their efforts to express by any intelligent or manageable formulae. This subject must, however, be considered. The image at GF (Fig. 9. Plate 332.) of a very moderate object is not a plain surface perpendicular to the axis of the telescope, but is nearly spherical, having O for its centre. If a number of pencils of parallel rays crossing each other in I fall on the eye-glass, they will form a picture on the opposite side, in the focus F . But this picture will by no means be flat, nor nearly so, but very concave towards E . Its exact form is of most difficult investigation. The elements of it are given by Dr Barrow; and we have given the chief of them in the article OPTICS, when considering the foci of infinitely slender pencils of oblique rays. Therefore it is impossible that the picture formed by the object-glass can be seen distinctly in all its parts by the eye-glass. Even if it were flat, the points G and H (Fig. 9.) are too far from the eye-glass when the middle F is at the proper distance for distinct vision. When, therefore, the telescope is so adjusted that we have distinct vision of the

middle of the field, in order to see the margin distinctly we must push in the eye-glass; and having so done, the middle of the field becomes indistinct. When the field of vision exceeds 12 or 15°, it is not possible by any contrivance to make it tolerably distinct all over; and we must turn the telescope successively to the different parts of the field that we may see them agreeably. The cause of this indistinctness is the shortness of the lateral foci of lateral and oblique pencils refracted by the eye-glass. We have shown (in OPTICS) how to determine these in all the cases which occur. But the determination is not complete, and relates only to those rays which are in a plane passing through the axis of the lens. But the oblique pencil bGa (Fig. 9.) by which an eye placed at I sees the point G of the image, is a cone of light having a circular base on the eye-glass, of which circle ab is one of the diameters. There is a diameter perpendicular to this, which, in this figure, is represented by the point a . Fig. 11. Plate 331. represents the base of the cone as seen by an eye placed in the axis of the telescope, with the object-glass as appearing behind it. The point b is formed by a ray which comes from the lowest point B of the object-glass, and the point a is illuminated by a ray from A . The point c at the right hand of the circular base of this cone of light came from the point C on the left side of the object-glass; and the light comes to d from D . Now the laws of optics demonstrate, that the rays which come through the points c and d are more convergent after refraction than the rays which come through a and b . The analogies, therefore, which ascertain the foci of rays lying in planes passing through the axis do not determine the foci of the others. Of this we may be sensible by looking through a lens to a figure on which are drawn concentric circles crossed by radii. When the telescope is so adjusted that we see distinctly the extremity of one of the radii, we shall not see distinctly the circumference which crosses the extremity with equal distinctness, and *vice versa*. This difference, however, between the foci of the rays which come through a and b , and those which come through c and d , is not considerable in the fields of vision, which are otherwise admissible. But the same difference of foci obtains also with respect to the dispersion of light, and is more remarkable. Both d'Alembert and Euler have attempted to introduce it into their formulae; but they have made them useless for any practical purpose by their inextricable complication. This must serve as a general indication of the difficulties which occur in the construction of telescopes, even although the object-glasses were perfect, forming an image without the smallest confusion or distortion. There is yet another difficulty. The rays of the pencil aGb (Fig. 9. Plate 332.) when refracted through the eye-glass, are also separated into their component colours. The edge of the lens must evidently perform the office of a prism, and the white ray Gb will be so dispersed that if b be the parh of its red ray, the violet ray, which makes another part of it, will take such a course bn that the angle ibn will be nearly $\frac{1}{4}$ th of Gbb' . The ray Ga

G a passing through a part of the lens whose surfaces are less inclined to each other, will be less refracted, and will be less dispersed in the same proportion very nearly. Therefore the two violet rays will be very nearly parallel when the two red rays are rendered parallel. Hence it must happen, that the object will appear bordered with coloured fringes. A black line seen near the margin on a white ground, will have a ruddy and orange border on the outside, and a blue border within; and this confusion is altogether independent on the object glass, and is so much the greater as the visual angle bIE is greater. Such are the difficulties; they would be unfurmountable were it not that some of them are so connected that, to a certain extent, the diminution of one is accompanied by a diminution of the other. In the article OPTICS we gave some account of what are called the *Cautic curves*, (See OPTICS, *Index*;) and showed that these curves are the geometrical foci of the foci of infinitely slender pencils. Consequently the point **G** is very nearly in the caustic formed by a beam of light consisting of rays parallel to **IO**, and occupying the whole surface of the eye-glass, because the pencil of rays which are collected at **G** is very small. Any thing therefore that diminishes the mutual inclination of the adjoining rays, puts their concurrence farther off. Now this is precisely what we want, for the point **G** of the image formed by the object-glass is already beyond the focus of the oblique slender pencil of parallel rays ia and fb ; and therefore, if we could make this focus go a little farther from a and b , we shall bring it nearer to **G**, and obtain more distinct vision of this point of the object. Now let it be recollected, that in moderate refractions through prisms, two rays which are inclined to each other in a small angle are, after refraction, inclined to each other in the same angle. Therefore, if we can diminish the aberration of the ray $a i$, or $o I$, or $b f$, we diminish their mutual inclination; and consequently the mutual inclination of the rays $G a$, $G b$, $G b'$, and therefore lengthen the focus, and get more distinct vision of the point **G**. Therefore we at once correct the distortion and the indistinctness; and this is the aim of Mr Huyghens's great principle of dividing the refractions. (See OPTICS, *Index*.) The general method is as follows: Let o be the object glass (Fig. 12. Plate 332.) and **E** the eye-glass of a telescope, and **F** their common focus, and **FG** the image formed by the object glass. The proportion of their focal distances is supposed to be such as gives as great a magnifying power as the perfection of the object-glass will admit. Let **BI** be the axis of the emergent pencil. It is known by focal theorem that **GE** is parallel to **BI**; therefore **BGE** is the whole refraction or deflection of the ray **OIB** from its former direction. Let us diminish the aberrations by dividing this into two parts by means of two glasses **D** and e , so as to make the ultimate angle of vision $b i e$, equal to BIE , and thus retain the same magnifying power and visible field. Let us divide it into the parts **BGC** and **CGE**. From **G** draw any line **GD** to the axis towards **O**; and draw the perpendicular **DH**, cutting **OG** in **H**; draw $H e$ parallel to **GC**, cutting **GD** in g ; draw $g f$ perpen-

dicular to the axis, and $g e$ parallel to **GE**; draw $e b$ perpendicular to the axis; draw **D d** parallel to **GC**, and $d e$ perpendicular to the axis. Then if there be placed at **D** a lens whose focal distance is **D d**, and another at e whose focal distance is $e f$, the thing is done. The ray **OIB** will be refracted into **II b, and this into $b i$ parallel to **BI**. The demonstration of this construction is so evident by means of the common focal theorem, that we need not repeat it, nor the reasons for its advantages (see OPTICS.—) We have the same magnifying power, and the same field of vision; we have less aberration, and therefore less distortion and indistinctness; and this is brought about by a lens **HD** of a smaller aperture and a greater focal distance than **BE**. Consequently, if we are contented with the distinctness of the margin of the field with a single eye-glass, we may greatly increase the field of vision; for if we increase **DI** to the size of **EB** we shall have a greater field, and much greater distinctness in the margin; because **HD** is of a longer focal distance, and will bear a greater aperture, preserving the same distinctness at the edge. On this account the glass **HD** is commonly called the *Field glass*. It must be observed here, however, that although the distortion of the object is lessened, there is a real distortion produced in the image $f g$. But this, when magnified by the glass e , is smaller than the distortion produced by the glass **E**, of greater aperture and shorter focus, on the undistorted image **GF**. But because there is a distortion in the second image $f g$, this construction cannot be used for the telescopes of astronomical quadrants, and other graduated instruments; because then equal divisions of the micrometer would not correspond to equal angles. But the same construction will answer in this case, by taking the point **D** on that side of **F** which is remote from **O** (Fig. 13.) This is the form now employed in the telescopes of all graduated instruments. The great refractions which take place on the eye-glasses occasion very considerable dispersions, and disturb the vision by fringing every thing with colours. To remedy this, achromatic eye-glasses may be employed, constructed by the rules already delivered. This construction, however, is incomparably more intricate than that of object-glasses; for the equations must involve the distance of the radiant point, and be more complicated; and this complication is immensely increased on account of the great obliquity of the pencils. Fortunately the Huyghenian construction of an eye-piece enables us to correct this dispersion to a great degree of exactness. By it we may free the eye-glasses from the greatest part of the effect of dispersion. We may do it entirely by pushing the eye-glass a little nearer to the field-glass. This will render the violet rays a little divergent from the red, so as to produce a perfect picture from the bottom of the eye. But by doing so we have hurt the distinctness of the whole picture. We remedy this by drawing both glasses out a little, and the telescope is made perfect.**

(12.) TELESCOPES, STILL FARTHER IMPROVEMENTS OF. Presuming that the reader is now pretty familiar with the different circumstances which must be considered in the construction of

an eye piece, we proceed to consider those which must be employed to erect the object. This may be done by placing the lens which receives the light from the object-glass in such a manner, that a second image (inverted with respect to the first) may be formed beyond it, and this may be viewed by an eye-glass. But, besides many other defects, it tinges the object prodigiously with colour. But the common day telescope, invented by P. RHUTIA, has, in this respect, greatly the advantage of the above. See *OPTICS Index*. The rays of compound light are dispersed at e and f . (Plate 266. Fig. 4.) The violet ray proceeding from f , falls without the red ray at g , but is accurately collected with it at the focus E , as we shall demonstrate by and by. Since they cross each other in E , the violet ray must fall within the red ray at i , and be less refracted than if it had fallen on the same point with the red ray. Had it fallen there it would have separated from it; but by a proper diminution of its refraction, it is kept parallel to it, or nearly so. And this is one excellence of this telescope; when constructed with three eye-glasses perfectly equal, the colour is sensibly diminished, and by using an eye-glass somewhat smaller, it may be removed entirely. This telescope may be improved, by substituting for the eye-glass i k (Fig. 7.) the Huyghenian double eye-glass, or field glass and eye-glass, Fig. 12 and 13; and the first of these may be improved and rendered achromatic. This will require the two glasses a f and g b to be increased from their present dimensions to the size of a field-glass, suited to the magnifying power of the telescope, supposing it an astronomical telescope. Thus we shall have a telescope of 4 eye-glasses. The three first will be of a considerable focal distance, and two of them will have a common focus. But this is considerably different from the eye piece of four glasses which are now used, and are far better. We are indebted for them to Mr DOLLOD, who was a mathematician as well as an artist, and in the course of his research discovered resources which had not been thought of. He had not then discovered the achromatic object-glasses, and was busy in improving the eye-glasses by diminishing their spherical aberration. His first thought was to make the Huyghenian addition at both the images of the day telescope. This suggested to him the following eye-piece of five glasses. Fig. 14. Plate 332. represents this eye-piece, but there is not room for the object-glass at its proper distance. A pencil of rays coming from the upper point of the object is made to converge (by the object-glass) to G , where it would form a picture of that part of the object. But it is intercepted by the lens A a , and its axis is bent towards the axis of the telescope in the direction ab . At the same time, the rays which converged to G converge to g , and there is formed an inverted picture of the object at g f . The axis of the pencil is again refracted at b , crosses the axis of the telescope in H , is refracted again at c , at d , and at e , and at last crosses the axis in I . The rays of this pencil, diverging from g , are made less diverging, and proceed as if they came from g' , in the line B g g' . The lens c C causes them to converge to g , in the line G' C g' . The lens d D

makes them converge still more to G' , and there they form an erect picture G' F' ; diverging from G' , they are rendered parallel by the refraction at e . At H the rays are nearly parallel. Had the glass B b been a little farther from A , they would have been accurately so, and the object-glass, with the glasses A and B , would have formed an astronomical telescope with the Huyghenian eye-piece. The glasses C , D , and E , are intended merely for bending the rays back again till they again cross the axis in I . The glass C tends chiefly to diminish the great angle BHb ; and then the two glasses D and E are another Huyghenian eye-piece. The art in this construction lies in the proper adjustment of the glasses, so as to divide the whole bending of the pencil pretty equally among them, and to form the last image in the focus of the eye-glass, and at a proper distance from other-glass. Bringing B nearer to A would bend the pencil more to the axis. Placing C farther from B would do the same thing; but this would be accompanied with more aberration, because the rays would fall at a greater distance from the centres of the lenses. The greatest bending is made at the field-glass D ; and we imagine that the telescope would be improved, and more distinct at the edges of the field, by employing another glass of great focal distance between C and D . There is an image formed at H of the object-glasses, and the whole light passes through a small circle in this place. It is usual to put a plate here pierced with a hole which has the diameter of this image. A real image of the object glass is formed at I , and indeed wherever the pencils cross the axis. A lens placed at H makes no change in any of the angles, nor in the magnifying power, and affects only the place where the images are formed. And, on the other hand, a lens placed at f , or F' , where a real image is formed makes no change in the places of the images, but affects the mutual inclination of the pencils. This affords a resource to the artist, by which he may combine properties which seem incompatible. The aperture of A determines the visible field and all the other apertures. We must avoid forming a real image, such as f , g , or F' G' , on or very near any glass. For we cannot see this image without seeing along with it every particle of dust and every scratch of on the glass. We see them as making part of the object when the image is exactly on the glass, and we see them confusedly, and so as to confuse the object, when the image is near it. For when the image is on or very near any glass, the pencil of light occupies a very small part of its surface, and a particle of dust intercepts a great proportion of it. This construction will not do for the telescope of graduated instruments, because the micrometer cannot be applied to the second image f , g , on account of its being a little distorted. Also the interposition of the glass C makes it difficult to correct the dispersion. By proper reasoning from the correction in the Huyghenian eye-piece, we are led to the best construction of one with three-glasses. Let PA (Fig. 15.) be the glass which first receives the light proceeding from the image formed by the object-glass, and let OP be the axis of the extreme pencil. This is refracted into PK , which is again refracted into R r by the next

next lens B. Let b be the focus of parallel rays of the second lens. Draw PB . We know that $Ab : bB = PB : Br$, and that rays of one kind diverging from P will be collected at r . But if PR , PV be a red and a violet ray, the violet ray will be more refracted at V , and will cross the red ray in some intermediate point g of the line Rr . If therefore the first image had been formed precisely on the lens P , we should have a second image at fg free from all coloured fringes. If the refractions at P and R are equal (as in the common day telescope), the dispersion at V must be equal to that at P , or the angle $vPr = VPR$. But we have ultimately $RPV : RrV = BC : AB$, ($= Bb : Ab$ by the focal theorem). Therefore $gVr : grV$ (or $gr : gV$, or $Cf : fB$) $= Bb : Ab$, and $AB : Ab = Rr : Rg$. This shows the advantage of the common day telescope. In this $AB = 2Ab$, and therefore f is the place of the last image which is free from coloured fringes. But this image will not be seen free from coloured fringes through the eye-glass C , if f be its focus: For had gr , gv been both red rays, they would have been parallel after refraction; but gv being a violet ray, will be more refracted. It will not indeed be so much deflected from parallelism as the violet ray, which naturally accompanies the red ray to r , because it falls nearer the centre. By computation its dispersion is diminished about one 9th. That gv may be made parallel to gr after refraction, the refraction at r must be such that the dispersion corresponding to it may be of a proper magnitude. Let the dispersion at g be to the dispersion produced by the refraction at r (which is required for producing the intended magnifying power) as 1 to 9. Make $g : 1 = ff' : f'C$, $= fC : CD$, and draw the perpendicular Dr' meeting the refracted rr' in r' . Then we know by the common focal theorem, that if f' be the focus of the lens C , red rays diverging from g will be united in r' . But the violet ray gv will be refracted into vv' parallel to rr' . For the angle $v'r' : vgr =$ (ultimately) $fC : CD$, $= g : 1$. Therefore the angle $v'r'$ is equal to the dispersion produced at r , and therefore equal to $r'vv'$, and vv' is parallel to rr' . But by this we have destroyed the distinct vision of the image formed at fg , because it is no longer at the focus of the eye-glass. But distinct vision will be restored by pushing the glasses nearer to the object-glass. This makes the rays of each particular pencil more divergent after refraction through A , but scarcely makes any change in the directions of the pencils themselves. Thus the image comes to the focus f' , and makes no sensible change in the dispersions. In the common day telescope, the first image is formed in the anterior focus of the first eye-glass, and the second image is at the anterior focus of the last eye-glass. If we change this last for one of half the focal distance, and push in the eye-piece till the image formed by the object-glass is half way between the first eye-glass and its focus, the last image will be formed at the focus of the new eye-glass, and the eye-piece will be achromatic. This is easily seen by making the usual computations by the focal theorem. But the visible field is diminished, because we cannot give the same aperture as before to the

new eye-glass; but we can substitute for it two eye-glasses like the former, placed close together. This will have the same focal distance with the new one, and will allow the same aperture that we had before. On these principles may be demonstrated the correction of colour in eye-pieces with three glasses of the following construction. Let the glasses A and B be placed so that the posterior focus of the first nearly coincides with the anterior focus of the second, or rather so that the anterior focus of B may be at the place where the image of the object-glass is formed, by which situation the aperture necessary for transmitting the whole light will be the smallest possible. Place the third C at a distance from the second, which exceeds the sum of their focal distances by a space which is a third proportional to the distance of the first and second, and the focal distance of the second. The distance of the first eye-glass from the object-glass must be equal to the product of the focal distance of the first and second divided by their sum. Let Oo , Aa , Bb , Cc , the focal distances of the glasses, be O , a , b , c . Then make $AB = a + b$ nearly; $BC = b + c + \frac{b^2}{b+c}$; $OA = \frac{bc}{b+c}$. The amplification or magnifying power will be $= \frac{ob}{ac}$;

the equivalent eye-glass $= \frac{ac}{b}$; and the field of vision $= 3438' \times \frac{\text{Aperture of } A}{\text{foc. dist. ob. gl.}}$. These eye-pieces will admit the use of a micrometer at the place of the first image, because it has no distortion. Mr Dollond was anxious to combine this achromatism of the eye-pieces with the advantages which he had found in the eye-pieces with five glasses. This eye-piece of three glasses necessarily has a very great refraction at the glass B , where the pencil which has come from the other side of the axis must be rendered again convergent, or at least parallel to it. This occasions considerable aberrations. This may be avoided by giving part of this refraction to a glass put between the first and second, in the same way as he has done by the glass B put between A and C in his five glass eye-piece. But this deranges the whole process. His ingenuity, however, surmounted this difficulty, and he made eye-pieces of four glasses, which seem as perfect as can be desired. If we make the rays of different colours unite on the surface of the field-glass, the thing will be done, because the dispersion from this point of union will then unite with the dispersion produced by this glass alone; and this increased dispersion may be corrected by the last eye-glass in the way already shown. Therefore let A , B , (fig. 16. *Pl. CCCXXXII.*) be the stations which we have fixed on for the first and second eye-glasses, in order to give a proper portion of the whole refraction to the second glass. Let b be the anterior focus of B . Draw PB through the centre of B . Make $Ab : bB = AB : BK$. Draw the perpendicular Kr , meeting the refracted ray in r . By the focal theorem, red rays diverging from P will converge to r ; but the violet ray PV , being more refracted, will cross Rr in some point g . Drawing the perpendicular fg , we get f for the proper place of the field-glass,

glass. Let the refracted ray Rr , produced backwards, meet the ray OP coming from the centre of the object-glass in O . Let the angle of dispersion RPV be called p , and the angle of dispersion at V , that is, rVv , be v , and the angle VrR be r . It is evident that $OR : OP = p : v$, because the dispersions are proportional to the sines of the refractions, which, in this case, are very nearly as

the refractions themselves. Let $\frac{OP}{OR} \left(\text{or } \frac{op}{pB} \text{ or } \frac{pB}{bB} \right)$

be made $= m$. Then $v = mp$; also $p : r =$

$BK : AB :: bB : Ab$, and $r = p \cdot \frac{Ab}{bB}$, or, making

$\frac{Ab}{bB} = n$, $r = np$; therefore $v : r = m : n =$

$\frac{pB}{bB} : \frac{Ab}{bB} :: pB : Ab$. The angle $RgV = gVr +$

$gVv = p \cdot m + n$; and $RgV : Rrv = Rr : Rg$,

or $m + n : n :: Rr : Rg$, and $Rg = Rr \cdot \frac{n}{m+n}$.

But Rr is ultimately $= BK = AB \cdot \frac{bB}{Ab} = \frac{AB}{n}$.

Therefore $Rg = \frac{AB}{n} \times \frac{n}{m+n} = \frac{AB}{m+n}$, and $Bf =$

$\frac{AB}{m+n}$. This value of Bf is evidently $= bB \times$

$\frac{AB}{pB + Ab}$. Now bB being a constant quantity

while the glass B is the same, the place of union

varies with $\frac{AB}{pB + Ab}$. If we remove B a little

further from Δ , we increase AB , and pB , and Ab ,

each by the same quantity. This evidently diminishes Bf .

On the other hand, bringing B nearer to A increases Bf . If we keep the distance

between the glasses the same, but increase the focal distance bB , we augment Bf , because

this change augments the numerator and diminishes the denominator of the fraction $\frac{bB \times AB}{pB + Ab}$.

Thus we can unite the colours at what distance we please, and consequently in the place of the intended field-glass, from which they will diverge

with an increased dispersion, viz. with the dispersion competent to the refraction produced there,

and the dispersion $p \times m + n$ conjoined. It only

remains to determine the proper focal distances of the field-glass and eye-glass, and the place of the

eye-glass, so that this dispersion may be finally corrected. This is an indeterminate problem,

admitting of an infinity of solutions. We shall limit it by an equal division of the two remaining

refractions, which are necessary to produce the intended magnifying power. This construction

has the advantage of diminishing the aberration. Thus we know the two refractions, and the dispersion

competent to each; it being nearly $\frac{1}{17}$ th of the refraction. Call this q . The whole dispersion

at the field-glass consists of q , and of the angle KgV of fig. 16. which we also know to be $= p \times$

$m + n$. Call their sum s . Let fig. 17. represent this addition to the eye-piece. Cg is the field-

glass coming in the place of fg of fig. 19. and Bg is the red ray coming from the glass BR .

Draw gs parallel to the intended emergent pencil from the eye-glass; that is making the angle Cgs with the axis correspond to the intended magnifying power. Bisect this angle by the line gK .

Make $sg : gq :: s : q$, and draw gK , cutting Cg in t . Draw td and Dr perpendicular to the axis.

Then a lens placed in D , having the focal distance Dd , will destroy the dispersion at the lens gc , which refracts the ray g into gr . Let

gv be the violet ray, making the angle $vgv ::$. By the common optical theorem, gr will be refracted into r' parallel to td .

Draw gD' red rays grg will be united in r' . But the violet ray gv will be more refracted, and will take the path

v' , making the angle of dispersion $r'v'v :: q$, very nearly, because the dispersion at v does not sensibly differ from that at r .

Now, in the small angles of refraction which obtain in optical instruments, the angles $r'r'v'$, $r'gv'$, are very nearly as

gr and rr' , or as gD and Dr' , or as CD and DT ; which, by the focal theorem, are as Cd and dD ; that is, $Dd : dc :: r'gv' : r'r'v'$. But

$Dd : dC :: Dt : st :: sg : gq :: s : q$. But gr is parallel to td , and the whole dispersion at g is corrected by the lens D .

The focal distance Cc of Cg is had by drawing Cx parallel to Kg , meeting Rg in x , and drawing xc perpendicular to the axis.

It is easy to see that this elegant construction is not limited to the equality of the refractions vgv , Krr' .

In whatever proportion the whole refraction vgv is divided, we always can tell the proportion of the dispersions which

the two refractions occasion at g and r , and can therefore find the values of s and q . Indeed this solution includes the problem above stated. In it

some quantities and ratios are assumed as equal which are not strictly so, in the same manner as in all the elementary optical theorems. The parallelism, however, of gv' and rr' may be made accurate, by pushing the lens D nearer to Cg , or retreating it from it.

We may also, by pushing it still nearer, induce a small divergency of the violet ray, so as to produce accurate vision in the eye, and may thus make the vision through a telescope more perfect than with the naked eye, where dispersion is by no means avoided. It would therefore be an improvement to have the eye-glass in a sliding tube for adjustment. Bring the telescope to distinct vision; and if any colour be visible about the edges of the field, shift the eye-glass till this colour is removed. The vision may now become indistinct; but this is corrected by shifting the place of the whole eye-piece. In examining the progress of a red and a violet ray through many eye-pieces of Dollond's and Ramsden's best telescopes, in all of them the colours are united on or very near the field-glass. We meet with many made by other artists, where a considerable degree of colour remains, sometimes in the natural order, and often in the contrary order. This must happen in the hands of mere imitators, ignorant of principle. Fig. 18. Plate CCCXXXIII. represents the eye-piece of a very fine spy glass by Mr Ramsden: the focal length of its object-glass is $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, with $\frac{1}{17}$ th of aperture, $2^\circ 05'$ of visible field, and $15\frac{1}{4}$ magnifying power. The distances

stances and focal lengths are of their proper dimensions, but the apertures are $\frac{1}{4}$ larger, that the progress of a lateral pencil might be more distinctly drawn. The dimensions are as follow; Foc. lengths $Aa=0.775$ $Bb=1.025$ $Cc=1.01$ $Dd=0.79$ Distances. $AB=1.18$ $BC=1.83$ $CD=1.05$. It is perfectly achromatic, and the colours are united, not precisely, at the lens C g, but about $\frac{1}{15}$ th of an inch nearer the eye-glass. This combination of glasses may be used as a microscope; for, if, instead of the image formed by the object-glass at FG, we substitute a small object, illuminated from behind, as in compound microscopes; and if we draw the eye-piece a very small way from this object, the pencils of parallel rays emergent from the eye-glass D will become convergent to very distant points, and will there form an inverted and enlarged picture of the object, which may be viewed by a Huyghenian eye-piece; and we may thus get high magnifying powers without using very deep glasses. The eye-piece, of which we have given the dimensions in this way, might be made to magnify 180 times with very great distinctness. When used as the magnifier of a solar microscope, it surpasses every thing we have seen. The picture formed by a SOLAR MICROSCOPE is generally very indistinct; but with this magnifier it seemed perfectly sharp. The only thing which remains to be considered in the theory of refracting telescopes is the forms of the different lenses. Hitherto we have had no occasion to consider any thing but their focal distances; but their aberration depends greatly on the adjustment of their forms to their situations. When the conjugate foci of a lens are determined by the service which it is to perform, there is a certain form or proportion between the curvatures of their anterior and posterior surfaces, which will make their aberrations the smallest possible. We obtain this formula for a , the radius of curvature for the anterior surface of a lens.

$$\frac{1}{a} = \frac{2m^2 + m}{2m + 4} + \frac{4m + 4}{2m} r$$
, where m is the ratio of the sine of incidence of the line of refraction, and r is the distance of the focus of incident rays, positive or negative, according as they converge or diverge, all meeting $r r'$ and join $r r'$. By the focal theorem 2 measured on a scale of which the unit is n , = half of the radius of the equivalent isosceles lens. It will be sufficiently exact for our purpose to suppose $m = \frac{3}{2}$, though it is more nearly $\frac{31}{20}$. In this

case $\frac{1}{a} = \frac{b}{7} + \frac{10}{7r} = \frac{42r + 70}{49r}$. Therefore $a = \frac{49r}{42r + 70}$. And $\frac{1}{b} = \frac{1}{a} - 1 = \frac{1-a}{a}$. For example let it be required to give the radii of curvature in inches for the eye-glass b , Fig. 12, Pl. 332. which we shall suppose of $\frac{1}{15}$ inches focal distance, and that $cc (=r)$ is $\frac{3}{15}$ inches. The radius of curvature for the equivalent isosceles lens is 1.5 , and its half is 0.75 . Therefore $r = \frac{3}{0.75} = 5$ and our formula is $a = \frac{49 \times 5}{42 \times 5 + 70} = \frac{245}{280} = 0.875$; and $\frac{1}{b} =$

$\frac{1-a}{a} = \frac{0.125}{0.875}$, and $b = \frac{0.875}{0.125} = 7$. These values are parts of a scale, of which the unit is 0.75 inches. Therefore

$$a, \text{ in inches, } = 0.875 \times 0.75 = 0.65625$$

$$b, \text{ in inches, } = 7 \times 0.75 = 5.25.$$

And here we must observe that the posterior surface is concave: for b is a positive quantity, because $1-a$ is a positive quantity as well as a ; therefore the centre of sphericity of both surfaces lies beyond the lens. And this determination is nearly the same with the usual practice, which commonly makes this lens a plane convex with its flat side next the eye; and there will not be much difference in the performance of these two lenses; for in all cases of maxima and minima, even a pretty considerable change of the best dimensions does not make a sensible change in the result. The same consideration leads to a rule which is very simple, and sufficiently exact for ordinary situations. This is to make the curvature such, that the incident and emergent pencils may be nearly equally inclined to the surfaces of the lens. Thus in the eye-piece with 5 glasses, A and B should be most convex on their anterior sides; C should be most convex on the posterior side; D should be nearly isosceles; and E nearly plano-convex. But this is not so easy as it appears at first sight. The lenses of an eye-piece have not only to bend the several pencils of light to and from the axis of the telescope; they have also to form images on the axis of these pencils. These offices frequently require opposite forms. Thus the glass A of fig. 18 should be most convex on the side next the object, that it may produce little distortion of the pencils. But it should be most convex next the eye, that it may produce distinct vision of the image FG, which is very near it. This image should have its concavity turned towards A, whereas it is towards the object-glass. We must therefore endeavour to make the vertical image fg flatter, or even convex. This requires a glass very flat before and convex behind. For similar reasons the object-glass of a microscope and the simple eye-glass of an astronomical telescope should be formed the same way. This is a subject of most difficult discussion, and requires a theory which few of our readers would relish; nor does our limits afford room for it. The artists are obliged to grope their way. The proper method of experiment would be, to make eye-pieces of large dimensions, with extravagant apertures to increase the aberrations, and to provide for each station A, B, C, and D, a number of lenses of the same focal distance, but of different forms; and we would advise making the trial in the way of solar microscope, and to have two eye-pieces on trial at once. Their pictures can be formed on the same screen, and accurately compared; whereas it is difficult to keep in remembrance the performance of one eye-piece, and compare it with another. We have now treated the theory of refracting telescopes with considerable minuteness. We cannot add any thing to what Dr SMITH has delivered on the theory of reflecting telescopes. There appears to be the same possibility of correcting the aberration of the great speculum.

lum by the contrary aberration of a convex small speculum that we have practised in the compound object-glass of an achromatic refracting telescope. But this cannot be, unless we make the radius of the convex speculum exceedingly large, which destroys the magnifying power and the brightness. This therefore must be given up. Indeed their performance, when well executed, does already surpass all imagination. Dr Herschel has found great advantages in what he calls the *front view*, not using a plane mirror to throw the pencils to one side. But this cannot be practised in any but telescopes so large that the loss of light, occasioned by the interposition of the observer's head, may be disregarded. Nothing remains but to describe the mechanism of some of the best.

(13.) TELESCOPES. THE MOST CONVENIENT FORMS OF. To describe all the varieties of shape and accommodation which may be given to a telescope, would be a task as trifling as prolix. The artists of London and of Paris have racked their inventions to please every fancy, and to suit every purpose. We need only give a few general maxims, deduced from the scientific consideration of a telescope, as an instrument by which the visual angle subtended by a distinct object is greatly magnified. The chief consideration is to have a steady view of the distant object. This is unattainable, unless the axis of the instrument be kept constantly directed to the same point of it; for when the telescope is gently shifted from its position, the object *seems to move* in the same or in the opposite direction, according as the telescope inverts the object or shows it erect. This is owing to the magnifying power, because the apparent angular motion is greater than what we naturally connect with the motion of the telescope. This does not happen when we look through a tube without glasses. All shaking of the instrument therefore makes the object dance before the eye; which prevents us from seeing it distinctly. But a tremulous motion, however small, is infinitely more prejudicial to the performance of a telescope, by making the object quiver before us. A person walking in the room prevents us from seeing distinctly; nay, the very pulsation in the body of the observer sufficiently agitates the floor to produce this effect, when the telescope has a great magnifying power, and every part of the object is diffused over the whole space of the angular tremor. The more rapid this motion is, the indistinctness is the more complete. Therefore the more firm, elastic and well bound together the frame-work and apertures of the telescope is, the more hurtful will this consequence be. A mountain of lead, were it practicable, would be preferable to wood, iron, or brass. This is one great cause of the indistinctness of the very finest reflecting telescopes of the usual constructions, and can never be totally removed. In the Gregorian form, it is hardly possible to damp the elastic tremor of the small speculum, carried by an arm supported at one end only, even though the tube were motionless. A great improvement has been made on a four-feet reflecting telescope, by supporting the small speculum, by a strong plate of lead placed across the tube, and led by an adjusting screw at each end. But

even the great mirror may vibrate enough to produce indistinctness. Refracting telescopes are free from this inconvenience, because a small angular motion of the object-glass round one of its own diameters has no sensible effect on the image in its focus. They are affected only by an angular motion of the axis of the telescope or of the eyeglasses. This consideration enables us to judge of the merits of any particular apparatus. We should study whether its form makes the tube readily susceptible of such tremulous motions. If it does, the firmer and the more elastic it is, the worse. All forms therefore where the tube is supported only near the middle, or where the whole immediately or remotely depend on one narrow joint, are defective. We therefore affirm with confidence, that of all the forms of a telescope apparatus, the old-fashioned simple stand, represented in *fig. 19. plate 331.* is by far the best, and that others are superior according as the disposition of the points of support of the tube approaches to this. Let the pivots A, B, be fixed in the lintel and sole of a window. Let the four braces terminate very near to these pivots. Let the telescope lie on the pin F *f*, resting on the shoulder round the eye-piece, while the far end of it rests on one of the pins 1, 2, 3, &c.; and let the distance of these pins from F very little exceed the length of the telescope. The trembling of the axis, even when considerable, cannot affect the position of the tube, because the braces terminate almost at the pivots. The tremor of the brace CD does as little harm, because it is nearly perpendicular to the tube. And if the object-glasses were close at the upper supporting pin, and the focus at the lower pin F, even the bending and trembling of the tube will have no effect on its optical axis. The instrument is only subject to horizontal tremors. These may be almost annihilated by having a slender rod coming from a hook's joint in the side of the window, and passing through such another joint close by the pin F. There is an instrument of this form, having AB parallel to the earth's axis. The whole apparatus did not cost 50 shillings, and it is not in the least sensible manner affected by a storm of wind. It was by observations with this instrument that the tables of the motions of the Georgium Sidus, published in the Edinburgh Transactions, were constructed, and they are as accurate as any that have yet appeared. This is an excellent equatorial. But this apparatus is not portable, and it is sadly deficient in elegance. The following is the best method we have seen of combining these circumstances with the indispensable requisites of a good telescope. The pillar VX (*fig. 20. Plate CCCXXXIV.*) rises from a firm stand, and has a horizontal motion round a cone which completely fills it. This motion is regulated by a rack-work in the box at V. The screw of this rack-work is turned by the handle P, of a convenient length, and the screw may be disengaged by the click or detent V, when we would turn the instrument a great way at once. The telescope has a vertical motion round the joint Q placed near the middle of the tube. The lower end of the tube is supported by the stay OT. This consists of a tube RT, fastened to the gillars

pillar by a joint T, which allows the stay to move in a vertical plane. Within this tube slides another, with a stiff motion. This tube is connected with the telescope by another joint O, also admitting motion in a vertical plane. The side M of this inner tube is formed into a rack, in which works a pinion fixed to the top of the tube RT, and turned by the flat finger-piece R. The reader will readily see the advantages and the remaining defects of this apparatus. It is very portable, because the telescope is easily disengaged from it, and the legs and stay fold up. If the joint Q were immediately under A, it would be much freer from all tremor in the vertical plane. But nothing can hinder other tremors arising from the long pillar and the three springy legs. These communicate all external agitations with great vigour. The instrument should be set on a stone pedestal, or, what is better, a *cask* filled with *wet sand*. This pedestal, which necessity perhaps suggested to our scientific navigators, is the best that can be imagined. *Fig. 2. plate CCCXXXI.* is the stand usually given to reflecting telescopes. The vertical tube FBG is fastened to the tube by finger screws, which pass through the slits at F and G. This arch turns round a joint in the head of the divided pillar, and has its edge cut into an oblique rack, which is acted on by the horizontal screw, furnished with the finger-piece A. This screw turns into a horizontal square frame. This frame turns round a horizontal joint in the off-side, which cannot be seen in this view. In the side of this frame next the eye there is a finger-screw *a*, which passes through the frame, and presses on the round horizontal plate D. By screwing down this finger-screw, the frame is brought up, and presses the horizontal screw to the rack. Thus the elevation of the telescope is fixed and may be nicely changed by the finger applied to A and turning this screw. The horizontal round plate D moves stiffly round on another plate of nearly equal diameter. This under plate has a deep conical hollow socket, which is nicely fitted by grinding to a solid cone formed on the top of the great upright pillar, and they may be firmly fixed in any position by the finger-screw E. To the under plate is fastened a box *e*, containing a horizontal screw C, which always works in a rack, cut in the edge of the upper plate, and cannot be disengaged from it. When a great vertical or horizontal motion is wanted, the screws *a* and E are slackened, and by tightening them the telescope may be fixed in any position, and then any small movements may be given it by the finger plates A and C. This stand is very subject to brisk tremor, either from external agitation of the pedestal, or from the immediate action of the wind; and we cannot see distinctly through telescopes mounted in this manner, till one end of the tube is pressed against something very steady and unelastic. It is astonishing what a change this produces. The tube of a very fine telescope, made by James Short, was laid on a great lump of soft clay, pressing it firmly down into it. Several persons looked through it, and read a table of logarithms at the distance of 310 yards. The telescope was then put on its

stand, and pointed to the same object; none of the company could read at a greater distance than 235 yards, although they could perceive no tremor. They thought the vision as sharp as before; but the incontrovertible proof of the contrary was, that they could not read at such a distance. If the round plates were of much greater dimensions; and if the lower one, instead of being fixed to the pillar, were supported on 4 stout pillars standing on another plate; and if the vertical arch had a horizontal axis turning on two upright frames firmly fixed to the upper plate, the instrument would be much freer from tremor. Such stands were made formerly; but being much more bulky and inconvenient for package, they had gone into disuse. The high magnifying powers of Dr HERSCHTEL's telescopes made all the usual apparatus for their support extremely imperfect. But his judgment, ingenuity, and fertility in resource, are as eminent as his philosophical ardour. He has contrived for his reflecting telescopes stands, which have every property that can be desired. The tubes are all supported at both ends. The motions, both vertical and horizontal, are contrived with the utmost simplicity and firmness. We cannot more properly conclude this article than with a description of his 40 feet telescope, the noblest monument of philosophical zeal and of princely munificence that the world can boast of. *Fig. 22. plate CCCXXXIII.* represents a view of this instrument in a meridional situation, as it appears when seen from a convenient distance by a person placed to the south west of it. The foundation in the ground consists of two concentric circular brick walls, the outermost of which is 42 feet in diameter, and the inside one 22 feet. They are 2 feet 6 inches deep under ground; 2 feet 3 inches broad at the bottom, and 1 foot 2 inches at the top; and are capped with paving stones about 3 inches thick, and 12½ broad. The bottom frame of the whole apparatus rests upon these two walls by 20 concentric rollers H, and is moveable upon a pivot, which gives a horizontal motion to the whole apparatus, as well as to the telescope. The tube of the telescope A, tho' very simple in its form, which is cylindrical, was attended with great difficulties in the construction. This is not to be wondered at, when its size, and the materials of which it is made, are considered. Its length is 39 feet 4 inches; it measures 4 feet 10 inches in diameter; and every part of it is of iron. Upon a moderate computation, the weight of a wooden tube must have exceeded an iron one at least 3000 pounds; and its durability would have been far inferior. It is made of rolled or sheet iron, which has been joined together without rivets, by a kind of seaming well known to those who make iron funnels for stoves. Very great mechanical skill is used in the contrivance of the apparatus by which the telescope is supported and directed. To command every altitude, the point of support is moveable: and its motion is effected by mechanism, so that the telescope may be moved from its most backward point of support to the most forward, and, by means of the pulleys G G, suspended from the great beam H, be set to any altitude.

titude, up to the very zenith. The tube is also made to rest with the point of support in a pivot, which permits it to be turned sidewise. The concave face of the great mirror is 48 inches of polished surface in diameter. The thickness, which is equal in every part of it, remains now about 3½ inches; and its weight, when it came from the cast was 2118 pounds, of which it must have lost a small quantity in polishing. To put this speculum into the tube, it is suspended vertically by a crane in the laboratory, and placed on a small narrow carriage, which is drawn out, rolling upon planks, till it comes near the back of the tube; here it is again suspended and placed in the tube by a peculiar apparatus. The method of observing by this telescope is by what Dr Herschel calls the *front view*; the observer being placed in a seat C, suspended at the end of it, with his back towards the object he views. There is no small speculum, but the magnifiers are applied immediately to the first focal image. From the opening of the telescope, near the place of the eye-glass, a speaking pipe runs down to the bottom of the tube, where it goes into a turning joint; and after several other inflections, it at length divides into two branches, one going into the observatory D, the other into the work-room E. By means of the speaking pipe the communications of the observer are conveyed to the assistant in the observatory, and the workman is directed to perform the required motions. In the observatory is placed a valuable fiducial time-piece, made by Mr Shelton. Close to it, and of the same height, is a polar distance-piece, which has a dial-plate of the same dimensions with the time-piece: this piece may be made to show polar distance, zenith distance, declination or altitude, by setting it differently. The time and polar distance-pieces are placed so that the assistant sits before them at a table, with the speaking-pipe rising between them; and in this manner observations may be written down very conveniently. This noble instrument, with proper eye-glasses, magnifies above 6000 times, and is the largest that has ever been made. Such of our readers as wish for a full account of the machinery attached to it, viz. the ladders, ladders, and platform B, may have recourse to the second part of the Transactions of the Royal Society for 1795; in which, by means of 18 plates and 63 pages of letter press, an ample detail is given of every circumstance relating to joiner's work, carpenter's work, and smith's work, which attended the formation and erection of this telescope. It was completed Aug. 28th 1789, and on the same day was the sixth satellite of SATURN discovered.

* **TELESCOPICAL**, *adj.* [from *telescope*.] Belonging to a telescope; seeing at a distance.

TELESE, a town of Naples, in Lavora, 18 miles ENE. of Capua.

(1.) **TELESIA**, in ancient geography, a town of Italy, in Campania. It was taken by Hannibal. *Liv.* 21. c. 13. &c. It is now called **TELESE**.

(2.) **TELESIA**, in mineralogy, a name given by Mr Hony, to the genus of **SAPPHIRE**. See **MINERALOGY**, Part. II. Chap. IV. Cl. I. Ord. I. Gen. I.

TELESILLA, a lyric poetess of Argos, who

bravely defended her country against the Spartans. *Paus.* ii. c. 20.

TELESINUS, a general of the Samnites, who joined the party of Marius, and fought against the generals of Sylla. He marched towards Rome, and defeated Sylla himself with great loss. But at last he was defeated and killed in a bloody battle, after displaying the utmost bravery. *Plut.*

TELETÆ. See **MYSTERIES**, § 17, 18.

TELETHUS, a mountain of Eubœa.

TELETZKOI, a lake of Russia, in Kolivan; 52 miles long, and 10 broad. *Lon.* 105. c. E. *Ferro.* Lat. 51. 30. N.

TELES, a town of Germany, in the Tyrolese near the Inn: 14 miles WSW. of Innsbruck.

TELGA, **TELGEIN**, or **TELGEN**, } a commercial town of Sweden, in Sudermania, on the S. bank of Lake Mæler: 12 or 15 miles SW. of Stockholm. *Lon.* 17. 24. E. *Lat.* 59. 18. N.

TELGH, a town of Germany, in the cistercian bishoprick of MÜNSTER; allotted by the division of indemnities, in 1801, to the K. of Prussia. It is 5 miles ESE. of Münster.

TELGHIOURAN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Diarbekir: 30 miles S. of Diarbek.

TELHEIRO, a town of Portugal, in Beira; 6 miles SW. of Pínel.

TELICA, a volcano on the W. coast of New Mexico. It is seen at NNE. over the ridge of Tosta.

TELIGUL, a lake of Russia, 120 miles in circumference. *Lon.* 84° E. *Ferro.* Lat. 43. 12. N.

TELL, William, an illustrious Swiss patriot, the chief instrument of the revolution which delivered the Swiss cantons from the German yoke in 1307. (See **SWITZERLAND**, § 3.) Animated by William Tell's courage and patriotism the Swiss flew to arms; attacked and vanquished Griser, who was shot to death by Tell; and the association for the independency was immediately formed. Tell was offered the government, but he refused it. While endeavouring to avert the course of a torrent and prevent its farther desolations, he was carried off by the impetuous stream, in 1354.

(1.) * *To TELL*, *v. a.* preterite and part. pass. *told*. [*tellan*, SAX. *taelen*, *tellen*, Dutch; *taken*, Dan.] 1. To utter; to express; to speak.—I will not eat till I have *told* mine errand. *Gen.* xxiv. 53.—

Thy message might in *telling* wound. *Milton.* 2. To relate; to rehearse.—I will declare what wife men have *told* from their fathers. *Job*, xv. 18.—When Gideon heard the *telling* of the dream, and the interpretation, he worshipped. *Judges.*

He longer will delay to hear thee *tell*

His generation. *Milton.*

You must know; but break, O break, my heart!

Before I *tell* my fatal story out. *Dryden.*

Not a man appears to *tell* their fate. *Pope.*

3. To teach; to inform.—Who answer'd him full soft, he could not *tell*.

Spenser.

I *told* him of myself. *Shak.*

Tell me now, what lady is the same,

To whom you swore a secret pilgrimage,

That you to-day promis'd to *tell* me of? *Shak.*

—The

—The fourth part of a shekel of silver will I give to the man of God to tell us our way. 1 Sam. ix. 8.—St Paul *telleth* us, we must needs be subject for conscience sake. *Sonderfen*.—

Tell me how may I know him, how adore?

Milton.

4. To discover; to betray.—They will *tell* it to the inhabitants. *Num.* xiv. 5. To count; to number.—

None, except her years they *told*,
Thought her a child, or thought her old.

Waller.

Numerous sails the fearful only *tell*. *Dryden*.
—A child can *tell* twenty before he has any idea of infinite. *Locke*.—

She doubts if two and two make four,
Though he has *told* them ten times o'er. *Prior*.

6. To make excuses. A low word.—

Tush, never *tell* me.

Shak.

(1.) * To *TELL*. *v. n.* 1. To give an account; to make report.—I will compass thine altar, O Lord, that I may *tell* of all thy wondrous works. *Psal.* xxvi. 7.—

Ye that live and move, fair creatures, *tell*,
Tell, if ye saw, how came I thus, how here?

Milton.

1. To *TELL* on. To inform of. A doubtful phrase.—Left they should *tell* on us. 1 Sam. xxvii. *TELLEN* HEAD, a cape of Ireland, on the coast of Donegal, Ulster. Lon. 8. 35. W. Lat. 55. 0. N.

(1.) * *TELLER*. *n. s.* [from *tell*.] 1. One who tells or relates. 2. One who numbers; a numberer. 3. A *teller* is an officer of the exchequer, of which there are four in number; their business is to receive all monies due to the king, and give the clerk of the peil a bill to charge him therewith; they also pay all persons any money payable to them by the king, by warrant from the auditor of the receipt; they also make books of receipts and payments, which they deliver to the lord treasurer. *Cowell*.

(2.) The *TELLER*, in ancient records is called *TELLER*.

TELLES, a sea-port town of Africa, in Fez, on the N. coast. 120 miles ESE. of Algiers.

TELLIAS, or *TELLIUS*, a famous astronomer and soothsayer, of Elis, who flourished in the age of *Xerxes*. *Pauf.* x. 1.

TELLICHERRY, or } a sea-port town of Hind-
TELLICHERY, } dohan, on the coast of
Malabar; with an English factory, 30 miles N. of Calicut, and 246 SSE. of Goa. Lon. 75. 50. E. Lat. 11. 48. N.

TELLICO, a town of Tennessee, 30 miles SW. of Knoxville. Lon. 84. 18. W. Lat. 35. 57. N.

TELLIGT, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, and ci-devant bishopric of Munster, with a rich abbey; allotted, in 1801, to the K. of Prussia; 3 miles from Munster.

TELLIGUO MOUNTAINS, mountains of Hindoostan. S. of *Tellicherry*.

TELLINA, in zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the class of *vermes*, and order of *testacea*. The animal is a tethys; the shell is bivalve, generally sloping to one side, with three teeth at the hinge. *Gmelin* reckons about 90 species. The tethys bury themselves in the mud or sand

at the bottom of the sea, keeping a communication with the water above by means of short tubes or pipes.

TELLINGANA, an ancient province of Hindoostan, now called *GOLCONDA*.

TELLINGSTEDE, a town of Germany, in Holstein, 11 miles SE. of Lunden.

TELLIPOLI, a town of Ceylon, 9 miles N. of Jaffnapatana.

TELLIUS. See *TELLIAS*.

(1.) * *TELLTALE*. *n. s.* [from *tell* and *tale*.] One who gives malicious information; one who carries officious intelligence.—

You speak to Casca, and to such a man

That is no hearing *telltale*.

Shak.

What, shall these papers lie like *telltales* here?

Shakefp.

Let not the Heav'n's hear these *telltale* women
Rail on the Lord's anointed.

Shak.

Report displays her *telltale* wings. *Fairfax*.

And to the *telltale* fan descry

Our conceal'd solemnity.

Milton.

This *telltale* ghost

Perhaps will clear them both.

Dryden.

A *telltale* out of school

Is of all wits the greatest fool.

Swift.

(2.) *TELL-TALE*, is also a name sometimes given to the PERPETUAL LOG. See *LOG*. N° 2.

TELLUS, [Lat. *i. e.* the Earth.] in the mythology, one of the Roman names of the goddess *CYBELLE*, and which in common language signified the same with *terra*, the *earth*; but, in the mythology, *TERRA* was the name appropriated to the *mother*, the wife of *COELUS*, and *TELLUS* to the daughter, the wife of *SATURN*. See *OPS*.

TELMES, a town of Africa, in Morocco, 15 miles from Safi.

TELTOW, a town of Brandenburg, 10 miles S. of Berlin.

TELTSCHE, a town of Moravia, on the frontiers of Bohemia, at the source of the Teya, 12 m. N. of Zlabings. Lon. 16. 0. E. Lat. 49. 0. N.

TEMA, a town of Mingo, on the Gold Coast.

TEMANIK, a town of Persia, in Segestian, 165 miles SW. of Zareng.

TEMATHEA, a mountain of Messenia.

TEMBLEQUE, a town of Spain in New Castile, 23 miles ESE. of Toledo.

TEMDE, a river of England in Shropshire, which runs into the Severn, 2 m. above Ludlow.

TEME, a river of England, in Radnorshire, Salop, and Worcestershire, which runs into the Severn, a mile below Worcester.

TEMELET, a town of Morocco, 70 miles WSW. of Morocco.

TEMENDEFUST, a town of Algiers, on the coast of the Mediterranean, 10 m. E. of Algiers.

TEMENEH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 52 miles WNW. of Sinop.

TEMENI, a town of Candia, 6 miles S. of Candia.

TEMENIUM, a town of MESSENE.

TEMENOS, a town of Syracuse.

TEMENUS, a leader of the HERACLIDE, who became king of ARGOS. He was succeeded by Deiphon, who had married his daughter Hymetho.

* *TEMERARIOUS*. *adj.* [temeraire, Fr. temerarius,

C c 2

rarius,

varius, Lat.] 1. Rash; heady; unreasonably adventurous; unreasonably contemptuous of danger.—Resolution without foresight is but a *temerarious* folly. *L'Estrange*. 2. Careless; heedless; done at random.—Should he find upon one single sheet of parchment, an oration written full of profound truths, adorned with elegant phrase, the wit of man could not persuade him that this was done by the *temerarious* dashes of an unguided pen. *Ros*.

TEMERARIOUSLY, *adv.* [from *temerarious*.] Rashly; in a rash manner.

* **TEMERITY**, *n. f.* [*temeritas*, Lat.] Rashness; unreasoned contempt of danger.—

The figures are bold even to *temerity*. *Cowley*.

TEMES, a river of Hungary, which rises in a mountain, and runs into the Danube, opposite Belgrade.

TEMESA, 1. a town of Cyprus: 2. a town of Cantabria in Italy, famous for copper mines.

(1.) **TEMESVÁR**, or } a county of Upper Hun-
(1.) **TEMESWAR**, } gary, or *bannat* as it is
styled in the Hungarian language.

(2.) **TEMESWAR**, or **TEMESVÁR**, the capital of the above county. It is a strong city, and formerly passed for impregnable; having been besieged in vain by the Turks in 1551; and by the Transylvanians, in 1596 and 1597. In 1690, it was also blockaded by the imperialists. But in 1716, it was taken by prince Eugene, after throwing in several thousand bombs. It is seated on the Beg, which forms a morass round it, 60 miles NE. of Belgrade, 150 SE. of Buda, and 250 SE. of Vienna. Lon. 33. 20. E. Lat. 45. 37. N.

TEMETVIN, a fortified town of Hungary, 14 miles W. of Topolztan.

TEMIAM, a town of Africa, in Bornou.

TEMISCHBERG, a town and fort of Russia, 3n Caucasus, 60 miles W. of Stauropol.

TEMISSA, the capital of Fezzan, about 120 miles ENE. of Mourzouk. Here the pilgrims from Bernou and Nigritia, who depart from Mourzouk, and travel by Cairo to Mecca, usually provide the stores of corn and dates, and dried meat, that are requisite for their dreary passage.

TEMITZ, a town of Bohemia, in Chrudim.

TEMNIKOV, a town of Russia, in Tambovskoi, 116 miles NNE. of Tambov.

TEMPE, in ancient geography, a valley of Thessaly, in Phthiotis, between Mount Olympus on the N. and Ossa on the S. through which the Peneus runs into the Ægean Sea. All the poets celebrate this valley as the most delightful spot on earth; with verdant walks, cool shady groves, and the melodious singing of birds, &c. and hence the name *Tempe* became proverbial for a pleasant spot. It was 5 miles long, but in some places not above 1½ acres broad. But Livy gives a quite different account of it, and says the Roman army were struck with horror in passing over the precipitous rocky chasm. Strabo accounts for the difference by the depredations of an earthquake. See *Strabo* ix. and *Livy*.

(1.) * **TEMPER**, *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Due mixture of contrary qualities.—Nothing better proveth the excellency of this soil and *temper* than the abundant growing of the palm trees. *Baileigh*.—Health itself is but a kind of *temper*,

gotten and preserved by a convenient mixture of contraries. *Arbutnot*. 2. Middle course; mean or medium.—The present clergy's wishes reach no further than that some reasonable *temper* had been used. *Swift*. 3. Constitution of body.—Having done growing, it would become more dry by degrees, and of a *temper* of greater consistency. *Burnet*. 4. Disposition of mind.—This evangelical *temper* is far from being natural. *Hammond*.—

Remember with what mild

And gracious *temper* he both heard, and judg'd,
Without wrath or reviling. *Milton*.

—This will keep their thoughts easy and free, the only *temper* wherein the mind is capable of receiving new informations. *Locke*.—All irregular *temper*s in trade and business, are but like irregular *temper*s in eating and drinking. *Low*. 5. Constitutional frame of mind.—The brain may devise laws for the blood, but a hot *temper* leaps o'er a cold decree. *Shak*.—

Our hearts,

Of brothers *temper*, do receive you in. *Shak*.

6. Calmness of mind; moderation.—

Restore yourselves unto your *temper*s. *B. Jon*.

To fall with dignity, with *temper* rise. *Pope*.

7. State to which metals are reduced, particularly as to hardness.—

A sword, whose *temper* I intend to stain

With the best blood that I can meet. *Shak*.

Ithuriel with his spear,

Touch'd lightly; for no falsehood can endure

Touch of celestial *temper*. *Milton*.

—These needles should have a due *temper*. *Sharp*.

(2.) **TEMPER**, in mechanics. See **TEMPERING**.

* **TO TEMPER**, *v. a.* [*tempero*, Lat. *temperer*, Fr.] 1. To mix so as that one part qualifies the other.—

I shall *temper* so

Justice with mercy, as may illustrate most

Them fully satisfied, and Thee appease. *Milt*.

2. To compound; to form by mixture.—

If you could find out but a man

To bear a poison, I would *temper* it. *Shak*.

3. To mingle.—Prepare the sixth part of an ephal and the third part of an hin of oil, to *temper* with the fine flour. *Ezek* xlvi. 14.—The good old knight *tempered* the inquiries after his own affairs with kind questions relating to themselves. *Addison*. 4. To beat together to a proper consistence.—

Th' uncivil kerns of Ireland are in arms,

And *temper* clay with blood. *Shak*.

—The potter *tempering* soft earth, fashioneth every vessel. *Wisd* xv. 7. 5. To accommodate; to modify.—Thy sustenance leaving to the appetite of the eater, *tempered* itself to every man's liking. *Wisd* xvi. 21. 6. To bring to due proportion; to moderate excess.—

These soft fires with kindly heat

Temper or nourish. *Milton*.

7. To soften; to mollify; to assuage; to soothe; to calm.—Solon, in his laws to the Athenians, laboured to *temper* their warlike courages with sweet delights of learning and sciences. *Spenser*.—

With this she wants to *temper* angry Jove.

Spenser.

Now will I to that old Andronicus,
And *temper* him with all the art I have. *Shak*.
Lovely

Lovely Woman ! Nature form'd thee
To temper man : we had been brutes without
you. *Osway.*

3. To form metals to a proper degree of hardness.
The sword

Of Michael from the armoury of God
Was given him, *temper'd* so that neither keen
Nor solid might resist that edge. *Milton.*

—In the *tempering* of steel, by holding it but a
minute or two longer or lesser in the other com-
petent heat, gives it very different tempers as to
brittleness or toughness. *Boyle.*

Redd'ning the skies, and glitt'ring all around,
The *temper'd* metals clash. *Dryden.*

9. To govern. A Latinism.—

With which the damned ghosts he governeth,
And furies rules, and Tartare *tempereth*. *Spens.*

(1.) * TEMPERAMENT. *n. f.* [*temperamentum*, Latin ; *temperament*, Fr.] 1. Constitution ;
state with respect to the predominance of any qua-
lity.—Bodies are denominated hot and cold, in
proportion to the present *temperament* of that part
of our body to which they are applied. *Locke.* 2.
Medium ; due mixture of opposites.—The com-
mon law reduced the kingdom to its just state and
temperament. *Hale.*

(2.) TEMPERAMENT, among physicians, (§ 1.
def. 1.) is a certain disposition of the solids and
fluids of the human body, by which it may be
properly denominated strong, weak, lax, &c. In
every person there is perhaps a temperament pecu-
liar to himself, though the ancients only took
notice of four, which indeed seem to have a real
existence, and are capable of receiving an expla-
nation. The two that are most distinctly marked
are the sanguineous and melancholic, viz. the
temperaments of youth and age. 1. *Sanguineous*.
Here there is laxity of solids, discoverable by the
softness of hair and succulency ; large system of
arteries, redundancy of fluids, florid complexion ;
sensibility of the nervous power, especially to
pleasing objects ; irritability from the plethora ;
mobility and levity from lax solids. 2. *Melancho-
lic Habit*. Here greater rigidity of solids occurs,
discoverable by the hardness and crispature of the
hair ; small proportion of the fluids, hence dry-
ness and leanness ; small arteries, hence pale co-
lour ; venous plethora, hence turgescency of these,
and lividity ; sensibility, frequently exquisite ; mo-
derate irritability, with remarkable tenacity of
impressions ; steadiness in action and slowness of
motion, with great strength ; for excess of this
constitution in maniacs gives the most extraordi-
nary instance of human strength we know. This
temperament is most distinctly marked in old age,
and in males. 3. The *Choleric* temperament takes
place between youth and manhood. In this the
distribution of the fluids is more exactly balanced ;
there is less sensibility, and less obesity, with more
irritability, proceeding from greater tension, less
mobility and levity, and more steadiness in the
strength of the nervous power. As to the—4.
Phlegmatic, it cannot be distinguished by any
characters of age or sex. It agrees with the san-
guineous in laxity and succulency. It differs from
that temperament and the melancholic, by the
more exact distribution of the fluids. Again, it dif-
fers from the sanguineous, by having less sensibility,

irritability, mobility, and perhaps strength, though
sometimes indeed this last is found to be great.
These are the ancient temperaments. The tem-
peraments, indeed, are much more various ; and
very far from being easily marked and reduced to
their genera and species, from the great variety
which is observable in the constitutions of diffe-
rent men. But the late Dr Brown, among other
bold assertions, insisted, that there is no natural
difference of constitution but what is occasioned
by habit and accident.

(3.) TEMPERAMENT, in music, is defined by
Roussau to be an operation, which, by a slight
alteration in the intervals, causes the difference
between two contiguous sounds to disappear,
makes each of these sounds seem identical with
the other, which, without offending the ear, may
still preserve their respective intervals or distances
one from the other. By this operation the scale
is rendered more simple, and the number of sounds
which would otherwise be necessarily retrenched.
Had not the scale been thus modified, instead of 12
sounds alone, which are contained in the octave,
more than 60 would be indispensably required to
form what we properly call *modulation* in every
tone. See MUSIC, Part I, Chap. VII.

* TEMPERAMENTAL. *adj.* [from *tempera-
ment*.] Constitutional.—That *temperamental* digno-
tion, and conjecture of prevalent humours, that
may be collected from spots in our nails, we con-
cede. *Brown.*—Intellectual representations are
received with as unequal a fate upon a bare *tem-
peramental* relish or disgust. *Glanville.*

(1.) * TEMPERANCE. *n. f.* [*temperantia*, Lat.]
1. Moderation ; opposed to *gluttony* and *drunken-
ness*.—

By *temperance* taught
In what thou eat'st and drink'st. *Milton.*
—*Temperance*, tranquillity of mind. *Temple.*

Make *temperance* thy companion. *Dodley.*
2. Patience ; calmness ; sedateness ; moderation
of passion.—

He calm'd his wrath with goodly *temperance*.
Spenser.

Ask God for *temperance*. *Shak.*
(2.) TEMPERANCE is often used in a much more
general sense, as synonymous with moderation,
and is then applied indiscriminately to all the
passions.

* TEMPERATE. *adj.* [*temperatus*, Lat.] 1.
Not excessive ; moderate in degree of any qua-
lity.—Use a *temperate* heat, for they are ever *tem-
perate* heats that digest and mature ; wherein we
mean *temperate* according to the nature of the
subject ; for that may be *temperate* to fruits and
liquors which will not work at all upon metals.
Bacon.

His sleep
Was airy, light, from pure digestion bred,
And *temperate* vapours bland. *Milton.*
2. Moderate in meat and drink.—I advised him
to be *temperate* in eating and drinking. *Wise man.*
3. Free from ardent passion.—

Such *temperate* order in so fierce a course
Doth want example. *Shak.*

She is not hot, but *temperate* as the morn. *Shak.*
—From *temperate* inactivity we are unready to
put in execution the suggestions of reason. *Brown.*

* TEM.

* **TEMPERATELY.** *adv.* [from *temperate*.]

1. Moderately; not excessively.—
By winds that *temperately* blow,
The bark should pass secure and slow. *Addison*.
2. Calmly; without violence of passion.—
Temperately proceed to what you would
Thus violently redress. *Shak.*
3. Without gluttony or luxury.—God esteems it
a part of his service if we eat or drink; so it be
temperately. *Taylor*.

* **TEMPERATENESS.** *n. f.* [from *temperate*.]
1. Freedom from excesses; mediocrity. 2. Calm-
ness; coolness of mind.—

Langley's mild *temperateness*. *David.*
Did tend into a calmer quietness.

(1.) * **TEMPERATURE.** *n. f.* [*temperatura*, *temper*, Lat. *temperature*, Fr.] 1. Constitution of nature; degree of any qualities.—It is of no other *temperature* than Guinea. *Abbot*.—Birds that change countries at certain seasons, if they come earlier, shew the *temperature* of weather. *Bacon*.—There may be as much difference as to the *temperature* of the air, in one mile, as in ten degrees of latitude. *Brown*.—Memory depends upon the *temperature* of the brain. *Watts*. 2. Mediocrity; due balance of contraries.—

Here Autumn's *temperature*. *Davies*.
—If we suppose a constant *temperature* before the deluge, the case would be much altered. *Woodward*. 3. Moderation; freedom from predominant passion.—

In that proud port which her so goodly graceth,
Most goodly *temperature* you may descry. *Spens.*

(2.) **TEMPERATURE OF THE AIR, OR ATMOSPHERE.** See AIR; ATMOSPHERE, § 9; ELECTRICITY, *Index*; HEAT, § 16, and 17; and METEOROLOGY, *Sec.* V.

* **TEMPERED.** *adj.* [from *temper*.] Disposed with regard to the passions.—

When was my lord so much ungently *tempered*? *Shak.*

TEMPERING. *part. n. f.* in the mechanic arts, the preparing of steel and iron, so as to render them more compact, hard, and firm; or more soft and pliant, according to their respective occasions. See IRON, § 12; and STEEL.

(1.) * **TEMPEST.** *n. f.* [*tempeste*, Fr. *tempestas*, Lat.] 1. The utmost violence of the wind; the names by which the wind is called according to the gradual increase of its force seems to be, a breeze; a gale; a gulf; a storm; a tempest.—

I have seen *tempests*, when the seething winds
Have rivid the knotty oaks. *Shak.*
—Some have been driven by *tempest* to the south.
Abbot.—

What at first was called a gulf, the same
Hath now a storm's, anon a *tempest's* name.

We, caught in a fiery *tempest*, shall be hurl'd
Each on his rock transfix'd. *Milton*.

With clouds and storms
Around thee thrown, *tempest* o'er *tempest* roll'd,
Thou humblest nature with thy northern blast. *Thomson*.

2. Any tumult; commotion; perturbation.—

The *tempest* in my mind
Doth from my senses take all feeling else,
—Save what beats there. *Shak.*

(2.) **TEMPEST.** See HURRICANE, SAMIEL, SIMOON, WHIRLWIND, and WIND.

* **TO TEMPEST.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To disturb as by a tempest.—

Part huge of bulk,
Wallowing unwildly, enormous in their gait,
Tempest the ocean. *Milton*.

(1.) **TEMPESTA.** See MOLYN.

(2.) **TEMPESTA**, Antony, an Italian painter, born at Florence, in 1555. He studied under Strada, and excelled in landscapes with figures. He also engraved some prints. He died in 1630.

* **TEMPEST-BEATEN.** *adj.* [*tempest* and *beat*.]
Shattered with storms.—

In the calm harbour of her gentle breast,
My *tempest-beaten* soul may safely rest. *Dryden*.

* **TEMPESTIVITY.** *n. f.* [*tempestivus*, Lat.] Seasonableness.—Since their disposition, the constitutions of countries admit not such *tempestivity* of harvest. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

* **TEMPEST-TOST.** *adj.* [*tempest* and *tost*.]
Driven about by storms.—

'Tis though his bark cannot be lost,
Ye' shall it be *tempest-tost*. *Shak.*

* **TEMPESTUOUS.** *adj.* [*tempestuosus*, French, from *tempest*.] Stormy; turbulent.—

Tempestuous fortune hath spent all her spight,
And thrilling sorrow thrown his utmost dart.

Which of them rising with the sun, or falling,
Should prove *tempestuous*. *Milton*.

Her looks grew black as a *tempestuous* wind,
Some raging thoughts are rowling in her mind. *Dryden*.

—Pompey, when dissuaded from embarking because the weather was *tempestuous*, replied, My voyage is necessary, my life is not so. *Collier*.

TEMPI, a town of Sardinia; 25 miles E. of Castello Arragonese.

(1.) * **TEMPLAR.** *n. f.* [from the *Temple*, an house near the Thames, anciently belonging to the knights *templars*, originally from the temple of Jerusalem.] A student in the law.—

Wits and *templars* ev'ry sentence raise,
And wonder with a foolish face of praise. *Pope*.

(2.) **TEMPLARS, TEMPLERS, or Knights of the Temple**, a religious order instituted at Jerusalem in the beginning of the 12th century, for the defence of the holy sepulchre, and the protection of Christian pilgrims. They were first called *The poor of the Holy City*, and afterwards assumed the appellation of *Templars*, because their house was near the temple. The order was founded by Baldwin II. king of Jerusalem, with the concurrence of the pope; and the principal articles of their rule were: That they should hear the holy office throughout every day; or that, when their military duties should prevent this, they should supply it by a certain number of pater nosters: that they should abstain from flesh 4 days in the week, and on Fridays from eggs and milk-meats: that each knight might have 3 horses, and one esquire: and that they should neither hunt nor fowl. After the ruin of the kingdom of Jerusalem about 1186, they spread themselves through Germany and other countries of Europe, to which they were invited by the liberality of the Christians. In 1218, this order acquired stability, by

by being confirmed in the council of Troyes, and subjected to a rule of discipline drawn up by St Bernard. In every nation they had a particular governor, called *master of the Temple*, or of the *militia of the Temple*. Their grand-master resided at Paris. The order flourished for some time, and acquired, by the valour of its knights, immense riches and an eminent degree of military renown: but as their prosperity increased, their vices multiplied, and their arrogance, luxury, and cruelty, rose at last to such a monstrous height, that their privileges were revoked, and their order suppressed with the most terrible circumstances of intamy and severity. Their accusers were two of their own body, and their chief prosecutor Philip the Fair of France, who addressed his complaints to Clement V. The pope, though at first unwilling to proceed against them, was under a necessity of complying with the king's desire; so that, in 1307, upon an appointed day, and for some afterwards, all the knights who were dispersed throughout Europe, were seized and imprisoned, and many of them, after trials for capital crimes, were convicted and put to death. In 1312, the whole order was suppressed by the council of Vienne. A part of the rich revenues they possessed was bestowed upon other orders, especially on the knights of St John, now of MALTA, and the rest confiscated to the respective treasuries of the sovereign princes in whose dominions their possessions lay.

(1.) TEMPLE, Sir William, an eminent statesman, born in London, in 1628. His family was ancient, and assumed the surname of *Temple* from the manor of Temple, in the hundred of Sparken Hall, Leicestershire. He was first sent to Penshurst, in Kent, under his uncle, Dr Hammond; but at ten he was removed to Bishop's Stortford, in Hertfordshire. In his 17th year, he went to Cambridge, where he was placed under the tuition of Dr CUDWORTH. After acquiring a competency of French and Spanish, he was sent abroad to finish his education. Having resided two years in France, Mr Temple made a tour through Holland, Flanders, and Germany. In 1654, he returned home, and married Miss Osborn, daughter of Sir Peter Osborn of Chicksand. He rejected all offers of employment under Cromwell; but at the Restoration, in 1660, being chosen a member of the Irish convention, while others were trying to make their court to the king, Mr Temple opposed the poll-bill with so much spirit, that his conduct soon attracted the attention of the public, and brought him into notice. In the next parliament, in 1661, he was elected with his father for the county of Carlow; and, in 1661, was chosen one of the commissioners from that parliament to the king. Soon after he went back to Ireland, where he met with a very favourable reception from the duke of Ormond. In 1665, he was sent with a secret commission to the Bp. of Munster, which he executed so much to the satisfaction of Charles II. that, on his return to Brussels, he appointed him resident there, and created him a baronet. In April 1666 he sent for his family; but, before their arrival, he had been again obliged to depart upon business to the prelate's court. Having finished his business at Mun-

ster, he returned to Brussels, where he passed a year. In spring 1667, a new war breaking out between France and Spain, which exposed Brussels to danger, Sir William sent his lady and family to England; but he himself remained there with his sister till Dec. 25, when he was ordered by the king to come over privily to London. Taking the Hague in his way, he paid a visit to De Witt, and proposed those overtures which produced the triple alliance. Soon after his arrival at the British court, he returned, on the 16th Jan. 1668, with the character of envoy extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Holland; where a conference being opened, he brought that treaty to a perfect conclusion in 5 days. The ratifications of this alliance being exchanged on the 15th Feb. he repaired to Brussels; and a treaty being set on foot between France and Spain at Aix-la-Chapelle, he set out for that place on the 24th April in quality of his majesty's ambassador extraordinary. He arrived on the 27th; and it was chiefly owing to his assistance that the Spaniards were brought to sign the articles of that peace on the 2d of May. He then returned to Brussels, with a view of remaining there in his former station of resident; but he received letters from the earl of Arlington, with the king's order to be his ambassador. Sir William upon this returned to England, and was received with every possible token of favour by the king. Setting out again for Holland, in his new character of ambassador, he arrived at the Hague in August 1668; where he enjoyed the confidence of that great minister De Witt, and lived in great intimacy with the prince of Orange, then only 18 years of age; but in Sept. 1669, he was hurried back to England by lord Arlington, and pressed to return to the Hague, and pave the way for a war with Holland. This, however, he refused to have any hand in; which so much provoked the lord treasurer Clifford, that he refused to pay him an arrear of 2000 l. due from his embassy. Disgusted with Arlington's behaviour, Sir William returned to his house at Sheen, near Richmond, in Surry. About the end of summer, however, 1673, the king wishing to put an end to the war, sent for Sir William, to negotiate a peace; but powers having been sent from Holland to the Marq. de Presno, the Spanish ambassador at London, Sir William was ordered to confer with him; and a treaty was concluded in 3 days, and the point carried respecting the *superiority of the British flag*, which had been so long contested. In June 1674, he was again sent ambassador to Holland to offer the king's mediation between France and the confederates, then at war, which was accepted soon after; Lord Berkeley, Sir William Temple, and Sir Leoline Jenkins being declared ambassadors and mediators; Nimeguen, which Sir William had proposed, was at length agreed upon by all parties to be the place of treaty. During his stay at the Hague, the prince of Orange, who was fond of the English language, constantly dined and supped once or twice a-week at his house; and by this familiarity he so much gained the prince's confidence and esteem, that he had a considerable hand in his marriage with the Princess Mary, daughter of James II. In July, 1676, he removed his family to Nimeguen, and in 1677, his

his son was sent over with letters, ordering him to return, and succeed Mr Coventry as secretary of state. In consequence of this order, Sir William came over to England in spring 1677; and though the affair of the secretaryship was dropped at his desire, he did not return to Nimeguen that year. About this time, the prince of Orange came over, and married the Princess Mary; and this gave occasion for a new coolness between lord Arlington and Sir William, as he and the lord treasurer Osborn, who was related to Sir William's lady, were only privy to that affair. After the prince and princess were gone to Holland, as the court seemed inclined to favour France, the king wished to engage Sir William in some negotiations with that crown; but he was so ill satisfied with this proposal, that he offered to give up all pretensions to the office of secretary; and desiring the lord treasurer to acquaint his majesty with his intentions, retired to Sheen, in hopes of being taken at his word. Upon a discovery, however, of the French designs not to evacuate the Spanish towns agreed by the treaty to be delivered up, the king commanded him to go upon a 3d embassy to the states; with whom he concluded a treaty; by which England engaged, in case France refused to evacuate the towns in 40 days, to declare war immediately against that nation; but before half that time was elapsed, one Du Crois was sent from the English court to Holland upon a business which damped all the good humour excited by the treaty there, and which produced such sudden changes here, as gave Sir William a distaste for all public employments. In 1679 he went back to Nimeguen, where the French delayed to sign the treaty till the last hour; but having concluded it, he returned to the Hague, whence he was soon after sent for to enter upon the secretary's office, which Mr Coventry at length resolved to resign. He accordingly came over, and went to court, with a full intention of assuming his office; but he started a difficulty, that he had not a seat in the house of commons; and notwithstanding the king's repeated intreaties, refused to accept, but advised him to choose a council in whom he could confide, and upon whose abilities he could depend. This advice was followed, and the choice of the persons being concerted between the king and Sir William, the old council was dissolved four days after, and the new one established, of which Sir William was a member. In 1680 the councils began again to be changed, on the king's illness, at the end of summer, and the duke of York returned privately to court. In this juncture Sir William, endeavouring to restore to the king's favour some persons to whom he had taken a dislike, he met with such treatment as gave him a fresh distaste to the court; so that he resided principally at Sheen. Soon after this the king sent for him again; and having proposed that he should go as ambassador into Spain, Sir William consented; but when his equipage was almost ready, and part of the money paid down for it, the king proposed to defer his journey till the end of the session of parliament, in which he was chosen a member for the university of Cambridge. In this session the spirit of party ran so high that

it was impossible to bring the house to any temper. The duke was sent into Scotland; but nothing would satisfy them, but a bill of exclusion; which Sir William strenuously opposed. Not long after this period, the parliament being dissolved by the king, without the advice of his privy council, and contrary to his promise, Sir William made a bold speech against it; for which he was very ill used by some of those who had been most earnest in promoting the last change in the ministry. Upon this he grew quite tired of public business, declined the offer he had of again serving for the university in the next parliament, that soon after met at Oxford; and seeing the king resolved to govern without his parliament, and to supply his treasury through another channel, he retired to Sheen, resolving never more to meddle with public affairs. From that time Sir William lived at this place, till having purchased a seat, called *Moor-Park*, near Farnham in Surry, which he conceived a great fondness for, he resolved to spend the remainder of his life in this agreeable retreat. At the time of the happy revolution, in 1688, Moor-Park becoming unsafe, as it lay in the way of both armies, he went back to the house at Sheen, which he had given up to his son. When the Prince reached Windsor, he went thither to wait upon his highness, and carried his son along with him. The prince pressed him to enter into his service, and to be secretary of state; but his age and infirmities confirming him in the resolution he had made not to meddle any more with public affairs, he was satisfied that his son alone should enjoy his majesty's favour. Mr John Temple was appointed secretary at war; but he had hardly been a week in that office, when he drowned himself. In 1694 Sir William lost his lady. After this he lived 4 years, very much afflicted with the gout; and died in Jan. 1698. His body was interred in Westminster Abbey, and a marble monument erected in 1722. Sir William's principal works are, 1. *Memoirs from 1672 to 1692.* 2. *Remarks upon the State of the United Provinces.* 3. *An Introduction to the History of England.* 4. *Letters written during his last embassies;* and 5. *Miscellanies, which contain many curious pieces.* He was an accomplished gentleman, a sound politician, a patriot, and a scholar.

(2.) TEMPLE, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles W. of Villeneuve d'Agen, and 9 E. of Tonniens.

(3.) * TEMPLE, *n. f.* [*temple*, Fr. *templum*, Lat.]

1. A place appropriated to acts of religion.—

The honour'd gods

Throng our large temples with the shews of peace. *Shak.*

—Here we have no temple but the wood, no assembly but horn beasts. *Shak.*

Most sacrilegious murder hath broke open

The lord's anointed temple, and stole thence The life of th' building. *Shak.*

2. [*Tempera*, Latin.] The upper part of the sides of the head where the pulse is felt.—

Her sunny locks

Hang on her temples like a golden fleece. *Shak.*

—We may apply intercipients of malice upon the temples; frontals also may be applied. *Wigm.*

—To procure sleep, he uses the scratching of the temples

temples and ears, that even mollifies wild beasts.
Arbutus.—

The weapon entered close above his ear,
 Cold through his temples glides the whizzing spear.

Pope.

(4.) A TEMPLE (§ 3, *def. 1.*) is a public building erected in honour of some deity, either true or false; and wherein the people meet to pay religious worship. The word is formed from the Latin *templum*, the Greek *temenos*, signifying the same thing; from *temo*, *I separate*, as a temple is a place separated from common uses. Others with more probability derive it from the old Latin word *templare*, to contemplate. It is certain the ancient augurs gave the name *templa* to those parts of the heavens which were marked out for the observation of the flight of birds. Their formula was, *Templa usque sunt*. Temples were originally all open, and hence received their name. See *Phil. Trans.* N^o 471. *sect. 5.* where we have an account of an ancient temple in Ireland of the same sort as STONEHENGE. *Templum*, among the old Romans, signified a place consecrated by the augurs, whether inclosed or open, in the city or in the fields. Clemens Alexandrinus and Eusebius refer the origin of temples to the sepulchres built for the dead. This notion has been lately illustrated and confirmed by Mr Farmer in his *Treatise on the Worship of Human Spirits*, p. 373, &c. Herodotus and Strabo say, the EGYPTIANS were the first who built temples to the gods. The first erected in GREECE is ascribed to Deucalion, by Apollonius, *Argonaut.* lib. iii. The DAVIDS and others of the ancients performed their sacrifices in all places indifferently, from a persuasion that the whole world is the temple of God, and that he required no other. This was the doctrine of the magi, followed by the Persians, the Scythians, the Numidians, and many other nations mentioned by Herodotus, lib. i. Strabo, lib. xv. and Cicero in *Verrem*. 2. The ROMANS had several kinds of temples; whereof those built by the kings, &c. consecrated by the augurs, and wherein the exercise of religion was regularly performed, were called by way of eminence, *templa*. Those that were not consecrated, were called *ades*. The little temples, that were covered or roofed, they called *edicule*. Those open *facella*. Some other edifices, consecrated to particular mysteries, they called *vana* and *delubra*. The most celebrated temples among the Romans were the CAPITOL and PANTHEON. They had also the temple of SATURN, which served for the public treasury; and the temple of JANUS. The INDIAN TEMPLES, or PAGODAS, are sometimes of prodigious a size. They are commonly erected near the banks of the Ganges, Kistna, or other sacred rivers, for the benefit of ablution in the purifying stream. Where no river flows near the foot of the pagoda, there is invariably in the front of it a large tank or reservoir of water. These are, for the most part, of a quadrangular form, are lined with freestone or marble, have steps regularly descending from the margin to the bottom, and Mr Crauford observed many between 3 and 400 feet in breadth. At the entrance of all the more considerable pagodas there is a portico, supported by rows of lofty co-

lums, and ascended by a handsome flight of stone steps; sometimes, as in the instance of Tripetti, to the number of more than a hundred. Under this portico, and in the courts that generally inclose the whole building, an innumerable multitude assemble at the rising of the sun; and, having bathed in the stream below, and, in conformity to an immemorial custom over all the East, having left their sandals on the border of the tank, impatiently await the unfolding of the gates by the ministering brahmin. The gate of the pagoda universally fronts the east, to admit the rays of the solar orb; and, opening, presents to the view an edifice partitioned out, according to Mr Thevenot in his account of Chittanagar, in the manner of the ancient cave temples of Elora, having a central nave or body; a gallery ranging on each side; and, at the farther end, a sanctuary, or chapel of the deity adored, surrounded by a stone balustrade to keep off the populace. Those who wish to peruse a more particular account of the Indian temples may consult *Maurice's Indian Antiquities*. See also PAGODA and SERINGHAM.

(5.) THE TEMPLE AT JERUSALEM was similar in its plan to the TABERNACLE. The first temple was begun by Solomon about A. M. 2992, and A. A. C. 1012, and finished in 8 years. It consisted of the holy of holies, the sanctuary, and a portico. The holy of holies was a square room of 20 cubits; the sanctuary, or holy place, was 40 cubits long, and 20 broad, consequently the length of both these together was 60 cubits. The portico, which stood before the sanctuary, was 20 cubits long, and 10 broad. The whole length of the temple, computing the cubit at 22 inches, did not exceed 110 feet in length, and 36 feet 8 inches in breadth. In the portico stood the two brazen pillars called *Jachin* and *Boaz*, which appear to have been 40 cubits high, and about 4 in diameter. The court about the tabernacle was 100 cubits long, and 50 broad; and as Solomon made every part of the temple about twice as large as the corresponding part in the tabernacle, we may conclude, that the court around the temple was 200 cubits long, and 100 broad. According to this description, the temple of Solomon was by no means so large as it is commonly represented. Still, however, it was very magnificent in size, and splendid in ornament. It was plundered of its treasures in the reign of Rehoboam, and repaired by Joash; it was again spoiled in the time of Ahaz and of Hezekiah; and after being restored by Josiah, was demolished by Nebuchadnezzar in A. M. 3416, after it had stood 476 years according to Josephus, and according to Usher, 428 years. The second temple was built by the Jews, after their return from the Babylonish captivity, under the direction of ZERUBABEL, their governor, and of Joshua the high priest, with the encouragement of Cyrus the Great to whom Judea was become a tributary kingdom. This temple was destitute of five remarkable appendages, which were the chief glory of the first temple; viz. the ark and mercy-seat, the SHECHINAH, the holy fire on the altar, which had been first kindled from heaven, the URIM and THUMMIM, and the spirit of prophecy. This temple was plundered and profaned by Antiochus Epiphanes,

D d

(See

(See *Jews*, § 5. 6.) but afterwards purified by Judas Maccabæus, who restored the divine worship; and, after having stood 500 years, rebuilt by Herod, with a magnificence approaching to that of Solomon's. Tacitus calls it *immense opulentie templum*; and Josephus says, it was the most astonishing structure he had ever seen, as well on account of its architecture as its magnitude, and the richness and magnificence of its various parts and sacred appurtenances. This temple, which Herod began to build about 16 years before the birth of Christ, and so far completed in 93, as to be fit for divine service, was at length destroyed by the Romans on the same month and day of the month on which Solomon's temple was destroyed by the Babylonians.

(6.) *TEMPLES*, in architecture. The ancient temples were distinguished, with regard to their construction, into various kinds; as *Templum in antis*, or *Aedes in antis*. These, according to Vitruvius, were the most simple of all temples, having only angular pilasters, called *ante* or *parastate*, at the corners, and two Tuscan columns on each side of the doors. *Temple*, *TETRASTYLE*, or simply *tetrastyle*, was a temple that had 4 columns in front, and as many behind. Such was the temple of *Fortuna Virilis* at Rome. *Temple*, *PROSTYLE*, that which had only columns in its front or fore side; as that of *Ceres* at Eleusis in Greece. *Temple*, *amphiprostyle*, or *double prostyle*, that which had columns both before and behind, and which was also tetrastyle. *Temple*, *periptere*, that which had 4 rows of insulated columns around, and was hexastyle, *i. e.* had six columns in front; as the temple of Honour at Rome. *Temple*, *diptere*, that which had two wings and two rows of columns around, and was also octostyle, or had 8 columns in front; as that of *DIANA* at Ephesus.

(7.) *TEMPLES*, denote two inns of court in London, thus called, because anciently the dwelling-house of the *KNIGHTS-TEMPLARS*. At the suppression of that order, they were purchased by the professors of the common law, and converted into *hospitia* or inns. They are called the *inner* and *middle temple*, in relation to Essex-house; which was also a part of the house of the templars, and called the *outer temple*, because situated without Temple-Bar. In the middle temple, during the time of the Templars, the king's treasure was kept; as was also that of the kings of France in the house of the Templars at Paris. The chief officer was the master of the temple, who was summoned to parliament in 47 Hen. III.; and from him the chief minister of the temple church is still called *master of the temple*.

(8.) *TEMPLES*, in anatomy, a double part of the head, reaching from the forehead and eyes to the two ears. The temples are chiefly formed of two bones called *os temporis*. These parts, according to physicians, were called *tempora*, from their showing the age or *time* of a man by the colour of the hair, which turns white in this part before any other; which Homer seems to have been aware of, by his calling men *poliocrataphi*, *i. e.* grey templed.

(1.) *TEMPLE BAY*, a bay on the E. coast of Labrador. Lon. 55. 50. W. Lat. 52. 25. N.

(2.) *TEMPLE BAY*, a British settlement on the

Labrador coast, on a part of the above bay, opposite to Belle-Isle. It was destroyed by the French in 1796.

TEMPLEBURG, a town of Germany, in Hinder Pomerania; 19 miles SW. of New Stettin, and 48 ENE. of Stargard.

(1.) *TEMPLEMAN*, Peter, M. D. the son of an eminent attorney at Dorchester, by Mary Haynes, was born 17th March, 1711, and was educated at the Charter-house, whence he proceeded to Trinity-college, Cambridge, where he took his degree of B. A. with great reputation, and studied physic. In 1736, he went to Leyden, where he attended the lectures of Boerhaave, and the other professors of medicine, for two years. In 1739, he returned to London, with a view to enter on the practice of his profession, supported by a handsome allowance from his father, but did not succeed. In 1751 he published the first volume of *Curious Remarks and Observations in Physic, Anatomy, Chirurgery, Chemistry, Botany, and Medicine*; extracted from the History and Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris; and the 2d volume in 1754. If he had met with proper encouragement, he intended to have extended the work to 12 or 13 volumes. His translation of *Norden's Travels* appeared in 1757, when he was also editor of *Select Cases and Consultations in Physic*, by Dr Woodward, 8vo. On the establishment of the British Museum, in 1753, he was appointed keeper of the reading room, which he resigned on being chosen, in 1760, secretary to the then newly instituted Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. In 1762, he was elected a corresponding member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris, and of the Oeconomical Society at Berne. Very early in life he was afflicted with an asthma, which continued to harass him till his death, on 23d Sept. 1769. He was esteemed a man of great learning, and a humane, generous, and polite member of society.

(2.) *TEMPLEMAN*, Thomas, was a schoolmaster in St Edmundsbury, Suffolk. He published *Engraved Tables*, containing calculations of the number of people and of square feet on the surface of the several kingdoms in the world. *Watkins.*

TEMPLE-MARTIN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kilkenny, Leinster.

TEMPLE-MICHAEL, a town of Ireland, in the county of Waterford, Munster.

TEMPLEMORE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary, and province of Munster.

TEMPLENOR, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, and province of Munster.

TEMPLE PATRICK, two towns of Ireland, in the counties of Antrim and Down, Ulster.

* *TEMPLET. n. f.* A piece of timber in a building.—When you lay any timber on brick-work, as lintels over windows, or *templets* under girders, lay them in loom. *Moxon.*

TEMPLE-THIRTY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Waterford, Munster.

TEMPLE-TOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, and province of Leinster.

TEMPLEUVE, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, 7½ miles SSE. of Lille, and 9 SW. of Tournay.

TEMPLIN, a town of Brandenburg, between the

the Bodenfee and Dolgenfee. It was burnt in 1735, but rebuilt to very great advantage, with broad streets, elegant houses, &c. It has a great trade in timber, being floated on a canal, recently erected; 15 miles SW. of Prenzlau, and 34 N. of Berlin.

TEMPO, a town of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh, and province of Ulster.

(1.) * **TEMPORAL**. *adj.* [*temporal*, Fr. *temporalis*, low Latin.] 1. Measured by time; not eternal.—As there they sustain *temporal* life, so here they would learn to make provision for *eternal*. *Hooker*. 2. Secular; not ecclesiastical.—

This sceptre shews the force of *temporal* power,

The attribute to awe and majesty,

Wherein doth sit the dread of kings. *Shak.*

All the *temporal* lands, which men devout

By testament have given to the church,

Would they strip from us. *Shak.*

—All *temporal* power hath been wrested from the clergy, and much of their ecclesiastical. *Swift*.

3. Not spiritual.—There is scarce any of those decisions but gives good light, by way of authority or reason, to some questions that arise also between *temporal* dignities, especially to cases wherein some of our subordinate *temporal* titles have part in the controversy. *Selden*.—Call not every *temporal* end a desiring of the intention, but only when it contradicts the ends of God, or when it is principally intended: for sometimes a *temporal* end is part of our duty; and such are all the actions of our calling. *Taylor*.—Prayer is the instrument of fetching down all good things to us, whether spiritual or *temporal*. *Duty of Man*.—Our petitions to God, with regard to *temporals*, must be that medium of convenience proportioned to the several conditions of life. *Rogers*. 4. [*Temporal*, Fr.] Placed at the temples, or upper part of the sides of the head.—Copious bleedings, by opening the *temporal* arteries, are the most effectual remedies for a phrensy. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **TEMPORAL ARTERIES**, the arteries of the temples. See **ANATOMY**, **Index**, and **TEMPLES**. § 9.

* **TEMPORALITY**. **TEMPORALS**. *n. s.* [*temporalité*, Fr. from *temporal*.] Secular possessions; not ecclesiastical rights.—Such revenues, lands, and tithes, as bishops have had annexed to their sees by the kings and others from time to time, as they are barons and lords of the parliament. *Cowel*.—The residue of these ordinary finances is casual, as the *temporalities* of vacant bishoprics, the profits that grow by the tenures of lands. *Bacon*.—The king yielded up the point, reserving the ceremony of homage from the bishops, in respect of the *temporalities*, to himself. *Ayliffe*.

* **TEMPORALLY**. *adv.* [from *temporal*.] With respect to this life.—Sinners who are in such a *temporally* happy condition, owe it not to their sins, but wholly to their luck. *South*.

* **TEMPORALS**. See **TEMPORALITY**.

(1.) * **TEMPORALTY**. *n. s.* [from *temporal*.] 1. The laity; secular people.—The pope sucked out inestimable sums of money, to the intolerable grievance of clergy and *temporality*. *Abbot*. 2. Secular possession.

(2.) **TEMPORALTY**. (§ 1. *Def* 2.) Those of BISHOPS are the revenues, lands, tenements, and lay-fees, belonging to bishops, as they are barons and lords of parliament. The custody of the *temporalities* of bishops forms a branch of the king's ordinary revenues. (See **REVENUES**).—These, upon the vacancy of the bishopric, are immediately the right of the king, as a consequence of his prerogative in church matters; whereby he is considered as the founder of all archbishoprics and bishoprics, to whom, during the vacancy, they revert. This revenue of the king, which was formerly very considerable, is now by a customary indulgence almost reduced to nothing: for, at present, as soon as the new bishop is consecrated and confirmed, he usually receives the restitution of his *temporalities* quite entire and untouched from the king; and then, and not sooner, he has a fee-simple in his bishopric, and may maintain an action for the profits.

* **TEMPORANEOUS**. *adj.* [*temporis*, Latin.] **Temporary**. *Dis*.

* **TEMPORARINESS**. *n. s.* [from *temporary*.] The state of being temporary; not perpetuity.

* **TEMPORARY**. *adj.* [*tempus*, Latin.] Lasting only for a limited time.—These *temporary* truces were soon made and soon broken; he desired a stricter amity. *Bacon*.—If the Lord's immediate speaking, uttering, and writing, doth conclude by a necessary inference, that all precepts uttered and written in this manner are simply and perpetually moral; then, on the contrary, all precepts wanting this are merely *temporary*. *White*.—The republic threatened with danger, appointed a *temporary* dictator, who, when the danger was over, retired again into the community. *Addison*.

* **To TEMPORIZE**. *v. n.* [*temporiser*, Fr. *tempus*, Lat.] 1. To delay; to procrastinate.—If Cupid hath not spent all his quiver in Venice, thou wilt quake for this shortly.—

—I look for an earthquake too then.

—Well, you will *temporize* with the hours. *Shak.*

—The earl of Lincoln, deceived of the country's concurrence, in which case he would have *temporized*, resolved to give the king battle. *Bacon*. 2. To comply with the times or occasions.—

They might their grievance inwardly complain,

But outwardly they needs must *temporize*. *Dan.*

3. To comply. This is improper.—

The dauphin is too wilful opposite,

And will not *temporize* with my entreaties:

He flatly says, he'll not lay down his arms. *Shak.*

* **TEMPORIZER**. *n. s.* [*temporiseur*, Fr. from *temporize*.] One that complies with times or occasions; a trimmer.—

I pronounce thee a hovering *temporiser*, that canst with thine eyes at once see good and evil, Inclining to them both. *Shak.*

TEMPSIHE, or *Tamise*, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Two Netbes, and ci-devant province of Austrian Flanders; seated on the Scheldt; 10 miles SW. of Antwerp.

* **To TEMPT**. *v. a.* [*tento*, Lat. *tenter*, Fr.] 1. To solicit to ill; to incite by presenting some pleasure or advantage to the mind; to entice.—

'Tis not the king that lends you to the Tower:

My lady Gray *tempts* him to this haish extremity. *Shak.*

You ever gentle gods! take my breath from me;

Let not my worser spirit *tempt* me again

To die before you please. *Shak.*

—Come together, that Satan *tempt* you not. *1 Cor.*

iii. 5.—He that hath not wholly subdued himself, is quickly *tempted* and overcome in small things. *Taylor.*

Fix'd on the fruit she gaz'd; which to behold Might *tempt* alone. *Milton.*

—The devil can but *tempt* and deceive; and if he cannot destroy so, his power is at an end. *South.*

● O wretched maid!

Whose roving fancy would relieve the same

With him, whonext should *tempt* her easy fame.

Prior.

2. To provoke.—

I'm much too vent'rous

In *tempting* of your patience. *Shak.*

Withhold

Your talons from the wretched and the bold;

Tempt not the brave and needy to despair;

For, though your violence should leave 'em bare

Of gold and silver, swords and darts remain. *Dryden.*

3. It is sometimes used without any notion of evil; *to solicit*; to draw.—

Still his strength conceal'd

Which *tempted* our attempt, and wrought our

fall. *Milton.*

The rowing crew,

To *tempt* a fare, clothe all their tilts in blue. *Gay.*

4. To try; to attempt; to venture on. I know not whether it was not originally *'attempt*, which was viciously written to *tempt*, by an elision of the wrong syllable.—

This from the vulgar branches must be torn,

And to fair Proserpine the present born,

Ere leave be giv'n to *tempt* the nether skies. *Dryden.*

* **TEMPTABLE.** *adj.* [from *tempt*.] Liable to temptation; obnoxious to bad influence. Not elegant, nor used.—If the parliament were as *temptable* as any other assembly, the managers would fail for want of tools to work with. *Swift.*

* **TEMPTATION.** *n. s.* [tentation, Fr. from *tempt*.] 1. The act of tempting; solicitation to ill; enticement.—

All temptation to transgress repel. *Milton.*

2. The state of being tempted.—When by human weakness, and the arts of the tempter, you are led into *temptations*, prayer is the thread to bring you out of this labyrinth. *Duppa.* 3. That which is offered to the mind as a motive to ill.—Set a deep glass of Rhenish wine on the contrary casket; for if the devil be within, and that *temptation* without, he will chuse it. *Shak.*

Dare to be great without a guilty crown;

View it, and lay the bright *temptation* down. *Dryden.*

* **TEMPTER.** *n. s.* [from *tempt*.] 1. One who solicits to ill; an enticer.—

These women are shrewd *tempters*. *Shak.*

Is this her fault or mine?

The *tempter* or the tempted, who sins most? *Shak.*

—Those who are bent to do wickedly, will never

want *tempters* to urge them on. *Tillotson.*

My work is done:

She's now the *tempter* to ensnare his heart. *Dryden.*

2. The infernal solicitor to evil.—The experience of our own frailties, and the watchfulness of the

tempter, discourage us. *Hammond.*

Foretold what would come to pass,

When first this *tempter* cross'd the gulf from hell. *Milton.*

To this high mountain's top the *tempter*

brought

Our Saviour. *Milton.*

TEMROCK, a sea port town of Asia, in Cuban, on the S. coast of the sea of Asoph; 30 miles E. of the Straits of Caffa.

* **TEMSE BREAD.** *n. s.* [temsen, Dutch;

* **TEMSED BREAD.** *n. s.* [temiser, Fr. tamesare, Italian, to sift; tems, Dutch; tamis, French; tamiso, Italian, a sieve] Bread made of flour better

lifted than common.

TEMSENA, a province of Morocco, on the coast of the Atlantic, S. of Saltee. It is rich and fertile, abounding in corn, fruits and provisions.

The forests abound with wood, particularly a very hard and incorruptible kind called *bazar*.

* **TEMULENCY.** *n. s.* [temulentia, Lat.] Inebriation; intoxication by liquor.

* **TEMULENT.** *adj.* [temulentus, Lat.] Inebriated; intoxicated as with strong liquors.

TEMUS, a river of Sardinia, which runs into the Sea, 4 miles NE. of Castello Arragonefe.

* **TEN.** *adj.* [tyn, Saxon; tien, Dutch.] 1. The decimal number; twice five; the number by which we multiply numbers into new denominations.—

Thou shalt have more

Than two *tens* to a score. *Shak.*

—*Ten* hath been extolled as containing even, odd, long, and plain, quadrate and cubical numbers; and Aristotle observed, that Barbarians, as well as Greeks, used a numeration unto *ten*. *Brown.*

With twice *ten* sail I cross'd the Phrygian seas; Scarce seven within your harbour meet. *Dryden.*

From the soft lyre,

Sweet flute, and *ten*-string'd instrument, require Sounds of delight. *Prior.*

2. *Ten* is a proverbial number.—

There's a proud modesty in merit,

Averse from begging, and resolv'd to pay

Ten times the gift it asks. *Dryden.*

—Although English is too little cultivated, yet the faults are nine in *ten* owing to affectation, *Swift.*

* **TENABLE.** *adj.* [tenable, French.] Such as may be maintained against opposition; such as may be held against attacks.—The town was strong of itself, and wanted no industry to fortify and make it *tenable*. *Bacon.*—Sir William Ogle seized upon the castle, and put it into a *tenable* condition. *Clarendon.*—Infidelity has been driven out of all its outworks: the Atheist has not found his post *tenable*, and is therefore retired into Despair. *Addison.*

*TENACIOUS. *adj.* [*tenax*, Lat.] 1. Grasping hard; inclined to hold fast; not willing to let go; with of before the thing held.—A resolute *tenacious* adherence to well-chosen principles, makes the face of a governor shine in the eyes of those that see his actions. *South.*

Gripping, and still *tenacious* of thy hold,
Would'st thou the Grecian chiefs, though largely
foul'd,

Should give the prizes they had gain'd. *Dryd.*
—You reign absolute over the hearts of a stubborn and freeborn people, *tenacious* to madness of their liberty. *Dryden.*

True love's a miser; so *tenacious* grown,
He weighs to the last grain of what's his own.

Dryden.
—Men are *tenacious* of the opinion that first pos-
sels them. *Locke.*—He is *tenacious* of his own prop-
erty, and ready to invade that of others. *Arbutnot.*

2. Retentive.—The memory in some is very *tenacious*; but yet there seems to be a con-
stant decay of all our ideas, even of those which
are struck deepest, and in minds the most reten-
tive. *Locke.* 3. [*Tenace*, French.] Having parts
disposed to adhere to each other; cohesive; vis-
cous; glutinous.—Three equal round vessels filled,
the one with water, the other with oil, the
third with molten pitch, and the liquors stirred
alike to give them a vortical motion; the pitch
by its *tenacity* will lose its motion quickly, the oil
being less *tenacious* will keep it longer, and the
water being less *tenacious* will keep it longest, but
yet will lose it in a short time. *Newton.*

4. Niggardly; close-fisted; meanly parsimonious. *Ainsf.*

*TENACIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *tenacious*.] With
disposition to hold fast.—Some things our juve-
nile reasons *tenaciously* adhere to, which yet our
maturer judgments disallow of. *Glanville.*

*TENACIOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *tenacious*.]
Unwillingness to quit, resign, or let go.

(1.) TENACITY. *n. f.* [*tenacitas*, Fr. *tenacitas*,
tenax, Latin.] Viscosity; glutinousness; adhe-
sion of one part to another. If many contiguous
vortices of molten pitch were each of them as
large as those which some suppose to revolve
about the sun and fixed stars, yet these and all
their parts would, by their *tenacity* and stiffness,
communicate their motion to one another till
they all rested among themselves. *Newton.*—Sub-
stances, whose *tenacity* exceeds the powers of dis-
section, will neither pass nor be converted into
aliment. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) TENACITY, in natural philosophy, is that
quality of bodies by which they sustain a consider-
able pressure or force of any kind without break-
ing. It is the quality opposite to fragility or brit-
tleness. See *STRENGTH*, § 2, 3.

TENACULUM, in surgery, an instrument used
in amputation, for pulling out bleeding vessels
that are to be tied by ligatures. See *SURGERY*,
Index.

TENAILLES, and } *n. f.* See *FORTIFICATION*,
TENAILLIONS, } *Part I. Sect. VIII.*

*TENANCY. *n. f.* [*tenanche*, old French; *te-
nencia*, law Latin, from *tenant*.] Temporary pos-
session of what belongs to another.—This duke
becomes, seized of favour by descent, though the

condition of that estate be commonly no more
than a *tenancy* at will. *Wotton.*

(1.) *TENANT. *n. f.* [*tenant*, Fr.] 1. One
that holds of another; one that on certain condi-
tions has temporary possession and use of that
which is in reality the property of another; cor-
relative to *landlord*.—

I have been your *tenant*,
And your father's *tenant*, these fourscore years.

Shak.
—The English being only *tenants* at will of the
natives for such convenience of fishing. *Heylyn.*

Such is the mould that the blest *tenant* feeds
On precious fruits, and pays his rent in weeds.

Waller.
—Jupiter had a farm long for want of a *tenant*.
L'Estrange.

His cheerful *tenants* bless their yearly toil,
Yet to their lord owe more than to the soil.

Pope.
—The *tenants* of a manor fall into the sentiments
of their lord. *Watts.*—The father is a tyrant over
slaves and beggars, whom he calls his *tenants*.

Swift. 2. One who resides in any place.—
O fields, O woods, oh when shall I be made
The happy *tenant* of your shade! *Cowley.*

The bear, rough *tenant* of these shades.

Thomson.
(2.) A TENANT, in law, is one who holds lands
or tenements of some lord or landlord, by rent,
fealty, &c. See *TENURE*.

*To TENANT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To hold
on certain conditions.—Sir Roger's estate is *ten-
anted* by persons who have served him or his an-
cestors. *Addison.*

*TENANTABLE. *adj.* [from *tenant*.] Such
as may be held by a tenant.—The ruins that time,
sickness, or melancholy, shall bring, must be
made up at your cost; for that thing a husband is
but tenant for life in what he holds, and is bound
to leave the place *tenantable* to the next that shall
take it. *Suckling.*—That the soul may not be too
much incommoded in her house of clay, such
necessaries are secured to the body as may keep
it in *tenantable* repair. *Decay of Piety.*

TENANTING, [from the verb.] *To Tenant*,
part. n. f. in carpentry, the forming a strong and
firm joint by the fixture of one piece of wood in
another, so firmly, that like a tenant in law in his
tenure, it is quite immovable. See *SHIPBUILD-
ING*, *Part II.* and *TENON*.

*TENANTLESS. *adj.* [from *tenant*.] Unoc-
cupied; unpossessed.—

O thou, that dost inhabit in my breast,
Leave not the mansion so long *tenantless*;
Lest growing ruinous the building fall. *Shak.*

TENANTRY, *n. f.* [from *tenant*.] the class,
rank, or order of tenants, upon the various estates
and landed property in a country or kingdom,
who constitute a most useful, industrious, and ne-
cessary order in society.

(1.) *TENANT-SAW. *n. f.* [corrupted, I
suppose, from *tenon-saw*.] See *TENON*.

(2.) TENANT-SAW seems rather to be derived
from *TENANT*, as above remarked under *TEN-
ANTING*, and it is a principal instrument used in
that branch of carpentry.

TENAR, or **THENAR**, in anatomy, the muscle, which draws the thumb from the fingers, called, also *Abductor brevis pollicis* and *Abductor pollicis manus*. See **ABDUCTOR**, N° 9; and **ANATOMY**, § 274, N° 1.

TENARUS. See **TENARUS**.

TENASSE. See **TENASSE**.

TENASSERIM, a town, a province, an island, and a river of Siam. See **SIAM**, § 4; and **TENASSERIM**.

TENAW-WIT. See **LOXIA**, N° 2.

TENBIGH. See **TENBY**.

TENBURY, or **TEMBURY**, a town of England in Worcestershire, seated on the Teme near Shropshire, with a market on Tuesday, 19 miles NW. of Worcester and 130 NW. of London. Lon. 2. 13. W. Lat. 52. 16. N.

TENBY, or **TENBIGH**, a sea-port town of S. Wales in Pembrokeshire, with markets on Wed. and Sat. It had a castle, which was demolished during the civil wars, in the 17th century, since which the town has fallen to decay. It is 20 miles E. of Pembroke, and 233 W. of London. Lon. 5. 5. W. Lat. 51. 42. N.

TENCE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Loire, 12 miles SE. of Montfrol, and 18 NE. of Puy.

(1.) * **TENCH**. *n. f.* (since, Saxon; *tenca*, Lat.) A pond-fish.—Having stored a very great pond with carps, *tench*, and other pond-fish, and only put in two small pikes, this pair of tyrants in seven years devoured the whole. *Hale*.

(2.) **TENCH**, in ichthyology. See **CYPRINUS**, N° 10.

TENCH'S ISLAND, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, discovered in 1790, by Capt. Ball. It is about 2 miles in circumference; is populous, and well cultivated, producing trees in great plenty, particularly the cocoa nut tree. The people are stout and healthy, but go quite naked, and are of a copper colour, their hair resembling that of the people of New Holland. They wear their beards so long as to reach down to the navel; and no small art appeared to have been used in dressing the hair of their beards, as it was formed into ringlets, and nicely combed, curled, and oiled. Some of the men had a bone suspended to a string, which was fastened round their necks. The largest of their canoes appeared to be about 28 feet long, and to have been formed out of one large tree. This island lies in Lon. 151. 31. W. of London. Lat. 1. 39. S.

TENCHTHERI, an ancient nation of Germany, who often changed the place of their residence. *Tacitus*, Ann. xiii. c. 56. H. iv. c. 21.

TENCIN, Claudine Alexandrine Guerin de, sister of Cardinal de Tencin, who died in 1758, was born at Grenoble, and took the veil in the monastery of Montfleury; but afterwards, with the Pope's consent, threw off the religious habit, and entered so completely into the gay world at Paris, that she became noted for her intrigues, for which she was confined first in the Chatelet, and afterwards in the Bastille. Notwithstanding these follies, she was endowed with considerable talents, and wrote several novels and romances which were esteemed, particularly *the Siege of Calais*, or *the*

Misfortunes of Love. She died in 1749. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

TENCOA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Honduras.

(1.) * **To TEND**. *v. a.* [contracted from *attend*.] 1. To watch; to guard; to accompany as an assistant or defender.—

Nymphs of Mullia which, with careful heed,
The silver scaly troutsd did *tend* full well. *Spenser*.
Go thou to Richard, and good angels *tend* thee. *Shak.*

Him lord pronounce'd; and, O indignity!
Subjected to his service angels wings,
And flaming ministers to watch and *tend*
Their earthy charge. *Milton*.

He led a rural life, and had command
O'er all the shepherds, who about those vales
Tended their numerous flocks. *Dryden*.

—There is a pleasure in that simplicity, in beholding princes *tending* their flocks. *Pope*.—

Our humbler province is to *tend* the fair. *Pope*.

2. To attend; to accompany.—

Despair
Tended the sick, butick from couch to couch. *Milton*.

Those with whom I now converse
Without a tear will *tend* my herse. *Swift*.

3. To be attentive to.—
Unluck'd of lamb or kid that *tend* their play. *Milton*.

(2.) * **To TEND**. *v. n.* [*tendo*, Lat.] 1. To move towards a certain point or place.—They had a view of the princels at a mask, having overheard two gentlemen *tending* towards that fight. *Wotton*.—

To these abodes our fleet Apollo *tends*;
Here Dardanus was born, and hither *tends*. *Dryden*.

2. [*Tendre*, French.] To be directed to any end or purpose; to aim at.—

Admiration seiz'd
All heav'n, what this might mean and whither *tend*. *Milton*.

—Factions gain their power by pretending common safety, and *tending* towards it in the directest course. *Temple*.—The laws of our religion *tend* to the universal happiness of mankind. *Tillotson*.

3. To contribute.—Many times that which we ask would, if it should be granted, be worse for us, and perhaps *tend* to our destruction. *Hammond*.

4. [From *attend*.] To wait; to expect. Out of use.—

The bark is ready, and the wind at help;
Th' associates *tend*. *Shak.*

5. To attend; to wait as dependants or servants.

She deserves a lord,
That twenty such rude boys might *tend* upon. *Shak.*

Give him *tending*,
He brings great news. *Shak.*

Was he not companion with the riotous knights,
That *tend* upon my father? *Shak.*

6. To attend as something inseparable. In the three last senses it seems only a colloquial abbreviation of *attend*.—

Threefold vengeance *tend* upon your steps. *Shak.*
(1.) **TEN**

(1.) **TENDA**, a ci-devant county and province of the late duchy of Savoy, now annexed to the French empire and included in the department of Mont Blanc. It was bounded on the N. by the province of Coni, on the E. by the late marquisate of Ceva, and the ci-devant territories of Geneva, on the S. by Nice, and on the W. by the late county of Boglio. This county was anciently vested in the family of the *Lascaris*, the descendants of the emperor THEODORE LASCARIS, in the 13th century. In the 16th century it fell to Emmanuel Philibert duke of SAVOY. It is not very fertile, being surmounted on all sides by the Alps, but it affords much wood and good pasture, and its rivers abound with trout.

(2.) **TENDA**, a town of the French empire, ci-devant capital of the above county, seated at the junction of the Rola and the Brogna, with a beautiful church, a castle and towers on a rock, 15 miles N. of Ventimiglia, and 22 NE. of Nice, and 33 S. of Turin. Near this town the French republicans obtained a great victory over the Piedmontese, in May 1794. Lon. 7. 45. E. Lat. 44. 10. N.

* **TENDANCE**. *n. f.* [from *tend.*] 1. Attendance; state of expectation.—

Unhappy wight, born to disastrous end,
That doth his life in so long *tendances* spend.

Spenser.

1. Persons attendant. Out of use.—

His lobbies fill with *tendances*,
Rain sacrificial whisp'rings in his ear. *Shak.*

2. Attendance; act of waiting.—

She purpos'd,
By watching, weeping, *tendances*, to
O'ercome you with her shew. *Shak.*

3. Care; act of tending.—

Nature does require
Her times of preservation, which, perforce,
I her frail son, amongst my brethren mortal,
Must give my *tendances* to. *Shak.*

They at her coming sprung,
And touch'd by her fair *tendances* gladlier grew. *Milton.*

TENDEBA, an ancient town of Caria; *Liv.*

33. c. 18.

TENDEBAR, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Kaen.

* **TENDENCE**. } *n. f.* [from *tend.*] 1. Direction.

* **TENDENCY**. } rection or course towards any place or object.—It is not much business that distracts any man; but the want of purity, constancy, and *tendency* towards God. *Taylor.*—Writings of this kind, if conducted with candour, have a more particular *tendency* to the good of their country, than any other compositions. *Addison.*—We may acquaint ourselves with the powers and properties, the *tendencies* and inclinations, of body and spirit. *Watts.*—All of them are innocent, and most of them had a moral *tendency* to soften the virulence of parties, or laugh out of countenance some vice or folly. *Swift.* 2. Direction or course toward any inference or result; drift.—The greater congruity or incongruity there is in any thing to the reason of mankind, and the greater *tendency* it hath to promote or hinder the perfection of man's nature, so much greater degrees hath it of moral good or evil; to which we

ought to proportion our inclination, or aversion. *Wilkins.*—These opinions are of so little moment, that like motes in the sun, their *tendencies* are little noticed. *Locke.*

(1.) * **TENDER**. *adj.* [*tendre*, French.] 1. Soft; easily impressed or injured; not firm; not hard.—

The earth brought forth the *tender* grass.

Milton.

From each *tender* stalk she gathers. *Milton.*
—When the frame of the lungs is not so well woven, but is lax and *tender*, there is great danger, that after spitting of blood, they will by degrees putrify and consume. *Blackmore.* 2. Sensible; easily pained; soon sore.—

Unneath may the endure the flinty street,
To tread them with her *tender* feeling feet. *Shak.*
—Our bodies are not naturally more *tender* than our faces; but by being less exposed to the air, they become less able to endure it. *L'Estrange.*
—The face when we are born is no less *tender* than any other part of the body; it is use alone hardens it, and makes it more able to endure the cold. *Locke.* 3. Effeminate; emasculate; delicate.—When Cyrus had overcome the Lydians, that were a warlike nation, and devised to bring them to a more peaceable life, instead of their short warlike coat, he clothed them in long garments, like women; and instead of their warlike music, appointed to them certain lascivious lays, by which their minds were so mollified and abated, that they forgot their former fierceness and became most *tender* and effeminate. *Spenser.* 4. Exciting kind concern.—

I love Valentine;

His life's as *tender* to me as my soul. *Shak.*
5. Compassionate; anxious for another's good.—The *tender* kindness of the church it well becometh to help the weaker sort, although some few of the perfecter and stronger be for a time displeased. *Hooker.*

This not mistrust but *tender* love enjoins. *Milt.*
—Be *tender* hearted and compassionate towards those in want, and ready to relieve them. *Tillotson.*

6. Susceptible of soft passions.—

Your tears a heart of flint
Might *tender* make, yet nought
Herein they will prevail. *Spenser.*

7. Amorous; lascivious.—

What mad lover ever dy'd,
To gain a soft and gentle bride?
Or for a lady *tender* hearted,
In purling streams or hemp departed? *Hudibras.*
8. Expressive of the softer passions. 9. Careful not to hurt; with *of*.—The civil authority should be *tender* of the honour of God and religion. *Tillotson.*—I have been *tender* of every particular person's reputation. *Addison.* 10. Gentle; mild; unwilling to pain.—

Thy *tender* bested nature shall not give
Thee o'er to harshness. *Shak.*

You, that are thus so *tender* o'er his follies,
Will never do him good. *Shak.*

11. Apt to give pain.—In things that are *tender* and unpleasing, break the ice by some whose words are of less weight, and reserve the more weighty voice to come in as by chance. *Bacon.*

12. Young; weak; as *tender* age.—When yet he

was

was but *tender-bodied*, a mother should not sell him. *Shak.*—

Beneath the Dens, where unsleth'd tempests lie,

And infant winds their *tender* voices try. *Cowley.*

(2.) * *TENDER*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Offer; proposal to acceptance.—

Then to have a wretched pining fool,

A whining mammet, in her fortune's *tender*,
To answer, I'll not wed. *Shak.*

Think yourself a baby,

That you have ta'en his *tenders* for true pay,
Which are not fleeting. *Shak.*

—The earl accepted the *tenders* of my service. *Dryden.*—To declare the calling of the Gentiles

by a free unlimited *tender* of the gospel to all. *South.*—Our *tenders* of duty every now and then miscarry. *Addison.* 2. [From the adjective.] Regard; kind concern. Not used.—

Thou hast shew'd thou mak'st some *tender* of my life,

In this fair rescue thou hast brought to me. *Shak.*

3. A small ship attending on a larger.

(3.) *TENDER*, *n. f.* in shipping, a small ship in the service of men of war, for carrying men, provisions, or any thing else that is necessary.

* To *TENDER*. *v. a.* [*tendre*, French.] 1. To offer; to exhibit; to propose to acceptance.—Some of the chiefest laity professed, with greater stomach than judgment, that such a discipline was little better than popish tyranny, disguised and *tendered* unto them. *Hooker.*—

I'll crave no more than what your highness offer'd;

Nor will you *tender* less. *Shak.*

All conditions, all minds, *tender* down
Their service to lord Timon. *Shak.*

Owe not all creatures, by just right, to thee
Duty and service, not to stay till bid,

But *tender* all their pow'r? *Milton.*

—He had never heard of Christ before, and so more could not be expected of him than to embrace him as soon as he was *tendered* to him. *Duty of Man.* 2. To hold; to esteem.—

Tender yourself more dearly;

Or, not to crack the wind of the poor phrase,
Wringing it thus, you'll *tender* me a fool. *Shak.*

3. [From the adjective.] To regard with kindness. Not in use.—

I thank you, madam, that you *tender* her:
Poor gentlewoman, my master wrongs her much. *Shak.*

* *TENDER-HEARTED*. *adj.* [*tender* and *heart*.]
Of a soft compassionate disposition.

* *TENDERLING*. *n. f.* [from *tender*.] 1. The first horns of a deer. 2. A fondling; one who is made soft by too much kindness.

* *TENDERLY*. *adv.* [from *tender*.] In a tender manner; mildly; gently; softly; kindly; without harshness.—

Tenderly apply to her—

Some remedies for life. *Shak.*

She embrac'd him, and for joy.

Tenderly wept. *Milton.*

—They are the most perfect pieces of Ovid, and the style *tenderly* passionate and courtly. *Preface to Ovid.*—

Marcus with blushes owns he loves,

And Brutus *tenderly* reproves. *Pope.*

* *TENDERNESS*. *n. f.* [*tendresse*, French, from *tender*.] 1. The state of being tender; susceptibility of impressions; not hardness.—Pied cattle are spotted in their tongues, the *tenderness* of the part receiving more easily alterations than other parts of the flesh? *Bacon.*—The difference of the muscular flesh depends upon the hardness, *tenderness*, moisture, or dryness of the fibres. *Arbutnot.* 2. State of being easily hurt; foreness.—A quickness and *tenderness* of sight could not endure bright sunshine. *Locke.*—Any zealous for his country must conquer that *tenderness* and delicacy which may make him afraid of being spoken ill of. *Addison.*—There are examples of wounded persons that have roared for anguish at the discharge of ordnance, though at a great distance: what insupportable torture then should we be under upon a like concussion in the air, when all the whole body would have the *tenderness* of a wound. *Bentley.* 3. Susceptibility of the softer passions.—

Weep no more, lest I give cause

To be suspected of more *tenderness* than doth become a man. *Shak.*

Well we know your *tenderness* of heart. *Shak.*

With what a graceful *tenderness* he loves,
And breathes the softest, the sincerest vows! *Addison.*

4. Kind attention; anxiety for the good of another.—Having no children, she did with singular care and *tenderness* intend the education of Philip and Margaret. *Bacon.* 5. Scrupulousness; caution.—

My conscience first receiv'd a *tenderness*,

Scruple, and prick, on certain speeches utter'd
By th' bishop of Bayon. *Shak.*

—Some are unworthily censured for keeping their own, whom *tenderness* how to get honestly teacheth to spend discreetly; whereas such need no great thriftiness in preserving their own, who assume more liberty in exacting from others. *Watson.*

—True *tenderness* of conscience is nothing else but an awful and exact sense of the rule which should direct it; and while it steers by this compass, and is sensible of every declination from it, so long it is properly tender. *South.* 6. Cautious care.—There being implanted in every man's nature a great *tenderness* of reputation, to be careless of it is looked on as a mark of a degenerate mind. *Government of the Tongue.* 7. Soft pathos of expression.

(1.) * *TENDINOUS*. *adj.* [*tendineux*, Fr. *tendinis*, Lat.] Sinewy; containing tendons; consisting of tendons.—Nervous and *tendinous* parts have worse symptoms, and are harder of cure than fleshy ones. *Wise man.*

(2.) *TENDINOUS FIBRES*. See *ANATOMY*, § 219.

TENDO ACHILLIS, in anatomy, the tendon of Achilles, a large tendon of the heel, so named from the tradition that *ACHILLES* got his mortal wound in that part. See *ANATOMY*, § 217. The celebrated Dr *MONRO* senior made a capital cure of a rupture of this tendon upon himself. See *SURGERY*, Index.

(3.) * *TENDON*. *n. f.* [*tendo*, Lat.] A sinew; a ligature

a ligature by which the joints are moved.—A struma in her instep lay very hard and big amongst the tendons. *Wifeman*.—

The entrails these embrace in spiral strings;
Those clasp th' arterial tubes in tender rings;
The tendons some compacted close produce,
And some thin fibres for the skin diffuse.

Blackmore.

(2.) **TENDONS**, in anatomy, are white, firm, and tenacious parts, contiguous to the muscles, and usually forming their extremities. See **ANATOMY**, § 217, 219, 221.

* **TENDRIL**. *n. f.* [*tendrillon*, Fr.] The clasp of a vine, or other climbing plant.—

In wanton ringlets war'd,

As the vine curls her tendrils; which imply'd
Subjection. *Milton*.

So may thy tender blossoms fear no bite,
Nor goats with venom'd teeth thy tendrils bite.

Dryden.

—The tendrils or clasps of plants are given only to such as have weak stalks, and cannot raise up or support themselves. *Ray*.

TENEÆ, a district of ancient Corinth. *Mela*, 2. c. 3.

* **TENEBRICOSE**. **TENEBOUS**. *adj.* [*tenebricosus*, *tenebrosus*, Lat.] Dark; gloomy.

TENEBRIO, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *Coleoptera*. The antennæ are moniliform, the last joint being roundish; the thorax is plano-convex and margined; the head projecting, and the elytra are somewhat stiff. *Gmelin* enumerates about 63 species. The larvæ of some live in damp places under ground among rubbish; of others in flour and different kinds of food, where they undergo their metamorphosis. The perfect insects are very troublesome in houses, eating bread, meat, &c. They precipitately avoid the light; resorting in troops to dark damp cellars, where putrefaction allures and nourishes them. They are all of a very dark gloomy appearance, from which circumstance they take their name.

* **TENEBROSITY**. *n. f.* [*tenebra*, Lat.] Dark; gloom.

* **TENEBOUS**. See **TENEBRICOSE**.

TENEDIA SECURIS, [Lat.] i. e. the axe of *Tenedos*, a proverbial expression for a severe law, derived from a law made by **TENES** the first king of that island, that adulterers should be beheaded with an axe. See **TENEDOS**. This sentence was executed on the king's son. *Aristotle* says that this was commemorated on the coins of *Tenedos*, which on one side had two heads of the king and his son, and on the reverse an axe.

TENEDOS, in ancient geography, an island on the coast of *Troas*, 40 stadia from the continent, and 80 in compass; with a cognominal *Æolian* town, and a temple of *Apollo Smintheus*. Its origin is derived from *Tenes*, who being exposed in a coffer or bog by his father *Cygnus* the *Thracian*, at the instigation of his stepmother, was by fate carried to this island, made king of it, and at length worshipped as a god on account of his virtues. The island was famous for its earthen-ware, for which purpose it had an excellent red clay; and hence *Bochart* would derive the appellation

VOL. XXII. PART I.

from *tinedom*, a red clay. This island still retains its ancient name, and is one of the smallest islands of the *Archipelago*, situated near the coast of *Lesser Asia*, W. of the ruins of *Troy*. It is chiefly rocky, but fertile, being remarkable for producing the best *Muscadine wine* in the *Levant*; and its position, thus near the mouth of the *Hellepont*, has given it importance in all ages; vessels bound toward *Constantinople* finding shelter in its port, or safe anchorage in the road, during the *Ætasian* or contrary winds, and in foul weather. The emperor *Justinian* erected a magazine to receive the cargoes of the corn ships from *Alexandria*, when detained there. This was a lofty building, 280 feet long, and 90 broad. The voyage from *Egypt* was rendered less precarious, and the grain preserved until it could be transported to the capital. Afterwards, during the troubles of the *Greek empire*, *Tenedos* experienced a variety of fortune. The pirates who infested these seas made it for many years their place of rendezvous; and *Othman* seized it in 1302, procured vessels, and thence subdued the other islands of the *Archipelago*. It has continued in the possession of the *Turks* ever since; and on the E. side is a pretty large town, seated at the foot of a mountain, with a fine harbour, commanded by a castle. Lon. 20. 0. E. Lat. 29. 30. N.

* **TENEMENT**. *n. f.* [*tenement*, Fr. *tenementum*, law Lat.] Any thing held by a tenant.—What reasonable man will not think that the *tenement* shall be made much better, if the tenant may be drawn to build himself some handsome habitation thereon, to ditch and inclose his ground? *Spenser*.—

'Tis policy for father and son to take different sides;

For then lands and tenements commit no treason.

Dryden

—Who has informed us, that a rational soul can inhabit no *tenement*, unless it has just such a sort of frontispiece. *Locke*.—

Treat on, treat on, is her eternal note,

And lands and tenements glide down her throat.

Pope.

* **TENENT**. *n. f.* See **TENET**.

TENERIA, a town of *Cuba*, 55 miles NW. of *Principe*.

(1.) **TENERIFFE**, an island of *Africa*, one of the *CANARIES*, and the most considerable for riches, trade, and extent. It lies S. of the island of *Salvages*, W. of the *Grand Canary*, N. of the island of *Gomera*, and E. of *Palma*. It is of a triangular form, being about 45 miles in length and 20 in breadth; and in the centre is the famous peak; called by the natives *El Pico de Teyde*, which in clear weather may be seen at the distance of 120 miles, like a thin blue vapour very little darker than the sky. The most frequented harbour is called *SANTA CRUZ*, which is on the S. side of the island, and where ships with good anchors and cables may be safe in all weathers. At this port is the principal commercial town in the island, called also *SANTA CRUZ*, in the middle of which is a mole, built at a vast expence, for the convenience of landing. *Santa Cruz* is a large town, containing several churches and convents,

E e

aa

an hospital, and the best constructed private buildings of any in the Canary islands. It contains about 7000 inhabitants; it is not fortified on the land side, and all the country near it is dry, stony, and barren. (See SANTA CRUZ, N° 4.) About four miles inland from Santa Cruz stands the city of *St Chrysohal de la Laguna*, which is the metropolis of the island, and contains two parish churches and five convents, but has no trade. Teneriffe contains about 96,000 persons, supposed to be equal to the number of inhabitants of all the rest of the seven islands put together. The peasants in general are wretchedly clothed; when they do appear better, they are habited in the Spanish fashion. The women wear veils: these worn by the lower ranks are of black stuff, those of the higher of black silk. The young ladies wear their hair long black hair plaited, and fastened with a comb or a ribbon on the top of the head. The manufactures carried on here are very few, and the product of them little more than sufficient for their own consumption. They consist of taffeties, gauze, coarse linens, blankets, silk, and curious garters. The principal dependence of the inhabitants is on their wine, which is their staple. Oil, corn, and every kind of stock for shipping, abound; and in their season, the tropical fruits, and the vegetable productions of the European gardens, in great plenty. Teneriffe enjoys an agreeable and healthful mediocrity of climate. Indeed none seems better adapted for the restoration of a viciatudinarian; as, by going into the mountains, he may graduate the air, and choose that state of it which best suits his complaint. The height of the PEAK OF TENERIFFE has been variously estimated by different travellers. Dr Halley allows but two miles and a quarter from the level of the sea to the summit of the SUGAR-LOAF; whilst the Spanish account of the Canary islands, translated by Mr Gias in 1763, makes it no less than five miles. That it is an extinguished volcano is universally known. Teneriffe lies in Lon. 16. 18. W. Lat. 28. 29. N.

(2.) TENERIFFE, a town of N. America, in Terra Firma, in the province of St Martha, seated on the Madelaine, 100 miles S. of St Martha.

* TENERITY. *n. f.* [*tenebras, tener*, Latin.] Tenderness. *Ainsf.*

(1.) TENES, the first king of Tenedos, who acquired his kingdom in consequence of his step-mother Philonome's lust, and his father's credulity. See TENEDIA and TENEDOS.

(2.) TENES, in geography, a district of Algiers, on the N. coast.

(3.) TENES, a sea-port town of Algiers, capital of the above district. It was taken from the Christians by Barbarossa the younger, after his brother's death. It is seated in Lon. 19. 30. E. of Ferro. Lat. 36. 30. N.

(4.) TENES, CAPE, a promontory of Algiers, on the N. coast of the above district, N° 2. near the town, N° 3.

TENESIS, a district of ancient Ethiopia. *Strabo.*

(1.) * TENESMUS *n. f.* The stone shutting up the orifice of the bladder is attended with a *teneismus*, or needing to go to stool. *Arbustnot.*

(2.) TENESMUS, in medicine, a name given by medical writers to a complaint which is a conti-

nual desire of going to stool, but without any stool being ready to be voided. This is properly no primary disease, but merely a symptomatic one, and differs in degree according to the disease on which it is an attendant. See MEDICINE, Index.

* TENET. *n. f.* [from *tenet*, Latin, *he holds*.] It is sometimes written TENENT, or *they hold*. Position; principle; opinion.—That all animals of the land are in their kind in the sea, although received as a principle, is a *tenet* very questionable. *Brown*.—While, in church matters, profit shall be the touch-stone for faith and manners, we are not to wonder if no gainful *tenet* be deposited. *Decay of Piety*.—This favours of something ranker than Socinianism, even the *tenets* of the fifth monarchy, and of sovereignty founded only upon faintship. *South*.—

They wonder men should have mistook
The *tenets* of their master's book. *Prior*.

(1.) TENEZ, a province of Africa, in the kingdom of Tremesen.

(2.) TENEZ, a city of Tremesen, the capital of the above province, with a strong fort, seated on the side of a mountain, 4 miles from the sea-coast. Lon. 1. 0. E. Lat. 39. 10. N.

TENEZA, a town of Morocco, 43 miles WSW. of Morocco.

* TENFOLD. *adj.* [from *ten* and *fold*.] Ten times increased.—

Fire kindled into *tenfold* rage. *Milton*.

TENG, two towns of China, of the 3d rank: 1. in the province of Chan-tong, 37 miles SE. of Tü-ning: 2. in that of Quang-si, 17 miles WSW. of Ou-tcheau.

(1.) TENGAN, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in the province of Hou-quang; 150 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 131. 3. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 20. N.

(2.) TE-NGAN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the province of Kiang-si, 10 miles SW. of Nankang.

TENG TCHOUEN, a town of China, of the 2d rank, in the province of Yun-nan, 112½ miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 117. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 2. N.

(1.) TENIERS, Abraham, son of David (N° 2.), was equal to his father and brother in the expression of his characters, and in the *claire obscure*; though he was inferior in sprightliness of touch and lightness of pencil.

(2.) TENIERS, David, the Elder, a Flemish painter, born at Antwerp in 1582. He received the first rudiments of his art from the famous Rubens, and afterwards finished his studies at Rome. He attached himself to Adam Elsheimer for six years; and formed to himself a peculiar style, which his son cultivated so happily afterwards as to bring it to the utmost perfection. His pictures were small; and his subjects usually shops, laboratories, humorous conversations, and rural festivities. He died at Antwerp in 1649.

(3.) TENIERS, David, the Younger, also an admirable painter, was the son of the former (N° 2.), and was born at Antwerp in 1610. He obtained the name of *Ape of Painting*, from his imitating the manner of different painters with such exactness as to deceive even the nicest judges. His principal talent lay in landscapes adorned with small

small figures. He also painted men drinking and smoking, chemists' laboratories, country fairs and the like. His small figures are superior to his large ones. He died in 1694.

TENIS, a lake of Russian Tartary, 60 miles in circumference. Lon. 91. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 40. N.

TENISON, Dr Thomas, Abp. of Canterbury, was born at Cottenham in Cambridgeshire in 1636; and studied at Corpus Christi college in Cambridge. In his youth, he applied himself to physic; but afterward went into orders, and became minister of St Andrew's church, Cambridge. He showed himself very active against the growth of Popery, by his writings, both in the reigns of Charles II. and James II. In 1680 he was made vicar of St Martin's in the Fields, London, to which parish he made several donations; and among others, endowed a free school and built a handsome library, which he furnished with useful books. King William and queen Mary, in 1689, appointed him archdeacon of London; in 1691, he was nominated bishop of Lincoln, and in 1694 he succeeded Dr Tillotson as archbishop of Canterbury. He performed all the duties of a good prelate for 20 years, and died in 1715.

TENNA, a river of Italy, which rises in the Apennines, and crossing the marquise of Ancona, runs into the Adriatic about a miles ENE. of Fermo.

(1.) TENNASSEE, or TENNESSEE, one of the UNITED STATES of N. America, extending from 6° 30' to 16° 30' Lon. W. and from 35° to 36° 30' Lat. N. This state was erected and constituted in 1796, and is divided into 3 districts called WASHINGTON, HAMILTON, and NERO or MERO, which are subdivided into the following 13 counties, viz. WASHINGTON, Hawkins, Blount, Robertson, Sullivan, Knox, Grainger, MONTGOMERY, JEFFERSON, Davidson, Carter, Sevier, and Sumner. The 4 first are in Washington district, the next 5 in Hamilton, and the rest in Mero district.

(2.) TENNASSEE, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE OF. The climate of this state is mild and moderate. In the tract between Great Island and the Kanhawa, the summers are cool, and the air rather moist. On the W. side of the mountains the climate is much warmer, and soil better adapted to the production of tobacco, cotton, indigo, &c. In this part of the country, lime-stone abounds.

(3.) TENNASSEE, CONSTITUTION OF. The constitution of this state, which was ratified at Knoxville in Feb. 1796, vests the legislative authority in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives, the number to be fixed once in 7 years in proportion to that of the taxable citizens, who are to be numbered septennially; the number of representatives not to exceed 26 to a county, until the taxable citizens shall be 40,000. The senators are never to be less than one 3d, nor more than one half the number of the representatives, and are to be chosen upon principles similar to those for the choice of representatives. The election for members of both houses is biennial. Three years residence in the state and one in the county, with 200 acres of

landed property in it, and being 21 years of age, qualify a citizen to be elected to a seat in either house. Each house chooses its own officers; and makes its own rules. Senators and representatives are free from arrest in all cases, but suspicion of treason or felony. The governor issues writs of election to fill up vacancies. Neither house can adjourn for above 3 days without the other. Bills may originate in either house; shall be read thrice; but if once rejected, shall not be passed into a law in the same session. Doors of both houses shall be kept open. The salaries of the judges, &c. are fixed. The executive power is vested in a governor chosen biennially by the electors of the legislature. A contested election for governor to be decided by both houses. The house of representatives has the sole power of impeaching, and the senate of trying impeachments. The judicial power is vested in courts of law and equity. County officers are sheriffs, coroners, trustees, and constables. Ministers of the gospel are not eligible to a seat in the legislature, or to any civil office. No person who denies the existence of God or a future state can hold any civil office. When two 3ds of the general assembly think it necessary to amend or change the constitution, they are to recommend to the electors at the next election, for members to the general assembly, to vote for a convention, and if there is a majority of votes for it, the general assembly, at their next session, shall call a convention, which shall consist of as many members as the general assembly, and be chosen in the same manner. This constitution is subject to be revised or changed.

(4.) TENNASSEE, MOUNTAINS OF. It would require a volume by itself, to describe particularly the mountains of this state, many of which are of the less importance that they are uninhabitable. The CUMBERLAND MOUNTAINS, or Great Laurel Ridge, are the most stupendous heights in the United States. They occupy the uninhabited country between Washington, Hamilton, and Mero districts, and between these and the state of Kentucky. They abound with ginseng and coal. Cumberland Mountain in its whole extent from the Great Kanhawa, to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous pile of craggy rocks of any mountain in the country. Several parts of it for many miles are inaccessible even to the Indians on foot. In one place near the summit, there is a most tremendous ledge of rocks, 30 miles long and 200 feet thick, exhibiting a perpendicular face to the SE. more grand than any artificial fortification, and equal in angularity. *Climb* Mountain is another remarkable mountain. It lies S. of Mero district. *Stone, Yellow, Iron, Bald, and UNAKA* mountains form the E. boundary of the state. Their direction is nearly SW.

(5.) TENNASSEE, POPULATION OF. The total population of this state, by an enumeration made in 1791, was 35,691; of whom 154 were slaves. But besides these, there are great numbers of tribes or nations of Indians dispersed throughout the territories of this state, and settled upon the various banks of its numerous rivers. See MUSKOGULGE, &c.

(6.) TENNASSEE, PRODUCTION AND SOIL OF. The soil of this state is very luxuriant, and produces

duces in great plenty, cotton, tobacco, indigo, Indian corn, wheat, rice, rye, oats, barley, flax, hemp, vines, and all other plants and vegetables that grow in the United States. In some of the mountains gold has been found, and there are mines of iron, to manufacture which, forges and furnaces are erected in various parts. Salt mines, or salt springs called *salt licks*, abound in this state.

(7.) **TENNESSEE, QUADRUPEDS AND BIRDS OF.** Many years ago, this country abounded with large herds of buffaloes and other wild cattle; but the first settlers very imprudently and improvidently hunted them almost to extirpation, so that few are now to be found. Elks and moose deers, however, are still found among the mountains. Bears, panthers, wolves, wild cats, beavers, musk rats, otters, racoons, foxes, squirrels, &c. are also numerous; and pheasants, partridges, swans, wild geese, ducks, wild turkeys, pigeons, &c. are very numerous in the woods, and on the banks of lakes and rivers. The bones of that monstrous large quadruped called the *Mammoth*, are still dug up many feet deep, which shows that these animals, though now extinct, must once have abounded in this territory. See *MAMMOTH*.

(8.) **TENNESSEE, RIVERS OF.** There are few countries better supplied with water than this state. The chief rivers are the *MISSISSIPPI*, which bounds it on the W. the *TENNESSEE*, (see N° 11.) the *CUMBERLAND*, the *Holston*, the *Pelefon*, or *Clinch*, the *Hatchee*, the *Wolf*, the *Redfoot*, &c. The *OHIO* also waters part of this state, also the *GREAT* and *LITTLE KANAWHA*.

(11.) **TENNESSEE, or TENNESSEE**, a large navigable river of the above state, which is the largest head-water of the *OHIO*. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, in Lat. 37°, and runs a course of about 1000 miles to the S. and SW. nearly to Lat. 34°, being increased by a great number of streams which fall into it on both sides. It then turns about to the N. in a circuitous course, and falls into the *OHIO*, about 60 miles above its mouth. From its junction with the *OHIO* to the *Muscle Shoals*, its current is very smooth and gentle for 250 miles. The *Muscle Shoals* are about 20 miles long. Here the *Tennessee* spreads to the breadth of 3 miles and forms a number of small islands, which interrupt the passage of vessels. From these shoals to the *WHIRL*, the river runs 250 miles, and affords excellent navigation all the way, until it breaks through the *Great Ridge* of *Cumberland Mountains*. See *WHIRL*.

TENNEBERG, a mountain of Upper Saxony, in *Saxe-Gotha*; 4 miles SW. of *Gotha*.

TENNELIERES, a town of France, in the dep. of the *Aube*; 4 miles E. of *Troyes*.

TENNESSEE. See *TENNESSEE*, N° I. and II.

(1.) * **TENNIS**. *n. f.* [this play is supposed by *Skinner* to be so named from the word *tenes*, take it, hold it, or there it goes, used by the French when they drive the ball.] A play at which a ball is driven with a racket.—The Barber's man hath been seen with him, and the old ornament of his cheek hath already stuffed tennis balls. *Shak.*—A prince, by a hard destiny, became a tennis ball long to the blind goddess. *Mozel.*—It can be no more disgrace to a great lord to draw a fair pic-

ture, than to play at tennis with his page. *Peach.*—The inside of the uvea is blacked like the walls of a tennis court, that the rays falling upon the retina may not, by being rebounded thence upon the uvea, be returned again; for such a repercussion would make the sight more confused. *Merc.*—We conceive not a tennis ball to think, and consequently not to have any volition, or preference of motion to rest. *Locke.*—We have no exedra for the philosophers adjoining to our tennis court, but there are alehouses. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

(2.) **TENNIS**, [from *tenes*, Fr. or from *Tennis*, an ancient town of France.] A play at which a ball is driven by a racket. The size of a tennis court is generally about 96 or 97 feet by 33 or 34. A line or net hangs exactly across the middle, over which the ball must be struck. Upon the entrance of a tennis-court, there is a long gallery which goes to the dedans, that is a kind of front gallery, into which, whenever a ball is struck, it tells for a certain stroke. This long gallery is divided into different compartments or galleries, each of which has its particular name, as follows; from the line towards the dedans are the *first gallery door*, *second gallery*, and the *last gallery*, which is called the *service-side*. From the dedans to the last gallery are the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, at a yard distance each, by which the chaces are marked. On the one side of the line are also the *first gallery door*, *second gallery*, and *last gallery*; which is called the *hazard-side*. Every man struck into the last gallery on this side reckons for a certain stroke the same as the dedans. Between the second and this last gallery are the figures 1, 2, to mark the chaces on the hazard side. Over this long gallery, or these compartments, is a covering, called the *pent-house*, on which they play the ball from the *service-side*, in order to begin a set of tennis, from which it is called a *service*. When they miss putting the ball (so as to rebound from the *pent-house*) over a certain line on the *service-side*, it is deemed a fault, two of which are reckoned for a stroke. If the ball rolls round the *pent-house*, on the opposite side of the court, so as to fall beyond a certain line described for that purpose, it is called *passé*, reckons for nothing on either side, and the player must serve again. On the right hand side of the court from the dedans is the *tambour*, a part of the wall which projects, and is so contrived in order to make a variety in the stroke, and render it more difficult to be returned by the adversary; for when a ball strikes the *tambour*, it varies its direction, and requires some extraordinary judgment to return it over the line. The last thing on the right hand side is called the *grill*, wherein if the ball is struck, it is also 15, or a certain stroke. The game of tennis is played by what they call *sets*; a set of tennis consisted of six games; but if they play what is called an *advantage-set*, two above five games must be won successively by one of the parties. When the player gives his service at the beginning of a set, his adversary is supposed to return the ball; and whenever it falls after the first rebound untouched, the chase is called accordingly; for example, if the ball at the figure 1, the chase is called at a yard, that is to say, at a yard from the dedans: this chase

chace remains till a second service is given; and if the player on the service side lets the ball go after his adversary returns it, and if the ball falls on or between any of these figures or chaces, they must change sides, there being two chaces; and he who then will be on the hazard side, must play to win the first chace; which if he wins by striking the ball so as to fall, after its first rebound, nearer to the dedans than the figure 1, without his adversary's being able to return it from its first hop, he wins a stroke, and then proceeds in like manner to win the second chace, wherever it should happen to be. If a ball falls on the line with the first gallery door, second gallery, or last gallery, the chace is likewise called at such or such a place, naming the gallery door, &c. When it is just put over the line, it is called a chace at the line. If the player on the service-side returns a ball with such force as to strike the wall on the hazard-side so as to rebound, after the first hop over the line, it is also called a chace at the line. The chaces on the hazard-side proceed from the ball being returned either too hard or not quite hard enough; so that the ball after its first rebound falls on this side of the blue line, or line which describes the hazard-side chaces; in which case it is a chace at 1, 2, &c. provided there is no chace depending. When they change sides, the player, in order to win this chace, must put the ball over the line anywhere, so that his adversary does not return it. When there is no chace on the hazard-side, all balls put over the line from the service-side, without being returned, reckon for a stroke. This game is marked in a singular manner. The first stroke is called 15, the second 30, the third 40, and the fourth game, unless the players get four strokes each; in that case, instead of calling it 40 all, it is called *deuce*; after which, as soon as any stroke is got, it is called *advantage*; and in case the stroke becomes equal again, *deuce* again, till one or the other gets two strokes following, which win the game. Although but one ball at a time is played with, a number of balls are made use of at this game to avoid trouble, and are handed to the players in baskets for that purpose; by which they can play as long as they please, without ever having occasion to look for a ball.

(3.) **TENNIS**, in geography, a large lake of Egypt, 35 miles long and 7 broad; which extends from Damietta to Tineh, and is separated only by a narrow isthmus from the Mediterranean.

(4.) **TENNIS**, an island in the above lake, 28 miles SE. of Damietta. Lon. 50. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 2. N.

(5.) **TENNIS**, a town on the above island.

* **To TENNIS**, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To drive as a ball. Not used. Those four garrisons issuing forth from the enemy, will so drive him from one side to another, and *tennis* him amongst them, that he shall find no where safe to keep his feet in, nor hide himself. *Spenser*.

TENNOLTEI, a town of Asia, in Thibet.

TENNUM, an ancient town of Bolia.

TENO, a river of Norway, which runs into the sea, 36 miles WNW. of Wardhuys.

* **TENON**, *n. f.* [French.] The end of a timber cut to be fitted into another timber.—Such

variety of parts, solid with hollow; some with cavities as mortises to receive, others with *tenons* to fit them. *Ray*.—The *tenon-saw* being thin, hath a back to keep it from bending. *Maxon*.

(1.) **TENOR**, or **TENOUR**, *n. f.* the purport or content of a writing or instrument in law, &c.

(2.) **TENOR**, in music, the first mean or middle part, or that which is the ordinary pitch of the voice, when neither raised to a treble nor lowered to a bass. See **TENOUR**.

(1.) **TENOS**, in ancient geography, an island in the Ægean Sea, near Andros, called also *Ophiusa* and *Hydrussa*, from its numerous fountains. It was very mountainous, yet produced vines which afforded excellent wine. It was 15 miles in extent. *Strabo*, 10. *Mela*, 2.

(2.) **TENOS**, the capital of the above island.

* **TENOUR**, *n. f.* [*tenor*, Lat. *tencur*, Fr.] 1. Continuity of state; constant mode; manner of continuity; general currency.—We might perceive his words interrupted continually with sighs, and the *tenor* of his speech not knit together to one constant end, but dissolved in itself, as the vehemency of the inward passion prevailed. *Sidney*.—

When the world first out of chaos frang,
So smil'd the days, and so the *tenor* ran
Of their felicity: a spring was there;
An everlasting spring the jolly year
Led round in his great circle; no winds breath,
As now, did smell of Winter or of death.

Crawshaw.

Still I see the *tenor* of man's woe

Hold on the same, from woman to begin. *Milt*.
—Does not the whole *tenor* of the divine law positively require humility and meekness to all men? *Spratt*.

Inspire my numbers,
Till I my long laborious work complete,
And add perpetual *tenor* to my rhimes,
Deduc'd from nature's birth to Cæsar's times.

Dryden.

—This success would look like chance if it were not perpetual, and always of the same *tenor*. *Dryden*.—

Can it be poison? poison's of one *tenor*. *Dryd*,
—The whole *tenor* of those bodies thus preserved, clearly points forth the month of May. *Woodw*.—

Shunning faults, one quiet *tenor* keep. *Pope*.
1. Sense contained; general course or drift.—

Is't not the *tenor* of his oracle,
That king Leontes shall not have an heir? *Shak*.
It bears an angry *tenor*. *Shak*.

Bid me tear the bond.

—When it is paid according to the *tenor*. *Shak*.
—Reading it must be repeated again and again with a close attention to the *tenor* of the discourse. *Locke*. 3. A sound in music.—The treble cutteth the air too sharp to make the sound equal; and therefore a mean or *tenor* is the sweetest part. *Bacon*.—

Water and air he for the *tenor* chose,
Earth made the base, the treble flame arofe.

Cowley.

(1.) * **TENSE**, *adj.* [*tensus*, Lat.] Stretched; stiff; not lax.—For the free passage of the sound into the ear, it is requisite that the tympanum be *sense* and hard stretched. *Holder*.

(2.) * **TENSE**, *n. f.* [*tempus*, Fr. *tempus*, Lat.] —[In

—[In grammar.] *Tense*, in strict speaking, is only a variation of the verb to signify time. *Clarke*.—As foresight, when it is natural, answers to memory, so when methodical it answers to reminiscence, and may be called forecast; all of them expressed in the *tenses* given to verbs. *Grecu*.—Ladies, without knowing what *tenses* and principles are, speak as properly and as correctly as gentleman. *Locke*.—He should have the Latin words given him in their first case and *tense*. *Watts*.

(3.) **TENSE**, in grammar, an inflection of verbs, whereby they are made to signify or distinguish the circumstance of time in what they affirm. See **GRAMMAR** under **ENGLISH LANGUAGE**.

* **TENSENESS**. *n. f.* [from *tense*.] Contraction; tension; the contrary to *laxity*.—Should the pain and *tenseness* of the part continue, the operation must take place. *Sharp*.

* **TENSIBLE**. *adj.* [*tensibilis*, Lat.] Capable of being extended.—Gold is the closest, and therefore the heaviest of metals, and is likewise the most flexible and *tensible*. *Bacon*.

TENSIFT, a river of Morocco, which runs into the Atlantic near Safi.

* **TENSILE**. *adj.* [*tensilis*, Lat.] Capable of extension.—All bodies ductile and *tensile*, as metals, that will be drawn into wires, have the appetite of not discontinuing. *Bacon*.

* **TENSION**. *n. f.* [*tensio*, Fr. *tensus*, Latin.] 1. The act of stretching; not laxation.—It can have nothing of vocal sound, voice being raised by stiff *tension* of the larynx. *Holder*. 2. The state of being stretched; not laxity.—

Still are the subtle strings in *tension* found.

Blackmore.

TENSITES, a mountain of Morocco, on the borders of Sugulmessa; 60 miles E. of Morocco.

* **TENSIVE**. *adj.* [*tensus*, Lat.] Giving a sensation of stiffness or contraction.—A *tensive* pain from distension of the parts by the fulness of humours. *Floyer*.

TENSTADT, a town of Thuringia, 11 miles NW. of Erfurt, and 14 E. of Mulhausen.

* **TENSURE**. *n. f.* [*tensus*, Lat.] The act of stretching, or state of being stretched; the contrary to laxation or laxity.—This motion upon pressure, and the reciprocal thereof, motion upon *tensure*, we call motion of liberty, which is, when any body being forced to a preternatural extent, restoreth itself to the natural. *Bacon*.

(1.) * **TENT**. *n. f.* [*tente*, Fr. *tentorium*, Lat.] 1. A soldier's moveable lodging-place, commonly made of canvas extended upon poles.—The Turks, the more to terrify Corfu, taking a hill not far from it, covered the same with *tents*. *Knolles*.—By occupation they were *tent*-makers. *Abb*, xviii.

2. A. Any temporary habitation; a pavilion.—

He saw a spacious plain, whereon

Were *tents* of various hue. *Milton*.

There pitch'd his *tents*, and there resolv'd to stay. *Dryden*.

3. [*Tente*, Fr.] A roll of lint put into a fore.—

Modest doubt is called

The beacon of the wife; the *tent* that searches To the bottom of the worst. *Shak*.

—A declining orifice kept open by a small *tent* dipt in some medicaments, and after digestion withdraw the *tent* and heal it. *Wifeman*. 4. [*Tino*

tinto, Spanish.] A species of wine deeply red, chiefly from Galicia in Spain.

(2.) A **TENT**, in war, is a pavilion or portable house. Tents are made of canvas, for officers and soldiers to lie under when in the field. The size of the officers tents is not fixed; some regiments have them of one size and some of another; a captain's tent and marquee is generally 10½ feet broad, 14 deep, and 8 high; the subalterns are a foot less; the major's and lieutenant-colonel's a foot larger; and the colonel's two feet larger. The subalterns of foot lie two in a tent, and those of horse but one. The tents of private men are 6½ feet square, and 5 feet high and hold 3 soldiers each. The tents for horse are 7 feet broad and 9 feet deep; they hold likewise, 5 men and their horse accoutrements.

(3.) **TENT**, in surgery, a roll of lint made into the shape of a nail with a broad flat head, chiefly used in deep wounds and ulcers. They are of service, not only in conveying medicines to the most intimate recesses and sinuses of the wound, but to prevent the lips of the wound from uniting before it is healed from the bottom; and by their assistance grumous blood, serdes, &c. are readily evacuated.

(1.) * **To TENT**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To lodge as in a tent; to tabernacle.—

The smiles of knaves

Tent in my cheeks. *Shak*.

(2.) * **To TENT**. *v. a.* To search as with a medical tent.—

I'll *tent* him to the quick. *Shak*.

I have some wounds upon me, and they smart.

—Well might they fester 'gainst ingratitude. *Shak*.

And *tent* themselves with death.

—Some surgeons, possibly against their own judgments, keep wounds *tented*, often to the ruin of their patient. *Wifeman*.

* **TENTATION**. *n. f.* [*tentation*, Fr. *tentatio*, Lat.] Trial; temptation.—The first delusion Satan put upon Eve, and his whole *tentation*, when he said ye shall not die, was in his equivocation, you shall not incur present death. *Brown*.

* **TENTATIVE**. *adj.* [*tentative*, effort, Fr. *tento*, Lat.] Trying; essaying.—This is not scientific but *tentative*. *Berkeley*.

* **TENTED**. *adj.* [from *tent*.] Covered with tents.—

These arms of mine till now have us'd

Their dearest action in the *tented* field. *Shak*.

The foe deceiv'd, he pass'd the *tented* plain. *Pope*.

(1.) * **TENTER**. *n. f.* [*tendo*, *tensus*, Lat.]

1. A hook on which things are stretched. 2. *To be on the TENTERs*. To be on the stretch; to be in difficulties; to be in suspense.—

In all my past adventures,

I ne'er was set on the *tenter*s. *Hudibras*.

(2.) **TENTER**, **TRIER**, or **PROVER**, a machine used in the cloth manufactory, to stretch out the pieces of cloth, stuff, &c. or only to make them even and set them square. It is usually about 4½ feet high, and for length exceeds that of the longest piece of cloth. It consists of several long square pieces of wood, placed like those which form the barriers of a manege; so, however, as that the lower cross pieces of wood may be raised or lowered.

ered as is found requisite, to be fixed at any height by means of pins. Along the cross pieces, both the upper and under one, are hooked nails, called *tenter-hooks*, driven in from space to space.

(3.) **TENTER.** TO PUT A PIECE OF CLOTH ON THE. While the piece is yet quite wet, one end is fastened to one of the ends of the tenter; then it is pulled by force of arms towards the other end, to bring it to the length required; that other end being fastened, the upper list is hooked on to the upper cross-piece, and the lowest list to the lowest cross-piece, which is afterwards lowered by force, till the piece have its desired breadth. Being thus well stretched, both as to length and breadth, they brush it with a stiff hair-brush, and thus let it dry. Then they take it off; and, till they wet it again, it will retain the length and breadth the tenter gave it.

(1.) * **To TENTER.** v. a. [from the noun.] To stretch by hooks.—A blown bladder pressed riseth again, and when leather or cloth is *tentered* it springeth back. *Bacon.*

(2.) * **To TENTER.** v. n. To admit extension. —Woollen cloth will *tenter*, linen scarcely. *Bacon.*

TENTERDEN, a town of England in Kent, remarkable for its lofty steeple, upon which a beacon was erected in the time of the Spanish invasion. It was also one of the first towns in which the woollen manufacture was established by the Flemings in the reign of Edward III. It lies 24 miles SW. of Canterbury, and 56 E. by S. of London. Lon. 0. 35. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

(1.) * **TENTH.** *adj.* [*trōtha*, Saxon.] First after the ninth; ordinal of ten.—It may be thought the less strange if others cannot do as much at the *tenth* or twentieth trial. *Boyle.*

(2.) * **TENTH.** n. f. [from the adjective.] 1. The tenth part.—

We render you the *tenth*. *Shak.*

—Take thou the defin'd *tenth*. *Shak.*

To purchase but the *tenth* of all their store,
Would make the mighty Persian monarch poor.

Dryden.

—That money would be then nine *tenths* less worth in respect of food. *Lake.* 2. Tithes.—

With cheerful heart

The *tenth* of thy increase bestow. *Philips.*

1. *Tenths* are that yearly portion which all livings ecclesiastical yield to the king. *Cowell.*

(3.) **TENTH.** and FIRST FRUITS of *Spiritual Preferments*, a branch of the king's revenue. See *REVENUE*. These were originally a part of the Papal usurpations over the clergy of this kingdom; which were annexed to the revenue of the crown; by statute 26 Hen. VIII. c. 3. (confirmed by stat. 1 Eliz. c. 4.) Q. Anne granted her royal charter, which was confirmed by the statute 4 Ann. c. 11. whereby all the revenue of first fruits and tenths is vested in trustees for ever to form a perpetual fund for the augmentation of poor livings. This is usually called *Queen Anne's bounty*; which has been still farther regulated by subsequent statutes.

* **TENTHLY.** *adv.* [from *tenth*.] In the tenth place.

TENTHREDO, the SAW-FLY, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *hymenoptera*. The mouth is furnished with jaws, which are horny, arched, dentated within; the right jaw being ob-

tuse at the apex; the lip cylindrical, trifid; there are four feelers, unequal and filiform; the wings are plain and turned; the ring consists of two serrated laminae, and the scutellum of two grains placed at a distance. Gmelin mentions 143 species. These insects are not very shy. Some by means of their saw, deposit in the buds of flowers, others on the twigs of trees or shrubs, eggs from which are produced caterpillars. The implement with which they are armed is nowise formidable; as it appears only destined to the purpose of depositing their eggs.

* **TENTIGINOUS.** *adj.* [*tentigo*, Lat.] Stiff; stretched.

TENTOLI, a town in the island of Celebes, near the N. extremity on the W. coast, which gives name to a road for ships. Lat. 1° N.

TENTUGAL, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, 7½ miles WNW. of Coimbra.

(1.) * **TENTWORT.** n. f. [*adiantum album*, Lat.] A plant. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) **TENTWORTH** is a species of *ASPLENIUM*, for which see *SPLEENWORT*, § 2.

TENTZELIUS, William Ernest, a learned German, born at Armstadt in Thuringia, in 1659. He wrote, 1. *Saxonia Numismatica*, in 4 vols. and 2. *Supplementum Historiæ Gothana*. 3 tom. 4to. *Morari.*

* **TENUIFOLIOUS.** *adj.* [*tenuis* and *folium*, Lat.] Having thin leaves.

* **TENUITY.** n. f. [*tenuit̃*, Fr. *tenuitas*, from *tenuis*, Lat.] 1. Thinness; exility; smallness; minuteness; not grossness.—Fire and pines mount of themselves in height without side boughs; partly by heat, and partly *tenuity* of juice, sending the sap upwards. *Bacon.*—Consider the divers figurings of the brain; their difference in *tenuity*, or aptness for motion. *Glanville.*—Aliment circulating through an animal body is reduced to an almost imperceptible *tenuity*, before it can serve animal purposes. *Arbuthnot.*—At the height of 4000 miles the æther is of wonderful *tenuity*. *Bentley.* 2. Poverty; meanness. Not used.—the *tenuity* and contempt of clergymen will soon let them see what a poor carcass they are. *King Charles.*

* **TENUOUS.** *adj.* [*tenuis*, Lat.] Thin; small; minute.—Another way of their attraction is by a *tenuous* emanation, or continued effluvia. *Brown.*

(1.) * **TENURE.** n. f. [*teneo*, Lat. *tenure*, Fr. *tenura*, law Latin.] *Tenure* is the manner whereby tenements are holden of their lords. *Cowell.*—The service follows the *tenure* of lands. *Spenser.*—The uncertainty of *tenure*, by which all worldly things are held, ministers very unpleasant meditation. *Raleigh.*

By that *tenure* he holds all of fate. *Dryd.*

(2.) **TENURE**, in the English law, signifies the manner whereby lands or tenements are held, or the service that the tenant owes to his lord. Almost all the real property of England is by the policy of the law supposed to be granted by, dependent upon, and holden of, some superior lord, by and in consideration of certain services to be rendered to the lord by the tenant or possessor of this property. The thing holden is therefore styled a *tenement*, the possessors thereof *tenants*, and the manner of their possession a *tenure*. Thus

all

All the lands of the kingdom are supposed to be holden, mediately or immediately, of the king; who is styled the *lord paramount*, or above all. Such tenants as held under the king immediately, when they granted out portions of the lands to inferior persons, became also lords with respect to those inferior persons, as they were still tenants with respect to the king; and, thus partaking of a middle nature, were called *mesne* or *middle lords*. All tenures being thus derived from the king, those that held immediately under him, in right of his crown and dignity, were called his *tenants in capite*, or *in chief*. "Tenements are of two kinds, *frank-tenement* and *villainage*. And of frank-tenements, some are held freely in consideration of homage and knight-service; others in free-focage, with the service of fealty only. And again, of villainages, some are *pure*, and others *privileged*. He that holds in pure villainage shall do whatsoever is commanded him, and always be bound to an uncertain service. The other kind of villainage is called *villain-focage*; and these villain-focmen do villain-services, but such as are certain and determined." Of which the sense seems to be as follows; first, where the service was free, but uncertain, as military service with homage, that tenure was called the *tenure in chivalry*, *per servitium militare*, or by knight-service. 2dly, where the service was not only free, but also uncertain, as by fealty only, by rent and fealty, &c. that tenure was called *liberum focagium*, or *free focage*. These were the only free holdings or tenements; the others were villainous or servile: as 3dly, where the service was base in its nature, and uncertain as to time and quantity, the tenure was *purum villainagium*, absolute or pure villainage. Lastly, where the service was base in its nature, but reduced to a certainty, this was still villainage, but distinguished from the other by the name of *privileged villainage*, *villanagium privilegiatum*; or it might still be called *SOCAGE* (from the uncertainty of its services), but degraded by their baseness into the inferior title of *villanum focagium*, villain-focage. 1. The military tenure, or that by knight-service, was done away by stat. 12 Car. II. For an account of this species of tenure see *FEODAL SYSTEM*, and *KNIGHT-SERVICE*; and for its incidents, see *RELIEF*, *PRIMER-SEISIN*, *WARDSHIP*, *MARRIAGE*, *FINES*, and *ESCHEAT*. 2. The second species of tenure or free-focage, not only subsists to this day, but has in a manner absorbed and swallowed up (since the stat. of Charles II.) almost every other species of tenure. See *SOCAGE*. The other grand division of tenure, mentioned by Bracton, is that of villainage, as contradistinguished from *liberum tenementum*, or frank-tenure. And this he subdivides into two classes, pure and privileged villainage; from whence have arisen two other species of our modern tenures. 3. From the tenure of pure villainage have sprung the present copyhold-tenures, or tenure by copy of court-roll at the will of the lord. See *MANOR*. Two main principles, are held to be the supporters of a copyhold-tenure, and without which it cannot exist: 1. That the lands be parcel of and situate within that manor under which it is held. 2. That they have been demised, or demisable, by copy of court-

roll immemorably. For immemorial custom is the life of all tenures by copy; so that no new copyhold can, strictly speaking, be granted at this day. In some manors, where the custom hath been to permit the heir to succeed the ancestor in his tenure, the estates are styled *copyholds of inheritance*; in others, where the lords have been more vigilant to maintain their rights, they remain copyholds for life only; for the custom of the manor has in both cases so far superseeded the will of the lord, that, provided the services be performed or stipulated for by fealty, he cannot in the first instance refuse to admit the heir of the tenant upon his death; nor, in the second, can he remove his present tenant so long as he lives, though he holds nominally by the precarious tenure of his lord's will. The fruits and appendages of a copyhold-tenure, that it hath in common with free-tenures, are fealty, services (as well in rents as otherwise), reliefs, and escheats. The two latter belong only to copyholds of inheritance; the former to those for life also. But, besides these, copyholds have also heriots, wardship, and fines. Heriots, which are agreed to be a Danish custom, are a render of the best beast or other good, (as the custom may be) to the lord on the death of the tenant. This is plainly a relic of villain tenure; there being originally less hardship in it, when all the goods and chattels belonged to the lord, and he might have seized them even in the villain's lifetime. These are incident to both species of copyhold; but wardship and fines to those of inheritance only. Wardship, in copyhold estates, partakes both of that in chivalry and that in focage. Like that in chivalry, the lord is the legal guardian, who usually assigns some relation of the infant tenant to act in his stead; and he, like guardian in focage, is accountable to his ward for the profits. Of fines, some are in the nature of primer-seisins, due on the death of each tenant, others are mere fines for alienations of the lands; in some manors, only one of those sorts can be demanded, in some both, and in others neither. They are sometimes arbitrary and at the will of the lord, sometimes fixed by custom; but, even when arbitrary, the courts of law, in favour of the liberty of copyholders, have tied them down to be reasonable in their extent; otherwise they might amount to disinherit of the estate. No fine therefore is allowed to be taken upon descents and alienations (unless in particular circumstances) of more than two years improved value of the estate. From this instance we may judge of the favourable disposition that the law of England (which is a law of liberty) hath always shown to this species of tenants, by removing, as far as possible, every real badge of slavery from them, however some nominal ones may continue. It suffered custom very early to get the better of the express terms upon which they held their lands; by declaring, that the will of the lord was to be interpreted by the custom of the manor; and, where no custom has been suffered to grow up to the prejudice of the lord, as in this case of arbitrary fines, the law itself interposes in an equitable method, and will not suffer the lord to extend his power so far as to disinherit the tenant. 4. There is yet a 4th species of tenure, described

by Bracon, under the name sometimes of *privileged villenage*, and sometimes of *villain-socage*. See **VILLENAGE, PRIVILEGED**. There is still one other species of tenure, reserved by the statute of Charles II. which is of a spiritual nature, and called the tenure in **FRANK ALMOIGN**; see that article.

TEN-YANG, a town of Asia, in Corea, 73 miles ESE. of Kingkitao.

TENZEGEZET, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tremezen, seated on a rock at the foot of which the Tefina runs, on the road from Fez to Tremezen; 16 miles S. of Tremezen.

TENZYN, a town of the ci-devant kingdom of Poland in the late palatinate of Cracow, now annexed to Prussia.

TEOPISCAN, a town of Mexico in Chiapa.

TEOS, one of the twelve Ionian cities, was situated on the S. side of the Ionian peninsula, and distinguished by being the place where the poet **ANACREON** and the historian **HECATÆUS** were born.

TEOU PIN, a town of China of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Chang-tong, 40 miles WNW. of Tein.

* **TEPEFACTION**. *n. s.* [*tepefacio*, Lat.] The act of warming to a small degree.

* **TEPID**. *adj.* [*tepidus*, Lat.] Lukewarm; warm in a small degree.—

The *tepid* caves, and fens, and shores,

Their brood as numerous hatch. *Milton.*

He with his *tepid* rays the rose renews. *Dryd.*
—Such things as relax the skin are likewise sudorific: as warm water, friction, and *tepid* vapours. *Arbuthnot.*

* **TEPIDITY**. *n. s.* [from *tepid*.] Lukewarmness.

TEPLITZ, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz, famed for its warm baths; 14 miles NW. of Leitmeritz.

* **TEPOR**. *n. s.* [*tepor*, Lat.] Lukewarmness; gentle heat.—The small pox, mortal during such a season, grew more favourable by the *tepor* and moisture in April. *Arbuthnot.*

TER, a river of Spain in Catalonia, which rises in Cerdagne, and runs into the Mediterranean, 20 miles E. of Gerona.

TERA, a river of Spain in Leon, which runs into the Orbeiga.

TERAH, a patriarch, the son of Nahor, and the 9th in descent from Noah, and the father of **ABRAHAM**. He is said to have been a statuary.

TERAIN, a river of France, which runs into the Oise, near Creil.

TERAMO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, with a bishop's see: 28 miles NNE. of Aquila, and 108 N. of Naples. Lon. 31. 29. E. Ferro. Lat. 42. 37. N.

TERANE, a town of Egypt, situated on the W. mouth of the Nile, in lat. 30° 24'. The buildings are chiefly unburned brick, though there are also some of stone. Great quantities of natrôn (See **NATRUM**) are found in certain lakes about 25 miles from Terane.

TERAPHIM, or **THERAPHIM**, a word in the Hebrew language, which has exercised much the ingenuity of the critics. It occurs 13 or 14 times

in the Old Testament, and is commonly interpreted *idols*.

TERASBURGH, a town of Austria, 2 miles N. of Engenbourg.

TERASSO. See **TARASSO**, and **TARSUS**, N° 3.

* **TERATOLOGY**. *n. s.* [*teratos* and *logos*.] Bombast, affectation of false sublimity. *Bailey.*

(1.) * **TERCE**. *n. s.* [*terce*, Fr. *triens*, Lat.] A vessel containing forty two gallons of wine; the third part of a butt or pipe. *Lincolnworth*.—

In the poet's verse

The king's fame lies, go now deny his *terce*.

Johnson.

(2.) **TERCE**, in Scots law. See **LAW**, Part III. Chap. III. Sect. I. § 25.

TERCEIRA, } one of the largest islands of
TERCERA, or } the Azores, or Western Islands,
TERCERY, } lying in the Atlantic Ocean.

It is about 40 miles in circumference; and surrounded with craggy rocks, which render it almost inaccessible. The soil is fertile, abounding in corn, wine, and fruits; and they have such plenty of cattle, that they supply ships therewith that call there. However, their principal trade is wood. It is subject to Portugal; and Angra is the capital. Lon. 27. 1. W. Lat. 28. 45. N.

TERCHIZ, a town of Persia, in Chorasan. It had anciently a fort, reckoned impregnable. It stood a long siege by Tamerlane, but at last surrendered on honourable terms. Lon. 75. 10. E. Ferro. Lat. 35. 0. N.

TERDOPIO, a river of the kingdom of Italy, which runs into the Po, 12 miles ESE. of Lu-mello.

TEREBELLA, the **PIERCER**, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the class of *vermes*, and order of *mollusca*. The body is filiform, the mouth placed before; the prepuce puts forth a pedunculated tubulous gland. There are several capillary tentacula about the mouth. There are ten species.

* **TEREBINTHINATE**. } *adj.* [*terebinthine*.
(1.) * **TEREBINTHINE**. } Fr. *terebinthum*,
Lat.] Consisting of turpentine; mixed with turpentine.—Salt serum may be evacuated by urine, by *terebinthines*; as tops of pine in all our ale. *Floyer*.—

(2.) **TEREBINTHINE ELECTUARY**. See **PHARMACY**, *Index*.

TEREBINTHUS, in botany. See **PISTACIA**.

* **TO TEREBRATE**. *v. a.* [*terebro*, Lat.] To bore; to perforate; to pierce.—Consider the threefold effect of Jupiter's trifork, to burn, discuss, and *terebate*. *Brown*.—Earth-worms are completely adapted to their way of life, for *terebating* the earth, and creeping. *Derham*.

* **TEREBRATION**. *n. s.* [from *terebate*.] The act of boring or piercing.—*Terebration* of trees makes them prosper better; and also it maketh the fruit sweeter and better. *Bacon*.

TEREBRATULÆ, in zoology, or rather ichthyology, a species of *Anomia*, which have been supposed not to exist now but as petrified shells. (See **ANOMIA**, N° I, II.) This, however, is a mistake. The *nomia* is an inhabitant of every region, and has existed in every age. See **Plate**

Rf

CCCXXIX.

CCCXXIX. where *fig. 1.* is a front view of a terebratura of middle size. *Fig. 2.* is a view of the internal structure—A A, laminae of the superior case—B B, laminae of the inferior—C, the stomach—D, the anus—E E, the manteau—F, the ophagus.

TEREDO, in entomology, a genus of *termes* belonging to the order of *testacea*. The animal is a terebella; there are two valves, calcareous, hemispherical, and cut off before, and two lanceolated. The shell is tapering, bending, and capable of penetrating wood. There are only 3 species; viz.

1. **TEREDO CLAVA**, the nail worm.

2. **TEREDO NAVALIS**, the ship worm, has a very slender-smooth cylindrical shell, inhabits the Indian seas, whence it was imported into Europe. It penetrates easily into the roughest oak-planks, and produces dreadful destruction to the ships by the holes it makes in their sides; and it is to avoid the effects of this insect that vessels require sheathing. The head of this creature is coated with a strong armour, and furnished with a mouth like that of the leech; a little above this it has two horns which form a kind of continuation of the shell; the neck is furnished with several strong muscles; the rest of the body is only covered by a very thin and transparent skin, through which the motion of the intestines is plainly seen by the naked eye. This creature is wonderfully minute when newly excluded from the egg, but it grows to the length of 4 or 6 inches, and sometimes more. When the bottom of a vessel, or any piece of wood which is constantly under water, is inhabited by these worms, it is full of small holes; but no damage appears till the outer parts are cut away: Then their shelly habitations come into view; in which there is a large space for inclosing the animal, and surrounding it with water. There is an evident care in these creatures never to injure one another's habitations; by these means each case or shell is preserved entire. Dissection has shown that every individual has the parts of both sexes, and is therefore supposed to propagate by itself.

3. **TEREDO UTRICULUS**, the bottle worm.

TEREDON, in ancient geography, a town on the coast of the Arabic Gulf. *Dion Perieg.*

TERENCE. See **TERENTIUS**.

TERENTIA, 1. the wife of Cicero, and mother of his son Marcus and his daughter Tulliola. While the orator was in Asia, she behaved so ill, that he divorced her. She afterwards married his enemy Sallust. 2. *Terentia*, the wife of Mæcenæ, who behaved equally ill to that great man.

TERENTIANUS. See **MAURUS**.

TERENTIUS AFRÆ, Publius, or **TERENCE**, a celebrated comic poet of ancient Rome, born at Carthage in Africa. He was slave to Terentius Lucanus the senator; who gave him his liberty on account of his wit, his good mien, and great abilities. Terence, on his becoming a freed man, applied himself to the writing of comedies. Terence died while on a voyage into Greece, about the 15th year before the Christian era. There are six of his comedies extant, of which the best editions are the *Æzevii* one 1631, 12mo; that *cum integris notis Donati et selectis variorum*, 1686,

8vo; *Wetterhoviuss's*, in two vols 4to, 1736; and that of Bentley the same year, 4to. A very good English translation was published in 4to, 1768, by Mr Colman.

TERESA, a town of Spain, in Valentia, 10 miles NW. of Segerba.

TERESSA, one of the **NICOBAR** Islands. Lon. 93. 40. E. Lat. 8. 16. N.

TERETES. See **MEDICINE**. § 1187, 1194.

TEREUS, king of Thrace. See **PHILOMELA**, N° 2.

TEREFOWA, a town of Africa, in Tunis, 120 miles S. of Tunis.

TERGA, a town of Morocco, on the *Morbeya*; 90 miles N. of Morocco.

* **TERGEMINUS**. *adj.* [*tergeminus*, Latin.] Threefold.

* **TERGIVERSATION**. *n. s.* [*tergum* and *verso*, Latin.] 1. Shift; subterfuge; evasion.—Writing is to be preferred before verbal conferences, as being freer from passions and tergiversations. *Bramhall.* 2. Change; fickleness.—The colonel, after all his tergiversations, lost his life in the king's service. *Clarendon.*

TERGOES. See **GOES**, N° 1.

TERGOLA, a river of Maritime Austria, in the *Vicentino*, which runs into the *Bachiglione*, and the united streams afterwards fall into the Po.

TERGOSYL, a town of Walachia, on the Syl; 40 miles NW. of Brancovan, and 68 S. of *Hermanstadt*.

TERGOVISTA, a city of European Turkey, the capital of Walachia. The *Waywode* has a palace in it. It is 4 miles SE. of *Hermanstadt*, and 180 NE. of *Belgrade*.

TERHEY, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Delft, 10 miles W. of Delft.

TERIGUM, an ancient town of Macedonia.

TERINA, an ancient town of Italy, in the country of the *Bruttii*.

TERIOLI, an ancient town of Italy, in Helvetia, now called **TIROL** or **TYROL**.

(1.) **TERKI**, a town of Asia, in Circassia, governed by a prince who is dependent upon Russia; this being one of the chief frontier towns of the Russian empire towards Persia. It is seated on the river (N° 2.) in a marshy soil, one mile from the Caspian Sea, and 125 E. of Teflis. Lon. 47. 50. E. Lat. 43. 22. N.

(2.) **TERKI**, a river of Circassia, near the above town.

TERKIRI, a lake of Asia, in Thibet, 180 miles in circumference. Lon. 109. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 32. 0. N.

TERKUL, a river of Russia, in the province of Caucasus, which runs into the Ural at Uraisk.

TERLIZZI, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari; 7 miles SE. of Trauni.

TERLON, a river of France, which runs into the Sambre, 3 miles below Landrecy.

(1.) * **TERM**. *n. s.* [*terminus*, Lat.] 1. Limit; boundary.—Corruption is a reciprocal to generation; and they two are as nature's two terms or boundaries, and the guides to life and death. *Bacon.* 2. [*Terme*, Fr.] The word by which a thing is expressed. A word of art.—To apply notions philosophical to plebeian terms, or to lay where

where the notions cannot be fitly reconciled, that there wanteth a *term* or nomenclature for it, be but shifts of ignorance. *Bacon*.—We have expressed in their plain and proper *terms*. *Burnet*.—In painting, the greatest beauties cannot always be expressed for want of *terms*. *Dryden*.—Had the Roman tongue continued vulgar, it would have been necessary, from the many *terms* of art required in trade and in war, to have made great additions to it. *Swift*. 3. Word; language.—

I would invent as bitter searching *terms*.
As curst, as harsh, as horrible to hear. *Shak*.
God to Satan first his doom apply'd,
Though in mysterious *terms*. *Milton*.
4. Condition; stipulation.—
Well, on my *terms* thou wilt not be my heir.
Dryden.
Live though unhappy, live on any *terms*.
Dryden.

—Did religion bestow heaven, without any *terms* or conditions, indifferently upon all, there would be no infidel. *Bentley*.—We flattered ourselves with reducing France to our own *terms* by the want of money. *Addison*. 5. [*Termine*, old Fr.] Time for which any thing lasts; a limited time.—
I am thy father's spirit,
Doom'd for a certain *term* to walk the night.

Shak.
Why should Rome fall a moment ere her time?

No: let us draw her *term* of freedom out
In its full length, and spin it to the last. *Addison*.
6. (In law.) The time in which the tribunals are open to all that list to complain of wrong, or to seek their right by course of law; the rest of the year is called vacation. Of these *terms* there are four in every year, during which matters of justice are dispatched: one is called Hilary *term*, which begins the 23d of January, or, if that be Sunday, the next day following, and ends the 21st of February; another is called Easter *term*, which begins 18 days after Easter, and ends the Monday next after Ascension day; the third is Trinity *term*, beginning the Friday next after Trinity Sunday, and ending the Wednesday fortnight after; the fourth is Michaelmas *term*, beginning the 6th of November, or, if that be Sunday, the next day after, and ending the 28th of November. *Cowley*.
—The *term* suiters may speed their business; for the end of these sessions delivereth them space enough to overtake the beginning of the *terms*.
Carew.—

Too long vacation hasten'd on his *term*.
Milton.

—Those men employed as justices daily, in *term* time, consult with one another. *Hale*.—

What are these to those vast heaps of crimes
Which *terms* prolong? *Dryden*.

(1.) *TERM*, in law (§ 1. *def*. 5), is generally taken for a limitation of time or estate; as, a lease for term of life or years. *Term* is more particularly used for that time wherein our courts of justice are open; in opposition to which, the rest of the year is called *vacation*.

(2.) *TERM*, in grammar, denotes some word or expression in a language. The word *term* [from *terminus*] is borrowed metaphorically, by the gram-

marians and philosophers, from the measurers or surveyors of lands: as a field is defined and distinguished by its *termini* or limits, so is a thing or matter spoken of by the word or *term* it is denoted by.

(4.) *TERM* IN THE ARTS, or *TERM* of *Art*, is a word which, besides the literal and popular meaning which it has or may have in common language, bears a further and peculiar meaning in some art or science.

(5.) The *TERMS* in law above enumerated (§ 1. *def*. 6.) are not observed by the high court of parliament, the chancery, and inferior courts; only the courts of king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer, which are the highest courts at common law. These *terms* are supposed by Mr Selden to have been instituted by William the Conqueror; but Sir H. Spelman hath shown, that they were gradually formed from the canonical constitutions of the church; being no other than those leisure seasons of the year which were not occupied by the great festivals or fasts, or which were not liable to the general avocations of rural business. Throughout all Christendom, in very early times, the whole year was one continued term for hearing and deciding causes.

(6.) *TERMS, CAMBRIDGE*. Lent term begins January the 14th, and ends Friday before Palm Sunday. Easter term begins the Wednesday after Easter week, and ends the week before Whitsunday. Trinity term begins the Wednesday after Trinity Sunday, and ends the Friday after the commencement, or 2d of July. Michaelmas term begins October the 10th, and ends December the 16th.

(7.) *TERMS, IRISH*. In Ireland the *terms* are the same as at London, except Michaelmas term, which begins October the 12th, and adjourns to November the 3d, and thence to the 6th.

(8.) *TERMS, OXFORD*. Hilary or Lent term begins January 14th, and ends the Saturday before Palm Sunday. Easter term begins the tenth day after Easter, and ends the Thursday before Whitsunday. Trinity term begins the Wednesday after Trinity Sunday, and ends after the 2d, or 5th of July, sooner or later, as the vice-chancellor and convocation please. Michaelmas term begins October the 10th, and ends December the 17th.

(9.) *TERMS, SCOTTISH*. The court of session has two terms, the winter and summer. The winter begins on 11th November, and ends 11th March, only there is a recess of three weeks at Christmas. The summer term commences 12th May, and ends 11th July. The court of exchequer has four terms. 1. Candlemas term begins 15th January, and ends 3d February. 2. Whitsuntide term begins 12th May, and ends 3d June. 3. Lammas term begins 17th June, and ends 5th July. 4. Martinmas term begins 24th November, and ends 20th December.

* To *TERM*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To name; to call.—Men *term* what is beyond the limits of the universe imaginary space, as if no body existed in it. *Locke*.

* *TERMAGANCY*. *n. f.* [from *termagant*.] Turbulence; tumultuousness.—By a violent *termagancy*

ingenuity of temper, he may never suffer him to have a moment's peace. *Barker.*

(1.) * **TERMAGANT.** *adj.* [*tyr* and *magin*, Saxon, *eminently powerful*] 1. Turbulent; turbulent.—"Twas time to counterfeit, or that hot *termagant* Scut had paid me scot and lot too. *Shak.* 2. Quarrelsome; scolding; furious.—The eldest was a *termagant*, imperious, prodigal, prodigal wench. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) * **TERMAGANT.** *n. f.* A scold; a brawling turbulent woman. It appears in *Shakespeare* to have been anciently used of men. It was a kind of heathen deity extremely vociferous and tumultuous in the ancient farces and puppet-shows.—I could have such a fellow whipt for overdoing *termagant*: it outherods Herod. *Shak.*—

Zeal's a dreadful termagant.

That teaches faints to tear and rant. *Hudibras.*
—She threw his periwig into the fire: Well, said he, thou art a brave *termagant*. *Tatler.*—

The sprites of fiery *termagants* in flame

Mount up. *Pope.*

* **TERMER.** *n. f.* [from *term*.] One who travels up to the term.—

Nor have my title leaf on posts or walls,

Or in cleist sticks, advanced to make calls

For *termers*, or some clerk-like serving man.

Ben Jonson.

TERMES, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *aptera*, according to *Linnaeus*; but by others it is arranged more properly under the *neuroptera*. The mouth has two horny jaws; the lip is horny and quadrid, the laciniae being linear and acute; there are four feelers, which are equal and filiform. The antennae are moniliform in most species, and the eyes two. There are eight species, according to *Gmelin*; viz.

1.—8. **TERMES ARDA, CAPENSIS, DESTRUCTOR, DIVINATORIUS, FATALIS, FATIDICUS, MORDAX, and PULSATORIUS.** But as *Gmelin* has followed the classification of *Linnaeus* in arranging the *termes* under the order of *aptera*, it is not improbable that several of those which are mentioned as species of the *termes* may belong to a different genus. It will be sufficient here to describe the *fatalis*, which we are enabled to do from very accurate information.

TERMES FATALIS BELlicosus, or the WHITE ANT, is of a yellow colour above; the wings also yellowish; the costa is ferruginous; the stemmata are near the eyes, the central point being somewhat prominent. Of the white ant we have a very curious, and interesting description in the *Philos. Transf.* for 1781, by Mr Henry Smethman of Clement's Inn. According to this account, the works of these insects surpass those of the bees, wasps, beavers, and other animals, as much as least as those of the most polished European nations excel those of the least cultivated savages. In the interior construction of their habitations, they appear greatly to exceed any work of human construction. The most striking parts of these structures are, the *royal apartments*, the nurseries, magazines of provisions, arched chambers and galleries, with their various communications; the ranges of Gothic-shaped arches, projected, and not formed by mere excavation, some of which are two or three feet high, but which diminish

rapidly, like the arches of aisles in perspective; the various roads, sloping staircases, and bridges, consisting of one vast arch, and constructed to shorten the distance between the several parts of the building, which would otherwise communicate only by winding passages. In some parts near Senegal, their number, magnitude, and closeness of situation, make them appear like the villages of the natives. But these and many other curious instances of the great sagacity and powers of these insects cannot be understood without viewing the plates in which their feeble frames, and comparatively stupendous works, are delineated. See *Phil. Transf.* above referred to. There are three distinct ranks among them. These are, first, the *labourers*, or working insects; next the *soldiers*, or fighting order, who do no kind of labour, and are about twice as long as the former, and equal in bulk to about 15 of them; and lastly, the winged or perfect insects, which may be called the *nobility or gentry* of the state, for they neither labour nor fight, being scarcely capable even of self-defence. These only are capable of being elected *kings or queens*; and nature has so ordered it, that they emigrate within a few weeks after they are elevated to this state, and either establish new kingdoms, or perish within a day or two." The first order, the working insects, are most numerous, being in the proportion of 100 to 1 of the soldiers. In this state they are about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch long, and 25 of them weigh about a grain; so that they are not so large as some of our ants. See *Plate CCCXXIX. fig. 1. and 2.* The second order, or *soldiers*, have a very different form from the labourers, and have been by some authors supposed to be the males, and the former neuter; but they are, in fact, the same insects as the foregoing, only they have undergone a change of form, and approached one degree nearer to the perfect state. They are now much larger, being half an inch long, and equal in bulk to 15 of the labourers, (*fig. 3. and 4.*) The third order, or the insect in its *perfect* state, varies its form still more than ever. The head, thorax, and abdomen, differ almost entirely from the same parts in the labourers and soldiers; and besides this, the animal is now furnished with four fine large, brownish, transparent wings, with which it is, at the time of emigration, to wing its way in search of a new settlement. It differs so much from the other two, that they have not hitherto been supposed to belong to the same community. In fact, they are not to be discovered in the nest till just before the commencement of the rainy season; when they undergo the last change, which is preparative to the formation of new colonies. They are equal in bulk to two soldiers, and about 30 labourers (see *fig. 5.*); and by means of the wings with which they are furnished, they roam about for a few hours; at the end of which time they lose their wings, and become the prey of innumerable birds, reptiles, and insects: while probably not a pair out of many millions of this unhappy race get into a place of safety, fulfil the first law of nature, and lay the foundation of a new community. In this state many fall into the neighbouring waters, and are eaten with avidity by the Africans. The author found them delicate, nourishing, and wholesome, with-

out

not fauce or other help from cookery than merely roasting them in the manner of coffee. The few fortunate pairs who happen to survive this annual massacre and destruction, are represented by the author as being casually found by some of the labourers that are continually running about on the surface of the ground, and are elected *kings* and *queens* of new states. Those who are not so elected and preserved certainly perish, and most probably in the course of the following day. By these industrious creatures the king and queen elect are immediately protected from their innumerable enemies, by inclosing them in a chamber of clay, where the business of propagation soon commences. Their "voluntary subjects" then busy themselves in constructing wooden nurseries, or apartments entirely composed of wooden materials, seemingly joined together with gums. Into these they afterwards carry the eggs produced from the queen, lodging them there as fast as they can obtain them from her. After impregnation, a very extraordinary change begins to take place in her person, or rather in her abdomen only. It gradually increases in bulk, and at length becomes of such an enormous size, as to exceed the bulk of the rest of her body 1500 or 2000 times. She becomes 1000 times heavier than her consort, and exceeds 20,000 or 30,000 times the bulk of one of the labourers. In this state, the matrix has a constant peristaltic or undulating motion; the consequence of which is (as the author has counted them) (fig. 8.) the protrusion of 80,000 eggs in 24 hours. Fig. 1. Plate CCCXXIX. represents a labourer. Fig. 2. a labourer magnified. Fig. 3. a soldier. Fig. 4. a soldier, forceps, and part of his head magnified. Fig. 5. a perfect termes bellicosus. Fig. 6. the head of a perfect insect magnified. Fig. 7. a head with Remmata magnified. Fig. 8. a queen. Fig. 9. a king. Fig. 10. is a section of the building raised by these insects, as it would appear on being cut down through the middle from the top a foot lower than the surface of the ground. AA, an horizontal line from A on the left, and a perpendicular line from A at the bottom, will intersect each other at the royal chamber. The darker shades near it are the empty apartments and passages, which it seems are left so for the attendants on the king and queen, who, when old, may require near 100,000 to wait on them every day. The parts which are the least shaded and dotted are the nurseries, surrounded, like the royal chamber, by empty passages on all sides, for the more easy access to them with the eggs from the queen, the provision for the young, &c. N. B. The magazines of provisions are situated without any seeming order among the vacant passages which surround the nurseries. B, the top of the interior building, which often seems, from the arches carrying upward, to be adorned on the sides with pinnacles. C, the floor of the area or nave. DDD, the large galleries which ascend from under all the buildings spirally to the top. EE, the bridges.

* TERMINABLE. *adj.* [from *terminate*.] Limitable; that admits of bounds.

(1.) TERMINALIA, in antiquity, feasts celebrated by the Romans in honour of the god *TERMINUS*.

(II.) TERMINALIA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polygamia*, and order of *monacia*. The male calyx is quinquepartite; there is no corolla; the stamina are 10. The hermaphrodite flower is the same with that of the male; there is one style; the fruit, which is a drupe or plum, is below, and shaped like a boat. There are two species; viz.

1. TERMINALIA AUGUSTIFOLIA, the *narrow-leaved, or benzoin plant*; but though it has this name, it does not yield benzoin. See *STRYAX*, N° 1.

2. TERMINALIA CATAPPA.

(1.) * To TERMINATE. *v. a.* [*termino*, Lat. *terminer*, Fr.] 1. To bound; to limit.—Bodies that are solid, separable, *terminated*, and moveable, have all sorts of figures. *Locke*. 2. To put an end to: as, to terminate any difference.

(2.) * To TERMINATE. *v. n.* To be limited; to end; to have an end; to attain its end.—These are to be reckoned with the heathen, with whom you know we undertook not to meddle, treating only of the scripture-election *terminated* in those to whom the scripture is revealed. *Hammond*.—The greatest argument by which natural reason evinces a God: it being necessary, in such a chain of causes, to ascend to, and *terminate* in, some first; which should be the original of motion, and the cause of all other things, but itself be caused by none. *South*.—The wisdom of this world, its designs and efficacy, *terminate* on this side heaven. *South*.—

Ere I the rapture of my wish renew,

I tell you then, it *terminates* in you. *Dryden*.

* TERMINATION. *n. f.* [from *terminate*.]

1. The act of limiting or bounding. 2. Bound; limit.—Its earthly and salinous parts are so exactly resolved, that its body is left imporous, and not discreted by atomical terminations. *Brown*. 3. End; conclusion. 4. Last purpose.—It is not an idol *ratione termini*, in respect of termination; for the religious observation thereof is referred and subservient to the honour of God and Christ: neither is it such *ratione modi*, for it is kept holy by the exercise of evangelical duties. *White*. 5. [In grammar; *terminatio*, Lat. *terminalison*, Fr.] End of words as varied by their significations.—Those rude heaps of words and terminations of an unknown tongue would have never been so happily learnt by heart without some smoothing artifice. *Watts*. 6. Word; term. Not in use.—She speaks poniards, and every word stabs; if her breath were as terrible as her terminations, there were no living near her; she would infect to the north star. *Shak*.

(1.) TERMINI, in architecture, denotes a kind of statues or columns, adorned on the top with the figure of a man's, woman's, or satyr's head, as a capital; and the lower part ending in a kind of sheath or scabbard. *Suidas* thinks they should rather be called *bermetes* than *termini*, as they originated from the Athenian *bermetes*, which were used as ornaments, and not from the Roman *termini*, which were used as land-marks. See *HERMES*, N° 3.

(2.) TERMINI, in geography, a town of Sicily, in the Valley of Demona, on the N. coast, with a strong castle. It has a fine aqueduct, and several handsome

handsome buildings, and is seated at the mouth of the river (N^o 3.) in a territory abounding with corn and wine, 10 miles SE. of Palermo. Lon. 13. 44. E. Lat. 38. 5. N.

(3.) **TERMINI**, a river of Naples, in the valley of Debona, which runs into the sea at the above town.

(4.) **TERMINI**, or **TERMOLI**, a town of Naples, in the province of Capitanata, with a bishop's see, 57 miles W. of Vicke, 32 SE. of Lanciano, and 70 NE. of Naples. Lon. 15. 20. E. Lat. 41. 59. N.

* **TERMINTHIUS**, *n. f.* [*τεμινθίος*] A tumour. — *Terminthus* is of a blackish colour; it breaks, and within a day the pustule comes away in a scough.

TERMINUS, in Pagan worship, an ancient deity among the Romans, who presided over the stones or land marks, called **TERMINI**, which were held so sacred, that it was accounted sacrilege to move them; and as the criminal became devoted to the gods, it was lawful for any man to kill him. The worship of this deity was instituted by Numa Pompilius, who, to render land marks, and consequently the property of the people, sacred, erected a temple on the Tarpeian mount to **Terminus**.

TERMIOVA, a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria, 18 miles NE. of Pedena.

TERMITES. See **TERMES**.

* **TERMLESS**, *adj.* [from *term*.] Unlimited; boundless. — These betraying lights look not up towards *termless* joys. *Raleigh*. —

* **TERMLY**, *adv.* [from *term*.] Term by term; every term. — The fees or allowances are *termly* given to these deputies. *Bacon*. — The clerks are partly rewarded by that means also, besides that *termly* fee which they are allowed. *Bacon*.

TERMOLI. See **TERMINI**, N^o 4.

TERMUYDEN, a strong town of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse and ci-devant province of Dutch Flanders, NE. of Sluys.

TERN, in ornithology. See **STERNA**.

TERNAI, the name given by Perouse to a very fine bay which he discovered on the coast of Tartary, in Lat. 45° 13' N. and in Lon. 135° 9' E. of Paris. The bottom is sandy, and diminishes gradually to six fathoms within a cable's length of the shore. The tide rises 5 feet; it is high water at 86. 15m. at full and change; and the flux and reflux do not alter the direction of the current at half a league from the shore.

(1.) * **TERNARY**, *adj.* [*ternaire*, Fr. *ternarius*, Lat.] Proceeding by threes; consisting of three.

(2.) * **TERNARY**. **TERNION**, *n. f.* [*ternarius*, Lat. *ternio*, Lat.] The number three. — These 19 consonants stood in such confused order, some in *ternaries*, some in pairs, and some single. *Holder*.

TERNATE, the most northerly of the **MOLUCCAS**, or *Clove Islands* in the East Indies. It abounds in cocoa nuts, bananas, citrons, oranges, almonds, and other fruits proper to the torrid zone; but cloves are the most valuable produce. It is in the possession of the Dutch. Malava is the capital. Lon. 129. 0. E. Lat. 8. 0. N.

TERNAVASSO, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Po, and ci-devant province of Piedmont, 6 miles NE. of Carmagnola, and 8 S. of Chieri.

TERNBERG, a mountain of Austria, near the Enns, 6 miles S. of Steyr.

TERNEUSE, a strong town and fort of Holland, in the department of the Meuse, seated on the W. branch of the Scheldt, built about 1583, by the Prince of Orange; 12 miles SE. of Flushing, and 25 NW. of Antwerp, and 5 from Axel. Lon. 3. 45. E. Lat. 51. 20. N.

TERNI, a town of Italy, in the Pope's territories, and in the duchy of Spoleto, with a bishop's see. It is but a small place; though there are very beautiful ruins of antiquity, it having been a very considerable Roman colony. It is situated on the top of a high mountain, and on the N. of it are fields which are extremely fertile. Lon. 12. 40. E. Lat. 42. 24. N.

* **TERNION**. See **TERNARY**, § 2.

TERNOIS, a river of France, which runs into the Canche, near Heidin.

TERNOSKAIA, a town of Russia, in the country of the Cossacs, 136 miles ENE. of Azoph.

(1.) **TERNOVA**, a town of European Turkey in Bulgaria, anciently one of the strongest in the country, and the residence of the princes; but now much decayed, thinly peopled, and the fortifications in bad repair. It is the residence of the Greek archbishop of Bulgaria; and is seated on a mountain near the Jenera, 95 miles NE. of Sophia, 200 NW. of Constantinople, and 88 NW. of Adrianople. Lon. 26. 2. E. Lat. 43. 1. N.

(2.) **TERNOVA**, another town of European Turkey in Thessaly, seated on the Peneus, 5 miles WNW. of Larissa. It is a large town, and has a good trade.

TERNSTROMIA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polyandria*, and order of *monogynia*. The calyx is monophyllous and quinquepartite: the corolla is monopetalous, quinquepartite or sixpartite, globular, and bell-shaped: the berry is dry, bilocular, and valveless. There is only one species, viz.

TERNSTROMIA MERIDIONALIS.

TERPANDER, a celebrated Greek poet and musician. The Oxford marbles tell us that he was the son of Dardeneus of Lesbos, and that he flourished in the 38th year of these records; which nearly answers to the 27th Olympiad, and 61st year B. C. The marbles inform us likewise, that he taught the *nomos*, or airs, of the lyre and flute, which he performed himself upon this last instrument, in concert with other players on the flute. Several writers tell us that he added three strings to the lyre, which before his time had but four. See **LYRE**, § 3. Among the many signal services which Terpander is said to have done to music, none was of more importance than the notation that is ascribed to him for ascertaining and preserving melody, which before was traditional, and wholly dependent on memory. The invention indeed, of musical characters has been attributed by Aëpius and Gaudentius, two Greek writers on music, and upon their authority by Boethius, to Pythagoras, who flourished full two centuries after Terpander. But Plutarch gave the invention to Terpander and so does Clemens Alexandrinus. Plutarch says, "no other proof need be urged of the excellence of Terpander in the art of playing upon the cithara, than what is given by the register

register of the Pythic games, from which it appears that he gained four prizes successively at those solemnities. Of the works of this poet only a few fragments are now remaining.

TERPSICHORE, in the mythology, one of the Nine Muses. She presided over DANCING, of which she was reckoned the inventress. In painting, she is drawn with a musical instrument in her hand, and crowned with laurel. *Juv. vii. v. 35.*

(1.) TERRA. [Lat. the *Earth*.] in the mythology, the wife of COELUS, and mother of SATURN and OPS, or TELLUS. See OPS and TELLUS.

(2.) TERRA AUSTRALIS INCOGNITA, a name for a large unknown continent, supposed to lie towards the South Pole, and which for a long time was sought after by navigators. The voyages of Captain Cook seem to have determined that no such continent exists, unless in polar latitudes, to which access is impossible.

(3.) TERRA DEL FUEGO. See FUEGO, N^o 2.

(4.) TERRA DI LAVORA. See LAVORA.

(5.) TERRA FIRMA, in geography, is sometimes used for a continent, in contradistinction to an island.

(6.) TERRA FIRMA, otherwise called NEW CASTLE, or CAST ELLA DEL ORO, a country of America, bounded on the north by the North Sea and part of the Atlantic Ocean, by the same sea and Guiana on the E. by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the S. and by the Pacific Ocean and Veragua on the W. It lies between 62° and 83° of W. lon. and between the equator and 12° of lat. N. being upwards of 1200 miles long from E. to W. and 800 broad from N. to S. It had the name of *Castella del Oro* from the quantities of gold found in the districts of Uraba and other parts; and was first discovered by the celebrated Columbus in his third voyage. The climate is neither pleasant nor healthy, the inhabitants one part of the year being scorched by the most intense and burning heat, and the other almost drowned with perpetual floods of rain, pouring from the sky with such violence as if a general deluge was to ensue. In so large a tract of country the soil must necessarily vary. Accordingly, in some parts it is a barren sand, or drowned mangrove land, that will scarce produce any kind of grain; in others it yields Indian corn, balms, gums, and drugs, almost all manner of fruits as well of Old as of New Spain, sugar, tobacco, Brazil wood, and several other kinds of dyeing woods; a variety of precious stones, particularly emeralds and sapphires; venison and other game. The plantations of cacao, or chocolate nuts, in the district of the Caracacs, are esteemed the best in America. The mountains abound with tigers, and, according to some, with lions, and great numbers of other wild beasts. The rivers, seas, and lakes, teem with fish, and also with alligators; and the bowels of the earth were once furnished with the richest treasures, now almost exhausted. The same may be said of the pearl-fisheries on the coast, which are far from being so profitable now as formerly. Terra Firma is a very mountainous country. Terra Firma Proper, in particular, consists of prodigious high mountains, and deep valleys flooded more than half the year. The

mountains in the provinces of Carthagena and St Martha, according to Dampier, are the highest in the world, being seen at sea 200 miles off; from these run a chain of hills of almost equal height, quite through South America, as far as the Straits of Magellan, called the *Cordilleras des Andes*. (See ANDES and CORDILLERAS.) The province of Venezuela also, and district of Caracacs, the most northerly parts of South America, are almost a continued chain of hills, separated by small valleys, pointing upon the coast of the North Sea. A chain of barren mountains, almost impassable, runs through the province of Papayan from N. to S. some whereof are volcanoes; but towards the shores of the Pacific Ocean it is a low country, flooded great part of the year. The principal rivers of Terra Firma are, the Darien, Chagres, Santa Maria, Concepcion, Rio Grande or Magdalena, Maricaribo, and Oroonoko. Terra Firma contains the provinces of Terra Firma Proper or DARIEN, of Carthagena, St Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, Comana, New Andalusia or Paria, New Granada, and Popayan.

(7.) TERRA FIRMA PROPER lies in the form of a crescent, about the spacious bay of Panama, being the isthmus which joins South and North America; and extending in length between the two seas 300 miles, but in breadth, where the isthmus is narrowest, only 60. Here are found gold mines, gold sands, and fine pearls; and though the land is generally rough, there are some fruitful valleys, watered by rivers, brooks, and springs. The chief places are Panama and Porto Bello. See DARIEN.

(8.) TERRA JAPONICA, more commonly called *catechu*, a drug formerly supposed to be an extract from the seeds of the areca catechu, but lately discovered by Mr Kerr, assistant surgeon to the civil hospital at Bengal, to be obtained from the *mimosa catechu*. Mr Kerr gives the following account of the manner in which the extract is made; "After felling the trees, the manufacturer carefully cuts off all the exterior white part of the wood. The interior coloured wood is cut into chips, with which he fills a narrow-mouthed unglazed earthen pot, pouring water upon them until he sees it among the upper chips; when this is half evaporated by boiling, the decoction, without straining, is poured into a flat earthen pot, and boiled to one third part; this is set in a cool place for one day, and afterwards evaporated by the heat of the sun, stirring it several times in the day. When it is reduced to a considerable thickness, it is spread upon a mat or cloth, which has previously been covered with the ashes of cowdung; this mass is divided into square or quadrangular pieces by a string, and completely dried by turning them frequently in the sun until they are fit for sale." This extract is called *cut* by the natives, by the English *cutch*, and by different authors *terra japonica*, *catechu*, *khaath*, *cate*, *cachou*, &c. "In its purest state it is a dry pulverable substance, outwardly of a reddish colour, internally of a shining dark brown, tinged with a reddish hue; in the mouth it discovers considerable astringency, succeeded by a sweetish mucilaginous taste." According to Lewis, "it dissolves almost totally in water, excepting the impurities, which are usually of the sandy kind, and amounting

ing in the specimens I examined to about one 8th of the mass. Of the pure matter, rectified spirit dissolves about 7-8ths into a deep red liquor: the part which it leaves undissolved is an almost insipid mucilaginous substance." CATECHU may be usefully employed for most purposes where an astringent is indicated, provided the most powerful be not required. But it is particularly useful in alvine fluxes; and where these require the use of astringents, we are acquainted with no one equally beneficial. Besides this, it is employed also in uterine profluvia, in laxity and debility of the viscera in general, in catarrhal affections, and various other diseases where astringents are necessary. It is often suffered to dissolve leisurely in the mouth, as a topical astringent for laxities and exulcerations of the gums, for aphthous ulcers in the mouth, and similar affections. This extract is the basis of several fixed formulæ in our pharmacopœias, particularly of a tincture and an electuary; but one of the best forms under which it can be exhibited, is that of a simple infusion in warm water, with a proportion of cinnamon or cassia; for it is thus at once freed from its impurities, and improved by the addition of the aromatic.

(9.) TERRA MAGELLANICA. See MAGELLANIA and PATAGONIA.

(10.) TERRA NUOVA, an ancient town of Sardinia, on the E. coast, at the bottom of a gulf so named. Lon. 9. 35. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.

(11.) TERRA NUOVA, a town of Naples in Calabria Citra, 9 miles N. of Bisignano.

(12.) TERRA NUOVA, a sea-port town of Sicily in the valley of Demona, seated on the coast of a bay of the Mediterranean, on the site of the ancient city of Gela. It was founded about A. D. 1250, by the emp. Frederick II. It contains about 7000 inhabitants, and lies 6 miles NW. of Jaci.

(13.) TERRA PONDEROSA, i. e. *ponderous Earth*, in the old system of mineralogy, the name formerly given to what is now called BARYTES; See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and MINERALOGY, *Part II. Chap. III. § 1.*

(14.) TERRA POZZOLANA, or } See PUZZOLA-

(14.) TERRA PUZZOLANA, } NA.

(15.) TERRA SIGILLATA LEMNIA. See AD-ANSONIA.

(1.) * TERRACE. *n. s.* [*terrace*, Fr. *terraccia*, Italian.] 1. A small mount of earth covered with grass.—He made her gardens not only within the palaces, but upon *terrasses* raised with earth over the arched roofs, planted with all sorts of fruits.

Temple. 2. A balcony; an open gallery.—

Fear broke my slumbers. I no longer stay,

But mount the terrace, thence the town survey.

Dryden.

(2.) A TERRACE is a walk or bank of earth, raised in a garden or court to a due elevation for a prospect. The name is also given to the roofs of houses that are flat, and whereon we may walk.

* To TERRACE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To open to the air or light.—The reception of light into the body of the building must now be supplied, by *terracing* any story which is in danger of darkness. *Watson.*

Clermont's *terrac'd* height and Esther's groves.

Thomson.

TERRACINA, an ancient city of Italy, in the Pope's territory, in the Campagna of Rome, with a bishop's see. It was anciently called ANXUR, and was the capital of VOLSCI. See ANXUR and TERRACINA. Its principal church was originally a temple of Jupiter, who was supposed to have a great partiality for the town, and is therefore styled ANXURUS, by Virgil. It is seated on the sea-coast, on the side of a mountain, 46 miles SE. of Rome. Lon. 13. 15. E. Lat. 41. 24. N.

TERRÆ FILIUS, *Son of the Earth*, a student of the university of Oxford, formerly appointed in public acts to make satirical and jesting speeches against the members thereof, to tax them with any growing corruptions, &c.

TERRANTONA, a town of Spain in Arragon; 8 miles SE. of Ainsa.

TERRAON, or TORRAON, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 24 miles NW. of Beja.

(1.) * TERRAQUEOUS. *adj.* [*terra* and *aquus*, Lat.] Composed of land and water.—The *terraqueous* globe is, to this day, nearly in the same condition that the universal deluge left it. *Woodward.*

(2.) TERRAQUEOUS GLOBE, a name given to the EARTH, or WORLD we inhabit, as consisting of land and water. To this article we made a reference from the article EARTH, for a view of the various theories that have been formed by men of learning and genius, who have indeed indulged their fancy very much with regard to the work of CREATION. Upon this subject no writer has given more scope to his unbridled fancy, than Dr Burnet in his celebrated *Theory of the Earth*, but as that system is entirely conjectural, and is long ago entirely exploded, we think it quite unnecessary to load our work with any view of it.

TERRAS, or TRAAS, in mineralogy, a species of argillaceous earth. It differs but little in its principles from puzzolana, but is much more compact and hard, porous and spongy. It is generally of a whitish yellow colour, and contains more heterogeneous particles, a spar, quartz, flint, &c. and something more of calcareous earth; it effervesces with acids, is magnetic, and fusible *per se*. When pulverized, it serves as a cement, like PUZZOLANA. It is found in Germany and Sweden. A species of red earth has been found in the parish of St Elizabeth in Jamaica, which turns out to be an excellent substitute for terras or puzzolana earth, and may therefore be of great value to the inhabitants of the West Indies. One measure of this earth, mixed with two of well slackened lime and one of sand form a cement that answers extremely well for building any dam or bridge, or any structure in water, for it will soon harden and become like a stone.

TERASSE, a town of France in the dep. of the Isere, and capital of a canton in the district of Grenoble, 13½ miles NNE. of Grenoble.

(1.) TERRASSON, Andrew, a French divine and priest of the Oratory, born at Lyons, and much admired for his eloquence. His sermons in 4 vols. 12mo are esteemed. He died at Paris in 1723.

(2.) TERRASSON, Abbé John, brother of Andrew, a French writer, born at Lyons in 1669. He distinguished himself in the dispute concerning Homer

Homer, between La Motte and Madam Dacier, by writing a *Dissertation contre l'Iliade*. He wrote a political and moral romance called *Selbos*, full of learning and philosophy; and another capital work of his is a French translation of *Diodorus Siculus*. He died in 1750.

(3.) TERRASSON, Anthony, a relation of the two preceding, was born at Paris in 1705. He was eminent as an advocate, and wrote *The History of Roman Jurisprudence*, in fol. for which he was appointed Cenfor Royal, and a professor in the royal College. He also wrote *Miscellanies of History, Literature, &c.* 12mo. He died in 1782.

(4.) TERRASSON, in geography, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the dep. of the Dordogne, 6 miles NE. of Montignac, and 25½ E. of Périgueux. Lon. 13 58. E. of Ferro. Lat. 45. 7. N.

(1.) TERRE, *n. f.* [Fr. from *terra*, earth,] is used in the names of several minerals, as

(1.) *TERRE-BLUE. *n. f.* [*terre* and *bleu*, Fr.] A sort of earth.—*Terre-blue* is a light, loose, friable kind of lapis armenus. *Woodward.*

(3.) TERRE-PLEIN, or TERRE-PLAIN, in fortification, the top, platform, or horizontal surface of the rampart upon which the cannon are placed, and where the defenders perform their office. It is so called because it lies level, having only a little slope outwardly to counteract the recoil of the cannon. Its breadth is from 24 to 30 feet; being terminated by the parapet on the outer side, and inwardly by the inner talus.

(4.) *TERRE-VERTE. *n. f.* [French.] A sort of earth.—*Terre-verte* owes its colour to a slight admixture of copper. *Woodward.*—*Terre verte*, or green earth is light; it is a mean betwixt yellow ochre and ultramarine. *Dryden.*

(5.) TERRE VERTE, in the colour trade, green earth, is much used by painters, both singly for a good standing green, and in mixture with other colours. It is an indurated clay, of a deep bluish green colour, and is found in the earth, not in continued strata or beds, as most of the other earths are, but in large flat masses of different sizes, imbedded in other strata; these break irregularly in the cutting, and the earth is generally brought out of the pit in lumps of different sizes. It is of a fine regular and even structure, and not very hard. It is of an even and glossy surface, very smooth to the touch, and in some degree resembling the morochthus or French chalk, but adhering firmly to the tongue. It does not stain the hands in touching it; but being drawn along a rough surface, it leaves an even white line, with a greenish cast. It does not ferment with acids, and it burns to a dusky brown colour. It is dug in the island of Cyprus, and in many parts of France and Italy. That from the neighbourhood of Verona has been esteemed the best in the world; but of late there has been some dug in France that equals it. There is also an earth dug on Mendip Hills, in the sinking for coal, which, though wholly unobserved, is nearly, if not wholly, of equal value. When scraped, and the finer parts separated, it is ready to be made up with oil for the use of the painters, and makes the most true and lasting green of any body they use.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

TERRECREPANT. *adj.* Rebuking with severity. *Ash.*

(1.) TERREGLES, [from *terra ecclesie*, the church's land,] a parish of Scotland, in Kircudbrightshire, about 5 miles long and 3 broad, lying along the banks of the Nith, nearly opposite to the town of Dumfries. The surface is level and the soil in general a light loam or sand. It has relic of the castle of Terregles, an ancient seat of the Earls of Nithsdale, on the banks of the Nith at its junction with the Cluden, where are also situated the ruins of the ancient college of Linculneden. The population in 1790 was 510, the increase 113, since 1755.

(2.) TERREGLES, a small town in the above parish, 2 miles W. of Dumfries.

TERRELLA, or little earth, is a magnet turned of a spherical figure, and placed so as that its poles, equators, &c. do exactly correspond with those of the world.

*TERRENE. *adj.* [*terrenus*, Lat.] Earthly; terrestrial.—They think that the same rules of decency which serve for things done unto *terrene* powers, should universally decide what is fit in the service of God. *Hooker.*

Our *terrene* moon is now eclips'd. *Shak.*
—God set before him a mortal and immortal life, a nature celestial and *terrene*. *Raleigh.*

Over many a tract
Of heav'n they march'd, and many a province
wide,

Tenfold the length of this *terrene*. *Milton.*

*TERREOUS. *adj.* [*terreus*, Lat.] Earthy; consisting of earth.—There is but little similitude betwixt a *terreous* humidity and plantal germinations. *Glanville.*—According to the temper of the *terreous* parts at the bottom, variously begin intumescencies. *Brown.*

TERRESCHOW, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Pilsen, 16 miles NE. of Pilsen.

*TERRESTRIAL. *adj.* [*terrestris*, Lat.] 1. Earthly; not celestial.—

Far passing the height of men *terrestrial*,
Like an huge giant of the Titan race. *Spenser.*
Terrestrial heav'n! danc'd round by other
heav'ns. *Milton.*

Thou brought'st Briareus with his hundred
hands,

So call'd in heav'n; but mortal men below
By his *terrestrial* name Ægeon know. *Dryden.*

2. Consisting of earth; terreous. Improper.—I did not confine these observations to land or *terrestrial* parts of the globe. *Woodward.*

*To TERRESTRIFY. *v. a.* [*terrestris* and *facio*, Lat.] To reduce to the state of earth.—Though we should affirm, that heaven were but earth celestified, and earth but heaven *terrestified*; or, that each part above had an influence on its divided affinity below; yet to single out these relations is a work to be effected by revelation. *Brown.*

*TERRESTRIOUS. *adj.* [*terrestris*, Lat. *terestre*, Fr.] Terreous; earthly; consisting of earth.—This variation proceedeth from *terrestrious* eminences of earth respecting the needie. *Brown.*

(1.) *TERRIBLE. *adj.* [*terribilis*, Fr. from *terribilis*, Lat.] 1. Dreadful; formidable; causing fear.

G g Was

Was this a face to be expos'd.
In the most terrible and nimble stroke

Of quick, crows lightning?

Fit love for gods,

Not terrible, though terror be in love. *Milton.*

Thy native Latium was thy darling care,

Prudent in peace, and terrible in war. *Prior.*

2. Great so as to offend: a colloquial hyperbole.—Being indispos'd by the terrible coldness of the season, he reported himself till the weather should mend. *Clarendon.*—I began to be in a terrible fear of him. *Tillotson.*

(1.) TERRIBLE, MONT, a department of the France, formed out of the ci-devant principality of MONACO and county of NICE; so named from

(3.) TERRIBLE MONT, a most dreadful precipitous mountain of France, in the above department.

* TERRIBLENESS. *n. f.* [from *terrible*.] Formidableness; the quality of being terrible; dreadfulness.—Having quite lost the way of nobleness, he strove to climb to the height of *terribleness*. *Sidney.*—Their *terribleness* is owing to the violent contention and laceration of the parts. *Sharp.*

* TERRIBLY. *adv.* [from *terrible*.] 1. Dreadfully; formidably; so as to raise fear.—

The polish'd steel gleams *terribly* from far.

Dryden.

2. Violently; very much.—The poor man squatted *terribly*. *Swift.*

TERRICOLIST, *n. f.* [from *terra* and *colo*.] One who cultivates or inhabits the earth. *Aph.*

TERRIDON, LOCH, an arm of the sea on the W. coast of Ross-shire, in Scotland, between Apple crofs and Gair-loch. It abounds with many fine bays and creeks.

(1.) * TERRIER, *n. f.* [*terrier*, Fr. from *terra*, earth.] 1. A dog that follows his game under ground.—The fox is earth'd, but I shall send my two *terriers* in after him. *Dryden.* 2. [*Terrier*, Fr.] A survey or register of lands.—King James's canons require that the bishops procure a *terrier* to be taken of such lands. *Ayliffe.* 3. [From *tete-bras*, Lat.] A wimble, auger, or borer. *Ausworth.*

(2.) TERRIER, in zoology. See CANIS, § 1, iv. N° 12.

* TERRIFIC. *adj.* [*terrificus*, Lat.] Dreadful; causing terror.—

The serpent, subtlest beast of all the field,
Of huge extent sometimes, with brazen eyes
And hairy mane *terrific*. *Milton.*

The British navy through the ocean vast
Shall wave her double cross, t' extreme climes
Terrific. *Philips.*

* To TERRIFY. *v. a.* [*terror* and *facio*, Lat.]

To fright; to shock with fear; to make afraid.—

Thou scarest me with dreams, and *terrifiest* me through visions. *Job vii. 14.*—In nothing *terrified*. *Phil. i. 28.*—Neither doth it become this most wealthy state to be *terrified* from that which is

right with any charges of war. *Knoles.*—Though he was an offender against the laws, yet in regard they had treated him illegally, in scourging him and Silas uncondemned, against the privilege of Romans, he *terrifies* them with their illegal proceedings. *Kettleswell.*—The amazing difficulty of his account will rather *terrify* than inform him,

and keep him from setting heartily about such a task as he despairs ever to go through with. *South.*

Meteors for various purposes to form;

The breeze to cheer, to *terrify* the storm.

Blackmore.

TERRIGENOUS, *adj.* [from *terra* and *gigno*, to beget.] Earth-born or earth-begotten. *Aph.*

TERRIMUMGALUM, a town of Hindostan, in the Carnatic, 25 miles N. of Trichinopoly.

TERRING, a town of England, in Suffex, with a market on Sat. seated on the Downs, near the sea coast, 24 miles E. of Chichester, and 53 SW. of London. Lon. 0. 21. W. Lat. 50. 30. N.

TERRIORE, a town of Hindostan, with a fortress, in the Carnatic, 24 miles N. of Trichinopoly, and 87 SW. of Pondicherry.

TERRITORIAL, *adj.* [from *territory*.] Of or belonging to a territory.

(1.) * TERRITORY. *n. f.* [*territorium*, law Latin; *territoire*, Fr.] Land; country; dominion; district.—Linger not in my *territories* longer than swift expedition will give thee time to leave our royal court. *Shak.*—They erected a house within their own *territory*. *Hogward.*—

He saw wide *territory* spread

Before him.

Milton.

Ne'er did the Turk invade our *territory*

But fame and terror doubl'd fill their files.

Denham.

—Arts and sciences took their rise, and flourish'd only in those small *territories* where the people were free. *Swift.*

(2.) TERRITORY NORTH-WEST OF THE OHIO. See NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORY, N° 2. This extensive territory of the United States of America is daily improving and increasing in population, commerce and arts, and will soon add one or more states to the Union.

(3.) TERRITORY SOUTH-WEST OF THE OHIO, the name formerly given to an extensive government of the United States, now erected into the new state of TENNESSEE or TENNASSIE. See TENNASSIE, N° 1, § 1—8.

(1.) TERROR, *n. f.* See TERROR.

(2.) TERROR. See FEAR, FRIGHT, and PAVOR.

TERRORISTS, *n. f. plur.* a name too justly given to that furious party of the French JACOBINS, who during the dictatorship of ROBESPIERRE, supported and applauded all his worst measures, while he murdered the greatest and best men of France, constantly calling out "let *terror* be the order of the day," and thus paved the path of blood, that led to the establishment of the present despotism. See REVOLUTION, N° VI, § 22.

TERROJEN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, and ci-devant prov. of Artois, seated on the Lys, 6 miles S. of St Omer.

* TERROUR, *n. f.* [*terror*, Lat. *terreur*, Fr.] 1. Fear communicated.—

The thunder when to roll

With *terrou* through the dark aerial hall. *Milt.*

The pleasures of the land and *terrou*s of the main.

Blackmore.

2. Fear received.—

It is the cow with *terrou* of his spirit. *Shak.*

—They shot through both the walls of the town and the bulwark also, to the great *terrou* of the defendants. *Knoles.*—

Amaze.

Amaze and *terror* seiz'd the rebel host. *Milt.*
They with conscious *terrors* vex me round. *Milton.*

O fight

Of *terror*, foul and ugly to behold. *Milton.*

3. The cause of fear.—

Those enormous *terrors* of the Nile. *Prior.*

So spake the grisly *terror*. *Milton.*

TERRUEL, a considerable town of Spain, in Arragon, with a bishop's see, seated in a large, pleasant, and fertile plain, planted with gardens and orchards. It is seated near the conflux of the Guadalquivir and Alhambra, 75 miles SW. of Saragossa, and 112 E. of Madrid. Lon. 1. 0. W. Lat. 40. 25. N.

TERSA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Medveditz, in the country of the Cossacks, in Lon. 63. 20. E. of Ferro. Lat. 50. 30. N.

TERSATZ, a town of Croatia, 14 miles N. of Bibacz.

TERSCHUEREN, a town of Holland, in the department of the Rhine, and ci-devant province of Guelderland; 7 miles E. of Amersfort.

* **TERSE**. *adj.* [*ters*, French; *terfus*, Latin.] 1. Smooth. Not in use.—Many stones precious and vulgar, although *terse* and smooth, have not this power attractive. *Brown.* 2. Cleanly written; neat; elegant without pompousness.—

To raw numbers and unfinished verse,

Sweet found is added now to make it *terse*.

Dryden.

—These accomplishments in the pulpit appear by a quaint, *terse*, florid style, rounded into periods. *Swift.*

Diffus'd, yet *terse*; poetical, tho' plain. *Harte.*

TERSEKAN, a river of Russia, which runs into the Ichim, in Lon. 85. 20. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 50. N.

(1.) * **TERTIAN**. *n. f.* [*tertiana*, Lat.] Is an ague intermitting but one day, so that there are two fits in three days.—*Tertians* of a long continuance do most menace this symptom. *Harvey.*

(2.) **TERTIAN FEVER**. See *MEDICINE, Index.*

* To **TERTIATE**. *v. a.* [*tertio*, *tertius*, Lat.] To do any thing the third time.

TERTIUS, a praenomen very common among the Romans, who often distinguished their children by their numbers in the order of their birth, as *Secundus*, *Tertius*, *Quartus*, *Quintus*, *Sexius*, *Septimus*, *Octavius*, *Decimus*, &c.

(1.) **TERTRE**, John Baptist, a learned Dominican, born at Calais in 1610. After having figured as a soldier, he entered into the monastic state, and became a zealous missionary in America, whence he returned in 1658. He wrote a *General History of the French West India Islands*, in 4 vols. 4to, and died at Paris in 1687.

(2.) **TERTRE**, Francis Joachim Duport du, a learned French Jesuit, born at St Malo in 1715. He wrote, 1. *An Abridgement of the History of England*, in 3 vols. 12mo. 2. *An Abridgement of the History of Spain*, in 5 vols. 12mo, and other works. He died in 1759.

TERTULLIAN, or **QUINTUS SEPTIMIUS FLORENS TERTULLIANUS**, a celebrated priest of Carthage, was the son of a centurion in the militia, who served as a praefect of Africa. He was educated in the Pagan religion; but being

convinced of its errors, embraced Christianity, and became a zealous defender of the faith. He married, it is thought, after his baptism. Afterwards he took orders, and went to Rome; where, during the persecution under the emperor Severus, he published his *Apology for the Christians*; and at the beginning of the third century he embraced the sect of the Montanists. He lived to a very great age, and died in the reign of Caracalla, about the year 216. Many of his works are still extant. The best editions are those of Rigault; especially that of Venice in 1746, folio.

TERVERE, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse, and ci-devant province of Zealand, on the NE. coast of the isle of Walcheren, with a good harbour and arsenal; 4 miles NE. of Middleburg. Lon. 3. 40. E. Lat. 51. 36. N.

TERUNCIOUS, in antiquity, a very small brass coin, in use among the Romans. The inconvenience of such very small pieces being soon found, the *teruncius* became disused, but its name was still retained in reckoning, and thus it became a money of account. The *teruncius* at first was a quarter of the *as* or *libra*: hence, as the *as* contained 12 ounces, the *teruncius* contained three, whence the name, which is formed of the Latin *tres unciæ*. *Teruncius* was also used for the quarter of the *denarius*; so that when the *denarius* was at ten *asses*, the *teruncius* was worth two and a half; and when the *denarius* was risen to 16, the *teruncius* was worth four. See *DENARIUS*.

TESCHEN, a town of Germany, in Upper Silesia, and capital of a duchy so named, belonging to the house of Austria. It was taken by the Prussians in 1757, but restored to Austria at the peace. The people have a good trade in woollen stuffs, leather, wines, &c. It is famed as the scene of a treaty between Joseph II. and Frederick II. of Prussia, in 1779. It is 27 miles SE. of Troppaw, and 66 SW. of Cracow. Lon. 18. 17. E. Lat. 49. 52. N.

TESCHEREMISSES, a nation of Tartars. See *TARTARY, § 1.*

TESCHNA, a town of Bohemia, in Chrudim, 5 miles from Politzko.

TESE, or **TEST**, a river of England, in Hampshire, which runs into the Southampton below Rumsley.

TESEGDELT, a town of Morocco, near the source of the Techubit, seated on and surrounded by a craggy rock, and hence supposed to be impregnable; 60 miles WNW. of Morocco.

TESENI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 34 miles SE. of Dognizlu.

TESEREN, a town of Africa, in Tafilet, 50 miles NNW. of Tafilet.

(1.) **TESINO**, or **TESSINO**, a river of Italy, which rises in Mount St Gothard, and running through lake Maggiore, falls into the Po at Pavia.

(2.) **TESINO**, a town of Germany, in Tyrol; 24 miles NE. of Trent, and 29 SE. of Bozano.

TESKOWA, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the palatinate of Volhynia; now annexed to Russia.

TESSE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Sarthe; 15 miles SW. of Mans.

(1.) * **TESSELLA**. *FD. adj.* [*teffela*, Latin.] Variegated

Vaiegated by squares.—Van Helmont produced a stone very different from the *teffellated* pyrites. Woodward.

(2.) TESSELLATED PAVEMENTS, those of rich Mosaic work made of curious square marbles, bricks, or tiles, called *teffela* from their resembling dice.

TESSERA, in Roman antiquity, denoted in its primary sense a cube or dye: so called from the Greek word *τεσσαρα* or *τεσσαρις*, four; respect being had to its number of sides, distinct from the two horizontal planes above and below. And it was thus distinguished from the TALUS, which being round at each end, contained only four planes or faces on which it could stand; and therefore when thrown had no more than two side faces in view. Hence *ludere talis et ludere tessera* are spoken of by Roman writers as two different games. The syllable TES occurs often in Roman inscriptions. The word *tessera* was applied to many other things, not so much from a similitude in the figure, as from the relation they bore to some other thing of which they were the sign or token; as the points on the upper plane of the dye denoted the good or ill success of the cast.

1. TESSERA FRUMENTARIA, was a small tally given by the emperors to the populace at Rome, entitling them to the reception of a quantity of corn from the public at stated seasons. The person who had the inspection of these was called TESSERARIUS. They were made of wood and of stone. There was another kind of tessera which entitled persons to a sight of the public games and other diversions, usually made in the form of an oblong square.

2. TESSERA HOSPITALIS was either public or private. As to the former, we find among the inscriptions published by Gruter, instances of two municipal towns which put themselves under the patronage of the Roman governor; and the reciprocal engagement between them, engraved on two copperplates, in the form of an oblong square, with a pediment at the top, is called in both *tessera hospitalis*. The design of it was to cultivate or maintain a lasting friendship between private persons and their families; and gave a mutual claim to the contracting parties and their descendants of a reception and kind treatment at each other's houses, as occasion offered. For which end those tesserae were so contrived as best to preserve the memory of that transaction to posterity; and one method of doing this was by dividing one of them lengthwise into two equal parts; upon each of which one of the parties wrote his name, and interchanged it with the other. From this custom came the prevailing expression *tesseram hospitalem infringere*, applied to persons who violated their engagements.

3. TESSERA MILITARIS was a signal given by the general, or chief commander of an army, as a direction to the soldiers for executing any duty or service required of them. This, upon urgent occasions, was only vocal; but, in ordinary cases, it was written on a tablet, commonly made of wood. Besides these civil and military tesserae, there are others which relate to religious affairs, and may be called *sacred*.

TESSON, or TESTON. See TESTER,

TESSOUWA, a considerable town in Africa, situated E. of Mowczouk, the capital of the kingdom of Fezzan. Near this town a deep and rapid stream is said to have existed, but was overwhelmed by the moving sands so frequent in Africa.

TESSY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel, 9 miles S. of St Lo, and 20 NE. of Arranches.

(1.) * TEST. *n. f.* [*test*, Fr. *testa*, Italian.] 1. The cupel by which miners try their metals. 2. Trial; examination; as by the cupel.—

All thy vexations

Were but mere trials of thy love, and thou

Hast strangely flood the *test*. Shak.

Let there be some more *test* made of my metal. Shak.

—They who thought worst of the Scots, did not think there would be no fruit or discovery from that *test*. *Clarendon*.—

What use of oaths, of promise, or of *test*.

Where men regard no God but interest? *Waller*.

Thy virtue, prince, has flood the *test* of fortune. Addison.

3. Means of trial.—

Whom should my muse then fly to, but the best

Of kings for grace; of poets for my *test*. *B. Jon.*

To be read herself the need not fear;

Each *test*, and every light, her muse will bear. Dryden.

Your noble race

We banish not, but they forsake the place:

Our doors are open: True, but ere they come,

You toss your censuring *test*, and fume the room. Dryden.

4. That with which any thing is compared in order to prove its genuineness.—

One clear, unchang'd and universal light;

Life, force, and beauty, must to all impart.

At once the source, and end, and *test* of art. *Pope.*

5. Discriminative characteristic.—

Our *test* excludes your tribe from benefit.

Dryden.

6. Judgment; distinction.—

Who would excel, when few can make a *test*,
Betwixt indiff'rent writing and the best? *Dryd.*

(2.) The TEST is a vessel used in metallurgy for absorbing the scoria of metallic bodies when melted. See CUPEL. Some of the German writers recommended, both for tests and cupels, a sort of friable opake stone, called *white spath*, which appears to be a species of gypsum, or of the stones from which plaster of Paris is prepared. The spath is directed to be calcined with a gentle fire, in a covered vessel, till the slight crackling which happens at first has ceased, and the stone has fallen in part into powder: the whole is then reduced into subtle powder, which is passed through a fine sieve, and moistened with so much of a weak solution of green vitriol as is sufficient for making it hold together. Geilert, however, finds, that if the stone is of the proper kind, which can be known only by trials, calcination is not necessary. Scheffer observes, that these kinds of tests are liable to soften or fall asunder in the fire, and that this inconvenience may be remedied by the mixing with the uncalcined stone some-
what

what less than equal its weight, as eight-ninths of such as has been already used and is penetrated by the scoria of the lead, taking only that part of the old test which appears of a green grey colour, and rejecting the red crust on the top. Tests or cupels made of the spath are said not to require so much caution in heating and heating them as the common ones; it appears, however, from Scheffer's account, that they are less durable than those made of the ashes of bones, though greatly superior to those of wood-ashes. Vegetable ashes, which stand pretty well the testing of silver, can scarcely bear any great quantity of gold, this metal requiring a considerably stronger fire than the other; but bone-ashes answer so effectually, and are among us so easily procurable, that it is not needful for the refiner to search for any other materials; though those who work off large quantities of lead, in order to gain a little silver or gold contained in it, may possibly, in places remote from populous cities, avail themselves of substances similar to the spath above mentioned. The test, for its greater security, is fixed in the mould in which it was formed; which is sometimes a shallow vessel made of crucible earth or cast-iron, more commonly an iron-hoop, with three bars arched downwards across the bottom, about two inches deep, and of different widths, from three or four inches to fifteen or more, according to the quantity of metal to be tested at once. The ashes or earthy powder, moistened as for making cupels, are pressed down in the mould so as to completely fill it or rise a little above the sides; with care to make the mass equally solid, and to put in at once, or at least after the bottom has been pressed close, as much of the matter as will be sufficient for the whole; for any additional quantity will not unite thoroughly with the test, but be apt to part from it in the fire. The edges are pared smooth, and a portion cut out from the middle with a bent knife, so as to leave a proper cavity, which is smoothed by strewing some dry powder on the surface, and rolling on it a wooden, or rather a glass ball. The process of testing is often performed in the same manner as that of cupellation; but where great quantities of base metal are to be worked off from a little gold, recourse is had to a more expeditious method, that of testing before the bellows. An oval test is placed in a cavity, made in a hearth of a convenient height, and some moistened sand or ashes pressed round it to keep it steady: the nose of a bellows is directed along its surface, in such a manner, that if ashes are sprinkled in the cavity of the test, the bellows may blow them completely out; some have an iron plate fixed before the bellows, to direct the blast downwards. To keep the surface of the test from being injured in putting in the metal, some cloths or pieces of paper are interposed. The fuel consists of billets of barked oak laid on the sides of the test, with others laid crosswise on these; the bellows impel the flame on the metal, clear the surface of ashes or sparks of coal, hasten the scorification of the lead, and blow off the scoria, as fast as it forms, to one end of the test, where it runs out through a notch made for that purpose. About two thirds of the scorified lead may be thus collected; the

rest being partly absorbed by the test, and partly dissipated by the action of the bellows. Care must be taken not to urge the blast too strongly, lest some portion of the gold should be carried away by the fumes impetuously forced off from the lead, and some minute particles of it entangled and blown off with the scoria.

(3.) TEST ACT, in law, in the statute 25 Car. II. cap. 2. which directs all officers, civil and military, to take the oaths, and make the declaration against transubstantiation, in the court of King's Bench or Chancery, the next term, or at the next quarter-sessions, or (by subsequent statutes) within six months after their admission; and also within the same time to receive the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, according to the usage of the church of England, in some public church, immediately after divine service or sermon, and to deliver into court a certificate thereof, signed by the minister and church-warden, and also to prove the same by two credible witnesses, upon forfeiture of 500*l.* and disability to hold the said office. See ENGLAND, § 328.

(4.) TEST FOR ACIDS AND ALKALIES. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(5.) TEST LIQUORS FOR WINES. See LEAD and ARSENIC.

TESTACEA, in the Linnæan system of zoology, the 3d order of vermes. This order comprehends all the shell-fish arranged by Linnæus under 36 genera. Shell-fish are animals with a soft body, covered by or inclosed in a firm, hard, and as it were stony habitation, composed, according to their three separate orders, 1st, Of many parts which are arranged under the name of *multivalve*; 2d, Of two parts which are called *bivalves*; 3d, Of one part or piece only, which we call *univalves*. Those parts, pieces, or valves, are more or less moveable at the animal's pleasure. See SHELLS.

(1.) * TESTACEOUS. *adj.* [*testaceus*, Lat. *testace*, Fr.] 1. Consisting of shells; composed of shells. 2. Having continuous, not jointed shells; opposed to *crustaceous*.—*Testaceous*, with naturalists, is a term only given to such fish whose strong and thick shells are entire, and of a piece; because those which are jointed, as the lobsters, are *crustaceous*; but in medicine all preparations of shells, and substances of the like kind, are thus called. *Quincy*.—Several shells were found upon the shores, of the *crustaceous* and *testaceous* kind. *Woodward*.—The mineral particles in these shells is plainly to be distinguished from the *testaceous* ones. *Woodward*.

(2.) TESTACEOUS, in zoology, is synonymous with TESTACEA.

(3.) TESTACEOUS, in medicine, all preparations of shells, and such like substances, are called *testaceous*. Such are powders of crabs claws and eyes, pearl, &c. Dr Quincy and others suppose the virtue of all testaceous medicines to be alike; that they seldom or never enter the lacteals, but that the chief of their action is in the first passages; in which, however, they are of great use in absorbing acidities. Hence they become of use in fevers, and especially in rectifying the many distempers in children, which generally owe their origin to such acidities.

(1.) * TES-

(1.) • **TESTAMENT.** *n. f.* [testament, Fr. *testamentum*, Lat.] 1. A will; any writing directing the disposal of the possessions of a man deceased. — These, or the like proofs, will convict a *testament* to have that in it which other men can no where by reading find.—

All the temporal lands, which men devout

By *testament* have given to the church,

Would they strip from us.

Shak.

— He ordain'd by his last *testament*, that his *Æneids* should be burnt. *Dryden.* 2. The name of each of the volumes of the holy scripture.

(2.) **TESTAMENT, OR LAST WILL,** according to the old Roman lawyers is, *voluntatis nostræ iusta sententia, de eo quod quis post mortem suam fieri velit*: which may be thus rendered in English, “the legal declaration of a man’s intentions, which he wills to be performed after his death.” It is called *sententia*, to denote the circumspection and prudence with which it is supposed to be made; it is *voluntatis nostræ sententia*, because its efficacy depends on its declaring the testator’s intention, whence in English it is emphatically styled his *will*; it is *iusta sententia*; that is, drawn, attested and published, with all due solemnities and forms of law; it is *de eo quod quis post mortem suam fieri velit*, because a testament is of no force till after the death of the testator. These testaments are divided into two sorts; written, and verbal or nuncupative, being declared by the testator in *extremis*, before a sufficient number of witnesses, and afterwards reduced to writing. But as nuncupative wills and codicils (which were formerly more in use than at present when the art of writing is become more general) are liable to great impositions, and may occasion many perjuries, the statute of frauds, 29 Car. II. c. 3. enacts, 1. That no written will shall be revoked or altered by a subsequent nuncupative one, except the same be in the lifetime of the testator reduced to writing, and read over to him, and approved; and unless the same be proved to have been so done by the oaths of three witnesses at the least, who, by statute 4 & 5 Anne, c. 16. must be such as are admissible upon trials at common law. 2. That no nuncupative will shall in anywise be good, where the estate bequeathed exceeds 30l. unless proved by three such witnesses, present at the making thereof (the Roman law requiring seven), and unless they, or some of them, were specially required to bear witness thereto by the testator himself; and unless it was made in his last sickness, in his own habitation or dwelling-house, or where he had been previously resident ten days at the least, except he be surprised with sickness on a journey, or from home, and dies without returning to his dwelling. 3. That no nuncupative shall be proved by the witnesses after six months from the making, unless it were put in writing within six days. Nor shall it be proved till fourteen days after the death of the testator, nor till process hath first issued to call in the widow, or next of kin, to contest it if they think proper. As to written wills, they need not any witness of their publication. We speak not here of devises of lands, which are entirely another thing, a conveyance by statute, unknown to the feudal or common law, and not under the same jurisdic-

tion as personal estates. But a testament of chattels, written in the testator’s own hand, though it has neither his name nor seal to it, nor witnesses present at its publication, is good; provided sufficient proof can be had that it is his hand-writing; and though written in another man’s hand, and never signed by the testator, yet if proved to be according to his instructions, and approved by him, it hath been held a good testament of the personal estate. No testament is of any effect till after the death of the testator; *Nam Omne testamentum morte consummatum est, et voluntas testatoris est ambulatoria usque ad mortem.* And therefore, if there be many testaments, the last will overthrows all the former; but the republication of a former will revokes one of a later date and establishes the first again. Regularly, every person hath full power and liberty to make a will that is not under some special prohibition by law or custom; which prohibitions are principally upon three accounts; for want of sufficient discretion; for want of sufficient liberty and free-will; and on account of criminal conduct. 1. In the first species are to be reckoned infants, under the age of 14 if males, and 12 if females; which is the rule of the civil law. Madmen, or otherwise *non compos*, idiots or natural fools, persons grown childish by reason of old age or disemper, such as have their senses befogged with drunkenness. 2. Such persons as are intestate for want of liberty or freedom of will, by the civil law, are of various kinds; as prisoners, captives, and the like. But the law of England does not make such persons absolutely intestate; but only leaves it to the discretion of the court to judge upon the consideration of their particular circumstances of duress, whether or no such persons could be supposed to have *liberum animum testandi*. A married woman is not only utterly incapable of devising lands, being excepted out of the statute of wills, 34 & 35 Hen. VIII. c. 5. but also she is incapable of making a testament of chattels, without the licence of her husband. The queen-sort is an exception to this general rule, for she may dispose of her chattels by will, without the consent of her lord; and any feme-covert may make her will of goods which are in her possession *in avoer droit*, as executrix or administratrix; for these can never be the property of her husband; and if she has any pin-money, or separate maintenance, it is said she may dispose of her savings thereout by testament, without the controul of her husband. But if a feme sole make her will, and afterwards marries, such subsequent marriage is esteemed a revocation in law, and entirely vacates the will. 3. Persons incapable of making testaments on account of their criminal conduct, are, in the first place, all traitors and felons, from the first of conviction; for then their goods and chattels are no longer at their own disposal, but forfeited to the king. Neither can a *fel de se* make a will of goods and chattels, for they are forfeited by the act and manner of his death; but he may make a devise of his lands, for they are not subject to any forfeiture. Outlaws also, though it be but for debt, are incapable of making a will so long as the outlawry subsists, for their goods and chattels are forfeited during that time.

time. As for persons guilty of other crimes, short of felony, who are by the civil law precluded from making testaments (as usurers, libellers, and others, of a worse stamp), at the common law their testaments may be good. And, in general, the rule is, and has been so at least ever since Glanvil's time, *quod libera sit cujusque ultima voluntas*. Testaments may be avoided three ways: 1. If made by a person labouring under any of the incapacities before-mentioned; 2. By making another testament of a later date; and, 3. By cancelling or revoking it. For though I make a last will and testament irrevocable in the strongest words, yet I am at liberty to revoke it.

(3.) TESTAMENT, in Scots law. See LAW, Part III. Chap. II. Sect. XXI. § 7.

(4, 5.) TESTAMENT, OLD and NEW. See BIBLE and SCRIPTURE.

* TESTAMENTARY. *adj.* [*testamentaire*, Fr. *testamentarius*, Lat.] Given by will; contained in wills.—How many testamentary charities have been defeated by the negligence or fraud of executors? *Atterbury*.

* TESTATE. *adj.* [*testatus*, Latin.] Having made a will.—By the canon law, the bishop had the lawful distribution of the goods of persons dying testate and intestate. *Ayliffe*.

* TESTATOR. *n. s.* [*testator*, Lat. *testateur*, Fr.] One who leaves a will.—He bringeth arguments from the love or good will which always the testator bore him. *Hooker*.—The fame is the case of a testator giving a legacy by kindness. *Tayl*.

* TESTATRIX. *n. s.* [Latin.] A woman who leaves a will.

* TESTED, *adj.* [from *test*.] Tried by a test.—Not with fond cheeks of the tested gold. *Shak*.

(1.) * TESTER. *n. s.* [*teste*, Fr. a head: this coin probably being distinguished by the head stamped upon it.] 1. A sixpence.—Come manage me your caliver: hold, there is a tester for thee. *Shak*.—A crown goes for sixty pence, a shilling for twelve pence, and a tester for sixpence. *Locke*.

Those who bore bulwarks on their backs,
And guarded nations from attacks,
Now practice every pliant gesture,
Op'ning their trunk for every tester. *Swift*.
Plums and directors, Shylock and his wife,
Will club their testers now to take thy life. *Pope*.
1. The cover of a bed.

(2.) TESTER, TESTON, the name of a coin struck in France by Lewis XII. in 1513, and in Scotland in the time of Francis II. and Mary queen of Scotland, so called from the head of the king, which was engraved upon it. The silver it contained was 11 deniers 18 grains, its weight 7 deniers 13½ grains, and its value 10 sols. The coinage of it was prohibited by Henry III. in 1575, when the value of it was augmented to 14 sols six deniers. The teston or tester among us was rated at 12d in the reign of Henry VIII. and afterwards reduced to 6d.

TESTES, in anatomy, the testicles. See TESTICLE, and ANATOMY, Index.

(1.) * TESTICLE. *n. s.* [*testiculus*, Lat.] Stone.—That a beaver, to escape the hunter, bites off his testicles or stones, is a tenet very ancient. *Bro*.—The more certain sign from the pains reaching to the groins and testicles. *Wiseman*.

(2.) The TESTICLE (*testis*) is a double part in animals of the male kind, serving for the office of generation. See ANATOMY, Index. They are called testicles, by diminution of *testes*, witnesses; as giving testimony of virility. The Greeks call them *didymi*, or twins. In man and most animals, the testicles are exterior; in some, as fowls, interior. Some men have only one, ordinarily they have two; some have naturally had three; nay, anatomists assure us they have known four.

* TESTIFICATION. *n. s.* [*testificatio*, Latin; from *testify*.] The act of witnessing.—When together we have all received those heavenly mysteries wherein Christ imparteth himself unto us, and giveth visible testification of our blessed communion with him, we should declare ourselves openly united. *Hooker*.—In places solemnly dedicated for that purpose, is a more direct service and testification of our homage to God. *Saunders*.

* TESTIFICATOR. *n. s.* [from *testifico*, Lat.] One who witnesses.

* TESTIFIER. *n. s.* [from *testify*.] One who testifies.

(1.) * To TESTIFY. *v. n.* [*testifico*, Lat.] To witness; to prove; to give evidence.—Jesus needed not that any should testify of man. *John*. ii. 25.—One witness shall not testify against any, to cause him to die. *Numb*. xxxv. 30.—Heaven and earth shall testify for us. *1 Mac*. ii. 47.—

Th' event was dire,
As this place testifies. *Milton*.

—The appeals to their closets, to their books of devotion, to testify what care she has taken to establish her children in a life of solid piety and devotion. *Law*.

(2.) * To TESTIFY. *v. a.* To witness; to give evidence of any point.—We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen. *John*. iii. 12.

* TESTILY. *adv.* [from *testis*.] Fretfully; peevishly; morosely.

* TESTIMONIAL. *n. s.* [*testimonial*, French; *testimonium*, Lat.] A writing produced by any one as an evidence for himself.—Hospitable people entertain all the idle vagrant reports, and send them out with passports and testimonials, and will have them pass for legitimate. *Gow*. of the Tongue.—It is possible to have such testimonials: of divine authority as may be sufficient to convince the more reasonable part of mankind. *Burnet*.—A clerk does not exhibit to the bishop letters missive or testimonial. *Ayliffe*.

(1.) * TESTIMONY. *n. s.* [*testimonium*, Lat.] 1. Evidence given; proof by witness.—The proof of every thing must be by testimony. *Spenser*.—If I bring you sufficient testimony, my 10,000 ducats are mine. *Shak*.—Evidence is said to arise from testimony. *Wilkins*.—I could not answer it to the world, if I give not your lordship my testimony of being the best husband. *Dryden*.—I must bear this testimony to Orway's memory, that the passions are truly touched in his Venice Preserved. *Dryd*. 2. Public evidences.—We maintain the uniform testimony and tradition of the primitive church. *Whit*.—

An ark, and in the ark his testimony. *Milton*.
3. Open attestation; profession.—

Thou for the testimony of truth hast born
Universal reproach. *Milton*.
2.) TES-

(1.) **TESTIMONY.** See **LOGIC**, Part II. *See* §. 1. § II. and **METAPHYSICS**, *See* XXXVIII. § 248.

(3.) **TESTIMONY**, in law. See **EVIDENCE**.

* **To TESTIMONY.** *v. a.* To witness. A word not used.—Let him be but *testimonied* in his own bringings forth. *Shak.*

* **TESTINESS.** *n. s.* [from *testy*.] Moroseness; peevishness.—*Testiness* is a disposition or aptness to be angry. *Locke.*

* **TESTUDINATED.** *adj.* [*testudo*, Latin.] Roofed; arched.

* **TESTUDINEOUS.** *adj.* [*testudo*, Lat.] Resembling the shell of a tortoise.

(I.) **TESTUDO**, the **TORTOISE**, in zoology, a genus belonging to the class of *amphibia*, and order of *reptilia*. The body has a tail, and is defended with a bony or coriaceous covering. The mouth has naked mandibles without teeth. There are 33 species, of which

TESTUDO MIDAS, the common sea turtle, is the most remarkable. It is found in the island of Ascension and other places in the South Sea. The shell is so very strong that it can carry more than 600 lbs. on its back, or as many men as can stand on it loaded. It digs round holes in the sand, in which it lays a vast number of eggs yearly, to the amount of 1000, it is said. It broods on them during the night. Its flesh is of a greenish colour, makes excellent food, and is the favourite dish of sailors as well as of epicures. It lives on cuttle and shell fish, and grows to a prodigious size, some having been found to weigh 480 lbs. The Americans find so good account in catching turtle, that they have made themselves very expert at it; they watch them from their nests on shore, in moon-light nights; and, before they reach the sea, turn them on their backs, and leave them till morning; when they are sure to find them, since they are utterly unable to recover their former posture; at other times they hunt them in boats, with a peculiar kind of spear, striking them with it through the shell; and as there is a cord fastened to the spear, they are taken much in the same manner as the whales.

(II.) **TESTUDO** in antiquity, was particularly used among the poets, &c. for the ancient lyre; because it was originally made by its inventor Mercury, of the back or hollow of the *testudo* aquatica, or sea tortoise, which he accidentally found on the banks of the river Nile. See **LYRE**.

(III.) **TESTUDO**, in the military art of the ancients, was a kind of cover or screen which the soldiers, *e. gr.* a whole company, made themselves of their bucklers, by holding them up over their heads, and standing close to each other.

(IV.) **TESTUDO** was also a kind of large wooden tower which moved on several wheels, and was covered with bullock-hides, serving to shelter the soldiers when they approached the walls to mine them, or batter them with rams. It was called *testudo*, from the strength of its roof, which covered the workmen as the shell does the tortoise.

* **TESTY.** *adj.* [*testis*, Fr. *testurdo*, Ital.] Fretful; peevish; apt to be angry.—

Lead these *testy* rivals to astray. *Shak.*

Must I stand and crouch under your *testy* humour? *Shak.*

King Pyrrhus cur'd his spleenetic,
And *testy* courtiers with a kick. *Hudibras.*

Thou'rt such a touchy, *testy*, pleasing fellow. *Addison.*

TESZERSKEY, a town of Croatia, 6 miles SW. of Novi.

TET, a river of France, which rises in the Pyrenees, above Mont Lewis, and runs into the Mediterranean, 7 miles E. of Perpignan.

TETAHE, a town of the United States, in Georgia; 5 miles W. of Tingeloo.

TETANUS, a dreadful spasmodic disorder, in which the whole body becomes rigid and inflexible. It most commonly proves mortal. See **MEDICINE**, *Index*.

TETBURY, a town of England, in Gloucestershire, with a market on Wednesday. It has a considerable trade in corn, cattle, cheese, and other provisions, yarn, wool, malt, &c. It is 25 miles NE. of Bristol, and 99 W. of London. Lon. 1. 8. W. Lat. 51. 38. N.

TETCHA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Iset, near Dolmat, in Ekaterinenburg.

* **TETCHY.** *adj.* Forward; peevish; a corruption of *testy* or *touchy*.—

Tetchy and wayward was thy infancy. *Shak.*
—That peevish and *tetchy* master. *Granville.*

* **TETE A TETE.** *n. s.* [French.] Cheek by jowl.—

Long before the squire and dame
Are *tête à tête*. *Prior.*

Deluded mortals, whom the great
Chuse for companions *tête à tête*. *Swift.*

TETE DE BUCH, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde, seated on the side of a large bay, 30 miles SW. of Bourdeaux.

TETEROW, a town of Mecklenburg, 18 miles SW. of Gultrow.

TETERSKOI, a town of Russia, in Tunguskoï, on the Podkamenskaia. Lon. 119. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 59. 54. N.

* **TETHER.** *n. s.* [See **TEDDER**.] A string by which horses are held from pasturing too wide.—

Hamlet is young,

And with a larger *tether* he may walk. *Shak.*

Fame and censure with a *tether*,

By fate are always link'd together. *Swift.*

—Where it is confined, we find the shortness of our *tether*. *Swift.*

* **To TETHER.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To tie up.

TETHEROA, or } an island of the S. Pacific
TETHERUA, } Ocean. It lies low, in Lon. 149. 30. W. Lat. 17. 4. S.

(1.) **TETHYS**, in the mythology, the greatest of all the sea goddesses, the daughter of Coelus or Uranus, and Terra, and the wife of Oceanus, and mother of the river gods, the sea nymphs, &c.

(2.) **TETHYS**, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the class of *vermes*, and order of *mollusca*. The body is oblong, fleshy, and without feet; the mouth consists of a cylindrical proboscis under the duplicature of a lip; and there are two foramina at the left side of the neck. The species are two, both inhabitants of the ocean.

TETIN, a town of Bohemia, 3 miles S. of Bezaun.

TETIS,

TETIS, a river of ancient Gaul, running from the Pyrenæes.

TETIUSCHI, a town of Russia, in Kazan, on the Volga, 52 miles S. of Kazan.

TETRACERA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polyandria*, and order of *tetragynia*, and in the natural system ranging under the doubtful. The calyx is hexaphyllous, and the capsules four. There is only one species, viz.

TETRACERA VOLUBILIS.

TETRADYNAMIA, (*τετραδυναμία*, four, and *δυναμία*, power,) four powers; the 15th class of Linnæus's Sexual System, consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flower, having six stamina, four of which are long, and two short; it corresponds to the *filigulose* of Ray, and *cruciformes* of Tournefort. All the species are distinguished by cruciform flowers. It comprehends two orders, *gynmospemia*, those plants which have naked seeds, being four in number; (except *phylla* which is monospermous;) and *angiospermia*, which contains those plants the seeds of which are inclosed in a capsule. See **BOTANY, Index**.

TETRAEDRON, or **TETRAHEDRON**, in geometry, is one of the five Platonic or regular bodies or solids, comprehended under four equilateral and equal triangles. Or, it is a triangular pyramid of four equal and equilateral faces.

(1.) **TETRAGON**, in astrology, denotes an aspect of two planets with regard to the earth, when they are distant from each other a fourth part of a circle, or 90°. The tetragon is expressed by the character $\square$, and is otherwise called a square or quartile aspect.

(2.) **TETRAGON**, in geometry, a quadrangle, or a figure having four angles. Such as a square, a parallelogram, a rhombus, and a trapezium. It sometimes also means peculiarly a square.

* **TETRAGONAL**, *adj.* [*τετραγωνος*.] Four square.—From the beginning of the disease, to the 7th day, the moon will be in a *tetragonal* or quadrilateral aspect, that is, four signs removed from that wherein the disease began; in the 14th day it will be an opposite aspect, and at the end of the third septenary *tetragonal* again. *Brown*.

TETRAGONIA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *icosandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 13th order, *succulente*. The calyx is divided into 3, 4, or 5 parts. There is no corolla; the drupæ are beneath, and the nut three or eight-celled. There are 7 species; the puticosa, decumbens, herbacea, echinata, expansa, crystallina, and japonica.

TETRAGRAMMATON, (*τετραγρμματον*, a denomination given by the Greeks to the Hebrew name of God יהוה , *Yehova*, because in the Hebrew it consists of four letters.

TETRAGYNIA, (*τετραγυνία*, four, and *γυνή*, a woman,) the name of an order in the 4th, 5th, 6th, 8th, and 13th classes in the Sexual System; consisting of plants which, to the classic character, whatever it is, add the circumstance of having 4 styles or female organs. Herb paris and grals of Parnassus furnish examples. See **BOTANY, Index**.

TETRANDRIA, (*τετραδρία*, four, and *ανδρ*, a man or husband,) the name of the fourth class in

Linnæus's Sexual System, consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flowers, which have four stamina or male organs that are of equal length. In this last circumstance consists the main difference according to Linnæus, between the plants of the class in question and those of the 14th class *didynamia*, in which the four stamina are of unequal length, two of them being long, and two short.—The orders of this numerous class are three, founded upon the number of styles or female organs. Scabious, tealzel, barren-wort, the stary plants of Ray, and the greater number of genera in this class, have one style; dodder and hyssopus have two; holly and a few others have four.

TETRAO, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *galline*, and thus characterized by Linnæus: There is a spot near the eyes naked or papillose, or covered, though more rarely with feathers. Gmelin has enumerated about 66 species. The genus *tetrao* comprehended both the grouse partridge, and quail; but Dr Latham, with great judgment and propriety has made two genera of them, under the names of *tetrao*, comprehending the grouse; and *perdix*, comprehending the partridge and quail. See **PERDIX**. Dr Latham thus distinguishes the genus *tetrao*: The bill is like a crooked cone, with a naked scarlet skin above each eye, and the feet feathered to the toes. He reckons 20 species. The 4 following are found in Britain:

1. **TETRAO LAGOPUS**, the *white game*, or **PTARMIGAN**, is 15 inches in length, and weighs 19 ounces. Its plumage is of a pale brown or ash colour, elegantly crossed or mottled with small dusky spots and minute bars; the head and neck with broad bars of black, rust colour, and white; the belly and wings are white, but the shafts of the greater quill feathers black. In the male, the grey colour predominates, except on the head and neck, where there is a great mixture of red, with bars of white. The females and young birds have a great deal of rust colour in them. The tail consists of 16 feathers; the two middle of which are ash coloured, mottled with black, and tipped with white; the two next black, slightly marked with white at their ends, the rest wholly black; the feathers incumbent on the tail are white, and almost entirely cover it. Ptarmigans are found in these kingdoms only on the summits of the highest hills of the Highlands of Scotland, of the Hebrides, and Orkneys; and a few still inhabit the lofty hills near Keelwick in Cumberland, as well as the mountains of Wales. They live amidst the rocks, perching on the grey stones, the general colour of the strata in those exalted situations. They are very silly birds; so tame as to bear driving like poultry; and, if provoked to rise, take very short flights, making a great circuit like pigeons. Like the grouse, they keep in small packs; but never, like those birds, take shelter in the heath, but beneath loose stones. To the taste they scarce differ from a grouse. These birds are called by Pliny *lagopi*, their feet being clothed with feathers to the claws, as the hare's are with fur: the nails are long, broad, and hollow. The first circumstance guards them from the rigour of the winter; the latter enables them to form a lodge.

H h

lodge

lodge among the snow, where they lie in heaps to protect themselves from the cold. The feet of the grouse are clothed in the same manner; but those of the two last species here described, which perch upon trees, are naked, the legs only being feathered, not being in want of such a protection.

2. **TETRAO SCOTICUS**, the **RED GAME**, or **MOOR-HOWL**, is peculiar to the British islands. The male weighs about 19 ounces; and is in length 15½ inches. The bill is black; the irides hazel coloured. The throat is red. The plumage on the head and neck is of a light tawny red; each feather is marked with several transverse bars of black. The back and scapular feathers are of a deeper red; and on the middle of each feather is a large black spot; the breast and belly are of a dull purplish brown, crossed with numerous narrow dusky lines; the quill feathers are dusky; the tail consists of 16 feathers of an equal length, all of them (except the four middlemost) are black, and the middle feathers are barred with red; the thighs are of a pale red, barred obscurely with black; the legs and feet clothed to the very claws with thick soft white feathers. The claws are whitish, very broad and strong. The female weighs only 15 ounces.—The colours in general are duller than those of the male; the breast and belly are spotted with white; and the tips of some of the coverts of the wings are of the same colour. These birds pair in the spring, and lay from six to ten eggs. The young brood follow the hen the whole summer; in the winter they join in flocks of 40 or 50, and become remarkably shy and wild; they always keep on the tops of the hills, are scarce ever found on the sides, and never descend into the valleys. Their food is the mountain berries and the tops of the heaths. See **SHOOTING**, § 4.

3. **TETRAO TETRIX**, *black grouse*, or **BLACK COCK**, like the woodcock, (Nº 4.) is fond of woody and mountainous situations; feeding on bilberries and other mountain fruits, and in the winter on the tops of the heath. In the summer they frequently descend from the hills to feed on corn. They never pair: but in the spring the male gets upon some eminence, crows and claps his wings; on which signal all the females within hearing resort to him. The hen lays seldom above 6 or 7 eggs. When the female is obliged, during the time of incubation, to leave her eggs in quest of food, she covers them up so artfully with moss or dry leaves, that it is very difficult to discover them. On this occasion she is extremely tame and tranquil, however wild and timorous at other times. She often keeps to her nest, though strangers attempt to drag her away. As soon as the young ones are hatched, they are seen running with extreme agility after the mother, though sometimes they are not entirely disengaged from the shell. The hen leads them forwards for the first time into the woods, to show them ant's eggs and the wild mountain-berries, which, while young, are their only food. As they grow older their appetites grow stronger, and they then feed upon the tops of the heather and the cones of the pine tree. In this manner they soon come to perfection. An old black cock is in length 22 inches, and weighs near four pounds. The bill is dusky;

and the plumage of the whole body black, glossed over the neck and rump with a shining blue. The coverts of the wings are of a dusky brown; the inner coverts white; the thighs and legs are covered with dark brown feathers; the toes resemble those of the former species. The tail consists of 16 black feathers, and is much forked; the exterior feathers bend greatly outwards, and their ends seem as if cut off. The female weighs only two pounds; and its length is one foot six inches. The head and neck are marked with alternate bars of dull red and black; the breast with dusky black and white, but the last predominates. The back, coverts of the wings, and tail, are of the same colour as the neck, but the red is deeper. The tail is slightly forked; it consists of 18 feathers variegated with red and black. The feathers under the tail are white, marked with a few bars of black and orange. This bird hatches its young late in the summer. It lays from six to eight eggs, of a dull yellowish white colour, marked with numbers of very small ferruginous specks; and towards the smaller end with some blotches of the same hue.

4. **TETRAO UROGALLUS**, the **WOOD COCK**, inhabits woody and mountainous countries; in particular, forests of pines, birch trees and junipers; feeding on the tops of the former and berries of the latter; the first often infects the flesh with such a taste as to render it scarcely eatable. In the spring, it calls the females to its haunts with a loud and shrill voice; and is at that time so very inattentive to its safety as to be very easily shot. It stands perched on a tree, and defends to the females on their first appearance. They lay from 8 to 16 eggs; 8 at the first and more as they advance in age. These birds are common in Scandinavia, Germany, France, and several parts of the Alps. They are found in no other part of Great Britain but the Highlands of Scotland, and are very rare even in those parts. They are there called *capercalzie*, *ouer-calzie*, and in the old law-books *capercally*; the last signifying the horse of the woods; this species being, in comparison of others of the genus, pre-eminently large. The length of the male is 2 feet 9 inches; its weight sometimes 14 lb. The female is much less, the length being only 26 inches. The sexes differ also greatly in colours. The bill of the male is of a pale yellow; the head, neck, and back, are elegantly marked with slender lines of grey and black running transversely. The upper part of the breast is of a rich glossy green; the rest of the breast and the belly black, mixed with some white feathers; the sides are marked like the neck; the coverts of the wings crossed with unulated lines of black and reddish brown; the exterior webs of the greater quill feathers are black; the tail consists of 18 feathers, the middle of which is the longest; these are black, marked on each side with a few white spots. The legs are very strong, and covered with brown feathers; the edges of the toes are pectinated.—Of the female the bill is dusky; the throat red, the head, neck, and back, are marked with transverse bars of red and black, the breast has some white spots on it, and the lower part is of a plain orange colour, the belly is barred with pale orange and black, the tips of the feathers

feathers are white. The tail is of a deep rust-colour, barred with black, tipped with white, and consists of 16 feathers. See SHOOTING, § 4.

* **TETRAPETALOUS.** *adj.* [*tetrapet-* and *-alos*.] Such flowers as consist of four leaves round the style; plants having a *tetrapetalous* flower constitute a distinct kind. *Miller*.—All the *tetrapetalous* filicose plants are alkalescent. *Arbutnol*.

TETRAPODOLOGY, *n. s.* [*tetrapod-*, and *-logy*.] that branch of zoology, which treats of quadrupeds, in the Linnean system called **MAMMALIA**.

TETRAPOLIS, an ancient name of Antioch in Syria, because it contained 4 cities.

(1.) * **TETRARCH.** *n. s.* [*tetrarcha*, Latin, *tetrarchus*, Fr. *tétrarche*.] A Roman governor of the fourth part of a province.—

Her kings and *tetrarchs*, are their tributaries.

Ben Jonson.

(2.) A **TETRARCH** is a prince who holds and governs a 4th part of a kingdom. Such originally was the import of the title *tetrarch*; but it was afterwards applied to any petty king or sovereign; and became synonymous with *ethnarch*.

* **TETRARCHATE.** *n. s.* [*tetrarchia*.] A Roman government of a fourth part of a province.

* **TETRASTICK.** *n. s.* [*tetrastichus*.] An epigram or stanza of four verses.—The *tetrastich* obliged Spenser to extend his fence to the length of four lines. *Pope*.

TETRASTYLE, in the ancient architecture, a building, and particularly a temple, with 4 columns in its front.

* **TETRICAL.** *adj.* [*tetricus*, Lat. *tetricus*.] * **TETRICOUS.** *adj.* Flowery; perverse; four.—In this the *tetrical* bailla finding him to excel, gave him as a rare gift to Solymán. *Kneller*.

TETRODON, in ichthyology; a genus of fishes arranged by Linnaeus under the class of *amphibia*, and order of *nantes*; but placed by Gmelin under the class of *pices*, and order of *branchiostegi*. The jaws are bony, stretched out, and closen at the point; the aperture of the gills is linear; the body is mureicated beneath, and there are no ventral fins. There are 13 species; of which the most remarkable is

TETRODON LINEATUS, called by Mr Hasselquist *sabaka*, which is the Egyptian and Arabic name. It has of late been found in the Nile about Cairo, but was never known in former times. It is said to grow to a prodigious size. When just caught, it prickles the skin if it is taken in the bare hands, and produces small pustules in the same manner as nettles. The fish is poisonous. Mr Forster confirms the account of the poisonous nature of a species of *tetrodon*, in his account of New Caledonia.

* **TETTER.** *n. s.* [*tetter*, Saxon.] A scab; a scurf; a ringworm.—

A most infant *tetter* bark'd about. *Shak.*

A scabby *tetter* on their pelts will stick. *Dryd.*

TETUAN, an ancient and present town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fez, and in the province of Habata. It is pretty well built, and the inhabitants are about 15,000 in number. Lon. 5. 25. W. Lat. 35. 27. N.

(1.) **TEUCER**, the son of Scamander by Ida the founder and first king of Phrygia, from whom

his subjects were called **TEUCRI**. **DARDANUS** married his daughter *Batea*, and succeeded him. *Verg. Æn. iii. 108*.

(2.) **TEUCER**, a son of **TELAMON** and brother of *Ajex*. He built a town in the isle of Cyprus, which he called **SALAMIS** from his birth-place.

TEUCRI, a name given the Trojans from **TEUCER** their first king.

TEUCRIUM, GERMANDER, in botany: A genus of plants belonging to the class of *dilignamia*, and order of *gymnospermia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 42d order, *Ferticillata*. The corolla has no upper lip, is divided into two parts beyond the base, and is divaricated where the stamina issue out. There are 30 species; of which 3 are natives of Great Britain; viz.

1. **TEUCRIUM CHAMÆDRYS**, the smaller creeping germander, hath fibrous, very creeping, spreading roots; many four-cornered, very branchy, trailing stalks, near a foot long; oval, cuneiform, cut, crenated leaves on short footstalks; and reddish flowers, growing almost in a verticillus, or whorls, round the stalk, three on each peduncle; appearing in June and July.

(2.) **TEUCRIUM SCOCCODONIA**, wood sage, or germander, is distinguished by leaves which are heart-shaped, serrated, and petiolated; by racemes, which are lateral and ranged in one row; and by an erect stem. The flowers are straw-coloured, and the filaments red. The plant has a bitter taste, and smells like hops with a little mixture of garlic. It is used in brewing in the isle of Jersey instead of hops.

3. **TEUCRIUM SCORDIUM**, the common water germander, hath creeping perennial roots, sending up many square, procumbent, or trailing stalks, branching diffusely; oblong, indented, serrated, close-fitting, opposite leaves; and small reddish flowers, generally two together, from the sides of the stalks and branches, in July and August. This plant was formerly considered as medicinal, but has now fallen into disuse. It grows naturally in marshy places, in the isle of Ely and other parts of England, and most parts of Europe; and is sometimes admitted into gardens, in moist places, for variety, and as a medicinal plant.

TEVERONE, a river of Italy, which rises in the Apennines, 50 miles above Tivoli, and falls at last into the **TIBER**.

TEVIOT, or **TIVIOR**, a river of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, which rises on the English border in the SW. of Roxburghshire, runs nearly NE. through that county, where it is joined by the **SLITTRICK** at Hawick, the **ROLE** at Cavers, the **JED** at Jedburgh, and the **OXNAM** near Crailing; it falls into the **TYNE** at Kelso.

TEVIOTDALE, a district of Roxburghshire, which gives name to the county. See **ROXBURGH**, N° 4.

TEURART, an ancient town of Africa, in Fez; seated on a mountain, near the river **Za**; it was anciently a very important city.

TEUTHIS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of *abdominales*. The head is somewhat truncated on the fore part; the branchial membrane has five rays; the teeth equal, rigid near each other, forming a regular series. There are two species, viz.

1. **Teu.**

2. **Teu.**

1. TEUTHIS HEPATUS, and

2. TEUTHIS JAVA.

TEUTHIRAS, king of Mysia. See TELEPHUS.

TEUTOBOCHUS, a gigantic king of the TEUTONES. See GIANT, § 3, and next article.

TEUTONES or) an ancient people, always

TEUTONI, } by historians joined with the CIMBRI; both seated, according to Mela, beyond the Elbe, on the Sinus Codanus, or Baltic; and there, it is supposed, lay the country of the Teutones, now *Ditmarsh*; diversity of dialects producing the different terms *Test*, *Tut*, *Dit*, *Tid*, and *Thod*, which in the ancient German language signified *people*. Of these Teutones, Virgil is to be understood in the epithet *Teutoniceus*, an appellation which more lately came to be applied to the Germans in general, and later still the appellation, *Alemanni*.

(1.) TEUTONIC, *adj.* something belonging to the Teutones.

(2.) The TEUTONIC LANGUAGE is supposed to have been the language of the ancient Germans, and hence is reckoned amongst the mother tongues. See PHILOLOGY, *Sett.* IX. and X.

(3.) TEUTONIC ORDER, an order of military knights, established towards the close of the 12th century, in the Holy Land, where, after the death of Barbarossa, the Germans behaved with so much bravery, that Henry king of Jerusalem, the patriarch, and several other princes, determined to reward their valour by instituting the order. They had at first the title of the *knights of St George*; and afterwards were called *Equites Mariani*, or *Knights of St Mary*. Among their other obligations it was required, that every knight should be of noble parentage; that the order should defend the Christian religion and the Holy Land; that they should exercise hospitality towards the Christians in general, but particularly those of their own country; and that they should with all their power endeavour to propagate and extend the Christian faith and the religion of JESUS. In 1190, having become rich by donations from the superstitious, they elected their first grandmaster, Henry Walpot, a German, who had distinguished himself by his zeal and valour. In 1191, pope Celestine III. confirmed their privileges already granted, giving them the title of the *Teutonic knights of the hospital of St Mary the Virgin*. By the conditions of this bull, they vowed perpetual continence, obedience, and poverty; obligations which it may well be imagined were not very strictly kept. See POLAND, § 3, 10, 11, 12, 16. and PRUSSIA, § 6.

TEUZAR, an ancient and considerable town of Africa, in Biledulgerid, which is divided into two parts by a river that runs through it. It is seated in a fertile country, and has a good trade in dates, &c.

* TEW. *n. s.* [*toewe*, a hempen rope, Dutch.] 1. Materials for any thing. *Skinner*. 2. An iron chain. *Ainsworth*.

* To TAW. *v. a.* [*teawian*, Sax.] To work; to beat as to soften: of leather we say to *taw*.

* TEWEL. *n. s.* [*tugau* or *tugai*, Fr.] In the back of the forge, against the fire-place, is fixed a thick iron plate, and a taper pipe in it above 5

inches long, called a *tewel*, or *tewel iron*, which comes through the back of the forge; into this *tewel* is placed the bellows. *Moxon*.

TEWIT, in ornithology. See TRINGA.

TEWKSBURY, a town in Gloucestershire, formerly noted for its monastery. It is now a large handsome corporation, containing about 500 houses, with a magnificent church. It is seated at the confluence of the Severn and Avon, has a cotton manufactory, and sends two members to parliament. Lon. 2. 13. W. Lat. 52. 0. N.

* To TEWTAW. *v. a.* [formed from *taw* by reduplication.] To beat; to break.—The method and way of watering, pilling, breaking, and *tewtawing* of hemp and flax, is a particular business. *Mortimer*.

(1.) TEXEL, a dep. of Holland, formed out of the c. devant province of North Holland. ALCEMAER and TEXEL are the chief towns. *Campredon* lies on the coast of this department.

(3.) TEXEL, a town of Holland, and capital of the department, (N^o 1) in the late prov. of N. Holland, seated at the mouth of the Zuyder-Zee, with a good harbour and a strong fort. It is seated in a fruitful island, about 6 miles long, and 5 broad, lying N. of the continent of Holland, between which and the island is one of the principal passages out of the Zuyder-Zee into the ocean. Most of the soil is applied to feed sheep, of which they have great flocks; and the cheese made of their milk is said to vie with the Parmesan. This island contains several villages, and a town on the E. side called *Bureh*, strongly fortified and garrisoned, and inhabited chiefly by fishermen. Lat. 53. 8. N. Lon. 4. 51. E.

TEXEUIT, or TEYENT, a town of Morocco, 100 miles WNW. of Morocco.

(1.) * TEXT. *n. s.* [*texte*, French; *textus*, Lat.] 1. That on which a comment is written.—

We expect your next

Should be no comment but a *text*. *Waller*.

2. A sentence of scripture.—

What error but some sober brow

Will bless it, and approve it with a *text*. *Shak*.—Some prime articles of faith are collected and concluded by comparing of sundry *texts* with one another. *White*.—His mind he should fortify with some few *texts*. *South*.

(2.) TEXT is a relative term, particularly used for a passage of scripture, chosen by a preacher to be the subject of his sermon.

* TEXTILE. *adj.* [*textilis*, Lat.] Woven; capable of being woven.—The placing of the tangible parts in length or transverse, as in the warp and woof of *textiles*. *Bacon*.—The materials of them were not from any herb, as other *textiles*. *Wilkins*.

* TEXTMAN. *n. s.* [*text* and *man*.] A man ready in quotation of texts.—Men's daily occasions require the doing of a thousand things, which it would puzzle the best *textman* readily to bethink himself of a sentence in the Bible clear enough to satisfy a scrupulous conscience of the lawfulness of. *Sanderson*.

* TEXTURINE. *adj.* [*textrina*, Lat.] Relating to weaving.—It is a wonderful artifice how newly hatched *m* ggots, not the parent animal, because

the emits no web, nor hath any *texturine* art, can convolve the stubborn leaf, and bind it with the thread it weaves from its body. *Derbam.*

*TEXTUARIST. } *n. f.* [*textuaire*, Fr. from
(1.) *TEXTUARY. } *text.*] One ready in the text of scripture; a divine well versed in scripture.

(2.) *TEXTUARY. *adj.* [*from text.*] 1. Contained in the text.—He extends the exclusion unto 20 days, which in the *textuary* sense is fully accomplished in one. *Brown.* 2. Serving as a text; authoritative.—I see no ground why his reason should be *textuary* to ours. *Glanville.*

(1.) *TEXTURE. *n. f.* [*textus*, Lat.] 1. The act of weaving.—Skins, although a natural habit unto all before the invention of *texture*, was something more unto Adam. *Brown.* 2. A web; a thing woven.—

Others, far in the grassy dale,
Their humble *texture* weave. *Thomson.*
3. Manner of weaving with respect either to form or matter.—

Under state of richest *texture* spread. *Milton.*
A veil of richest *texture* wrought the wears.

4. Disposition of the parts of bodies; combination of parts.—

Spirits not in their liquid *texture* mortal wound
Receive. *Milton.*
—They may compose bodies of the same nature and *texture* now, with water and earth composed of entire particles in the beginning. *Newton.*

(2.) TEXTURE properly denotes the arrangement and cohesion of several slender bodies or threads interwoven or entangled among each other, as in the webs of spiders, or in the cloths, stuffs, &c. Texture is also used in speaking of any union or constituent particles of a concrete body, whether by weaving, hooking, knitting, tying, chaining, indenting, intruding, compressing, attracting, or any other way. In which sense we say, a close compact texture, a lax porous texture, a regular or irregular texture, &c.

TEYA, a river of Germany, which rises 3 miles N. of Gerns, in Austria, runs through a great part of Moravia, and falls into the Marisch, 11 c. NE. of Zisterdorf.

TEYENT. See *TEXEUIT*.

TEZA, a town and fort of Fez, with a governor and garrison, 60 miles NNE. of Fez, and 72 SE. of Tetuan.

(1.) TEZCUCO, a large lake of Mexico, 4 miles N. of the Lake of Mexico, which is also called Tezcucio. See MEXICO, N^o 1, § 2, 15.

(2.) TEZCUCO, a town of Mexico, containing about 400 inhabitants, Indians and Spaniards.

TEZELA, a town of Algiers, 15 miles SW. of Oran.

TEZERGHE, a town of Fez, 100 miles ESE. of Fez.

TEZOUT, a town of Fez, 35 m. S. of Melilla.

TGIDT, a town of Arabia, in the province of Oman, 48 miles N. of Fartach.

THABOR. See *TABOR*.

(1.) THALES, a celebrated Greek philosopher, and the first of the seven wise men of Greece, was born at Miletus about 640 B. C. Thales acquired great reputation by his wisdom and learning; he

was the first among the Greeks who foretold eclipses of the sun, and made extraordinary discoveries in astronomy. Thales was the author of the IONIAN sect of philosophers, who were thus called from his being born at Miletus, a city of Ionia. He maintained that water was the principle of which all the bodies in the universe are composed; that the world was the work of God; and that God sees the most secret thoughts in the heart of man. Thales went to see Croesus, who was marching with a powerful army into Cappadocia, and enabled him to pass the Halys without making a bridge. He died soon after, at about 90 years of age. He composed several treatises in verse, on *meteors*, the *equinoxes*, &c. but they are all lost.

(2.) THALES, another celebrated Greek philosopher, a native of Gorthynia. See CRETE.

THALESTRIS, a queen of the Amazons, who came, attended by 300 women, 15 days journey to meet Alexander, during his expedition into Asia, that she might raise up a race of heroes by so great a man. *Q. Curt.* vi. c. 3. *Strabo*, 11. *Juf-tin*, c. 4.

(1.) THALIA, in Pagan mythology, one of the nine Muses. She presided over Comedy; and is represented crowned with a garland of ivy, holding a mask in her hand, and wearing buskins on her feet. See *MUSES*.

(2.) THALIA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *monandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 8th order, *Scitamineae*. The corolla is pentapetalous and undulated; and the drupe has a bilocular kernel. There is only one species, viz.

THALIA GEBICULATA.

THALICTRUM, MEADOW RUE, in botany: A genus of plants belonging to the class of *polyandria*, and order of *polygynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 26th order, *Multiflorae*. There is no calyx; the petals are four or five in number, and the seeds are naked and without a tail. There are 15 species; three of which are indigenous, viz.

1. THALICTRUM ALPINUM, or *alpine meadow rue*, has a very simple stalk, and almost naked; and a racemus simple and terminal. It is a pretty little plant, about a fingers-length in height; the leaves all rise from the root, the stalks being naked and branched; the flowers nod, and have 4 petals, 12 stamina, and 8 pistils. It is frequent on the sides of rivulets in the highland mountains and other places.

2. THALICTRUM FLAVUM, the *common meadow rue*, has a leafy furrowed stalk, and a manifold erect panicle. It has commonly 24 stamina, and from 10 to 16 pistils. The root and leaves of this plant dye a yellow colour, and cattle are fond of it. It grows on the banks of some rivers.

3. THALICTRUM MINUS, or *small meadow rue*, has fexpartite leaves, and bending flowers. The stalk is striated, and about a foot high; the leaves are lax and divaricated, having rigid footstalks; they are smooth and glaucous, and their lobes generally trifid; the panicle is branched and open, and the flowers nod: the petals are pale green, tinged with red; the stamina are from 15

to 20; the seeds deeply striated, and from two to seven in number. This plant is frequent in sandy soils and mountainous pastures.

THALLAND, a province of Sweden, called also **DALFA** and **DALIA**, which see.

THALLITE, *n. f.* in mineralogy. See **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. IV. Gen. XIII. Sp. 6.

THALWEG, the middle of the navigable Channel of the **RHINE**. See **REVOLUTION**, N^o VI. § 27.

(1.) **THAMAS**, Shaw of Persia. See **PERSIA**, § 21.

(2.) **THAMAS KOU LI KHAN**, or **NADIR SHAH**, the murderer and successor of the preceding monarch, a bloody monster. He began his bloody career with the murder of his own uncle, whose fort and territories he seized. See **DELHI**, § 3; **INDIA**, § 12, 13; and **PERSIA**, § 21.

(1.) **THAMES**, the finest river in Great Britain, which takes its rise from a copious spring, called *Thames Head*, two miles SW. of Cirencester, in Gloucestershire. It has been erroneously said, that its name is *Istis* till it arrives at Dorchester, 15 miles below Oxford, when, being joined by the Thame or Tame, it assumes the name of the *Thames*. Poetical fiction has perpetuated the error. About a mile below the source of the river is the first corn mill, which is called *Kemble Mill*. Here the river may properly be said to form a constant current; which, though not more than 9 feet wide in summer, yet in winter becomes such a torrent as to overflow the meadows for many miles around. From Somersford the stream winds to Cricklade, where it unites with many other rivulets. Approaching Kemsford, it again enters its native county, dividing it from Berkshire at Ingleham. It widens considerably in its way to Lechlade; and being there joined by the Lech, the Coln, the Churn, and the Isis, (which all rise in Cotswould Hill) about 138 miles from London, it becomes navigable for vessels of 90 tons. At Entham, in its course NE. to Oxford, is the first bridge of stone; a handsome one, of three arches. At Oxford, it is joined by the Charwell; it proceeds SE. to Abingdon, and thence to Dorchester, where it receives the Tame. Continuing its course SE. by Wallingford to Reading, and forming a boundary to the counties of Berks, Bucks, Surry, Middlesex, Essex, and Kent, it washes the towns of Henley, Marlow, Maidenhead, Windsor, Eton, Egham, Staines, Laleham, Chertsey, Weybridge, Shepperton, Walton, Sunbury, E. and W. Moulsey, Hampton, Thames Ditton, Kingston, Teddington, Twickenham, Richmond, Isleworth, Brentford, Kew, Mortlake, Barnes, Chiswick, Hammer Smith, Putney, Fulham, Wandsworth, Battersea, Chelsea, and Lambeth. Then, on the N. bank of the river, are Westminster and London, and, on the opposite side, Southwark; forming together one continued city, extending to Limehouse and Deptford; and hence the river proceeds to Greenwich, Erith, Greenhithe, Gray's Thurbeck, Gravesend, and Leigh, into the ocean. It receives in its course from Dorchester the rivers Kennet, Lodon, Coln, Wey, Mole, Wandle, Lea, Roding, Darent, and Medway. The jurisdiction of the lord mayor of London over the Thames extends

from Coln Ditch, a little to the west of Staines, to Yerdal or Yenlect to the east, including part of the rivers Medway and Lea; and he has a deputy, named the water-bailiff, who is to search for and punish all offenders against the laws for the preservation of the river and its fish. Eight times a year the lord mayor and aldermen hold courts of convocation for the four counties of Surry, Middlesex, Essex, and Kent. Though the Thames is said to be navigable 138 miles above the bridge, yet there are so many flats, that in summer the navigation westward would be entirely stopped, when the springs are low, were it not for a number of locks. But these are attended with considerable expence; for a barge from Lechlade to London pays for passing through them 13l. 15s. 6d. and from Oxford to London 12l. 18s. This charge, however, is in summer only, when the water is low; and there is no lock from London Bridge to Bolter's Lock; that is, for 5½ miles above the bridge. The plan of new cuts has been adopted, in some places, to shorten and facilitate the navigation. There is one near Lechlade, which runs nearly parallel to the old river, and contiguous to St John's Bridge; and there is another a mile from Abingdon, which has rendered the old stream toward Culham bridge useless. But a much more important undertaking has been accomplished by the junction of this river with the Severn. A canal was made, by virtue of an act of parliament in 1730, from the Severn to Wall Bridge, near Stroud. A new canal now ascends by Stroud, through the Vale of Chalford, to the height of 343 feet, by means of 28 locks, and thence to the entrance of a tunnel near Sapperton, a distance of near 8 miles. The canal is 42 feet in width at top, and 30 at the bottom. The tunnel (which is dug under ground two miles and three furlongs) is near 15 feet in width, and can navigate barges of 70 tons. The canal descending hence 134 feet, by 14 locks, joins the Thames at Lechlade, a distance of above 20 miles. In the course of this vast undertaking, the canal, from the Severn at Froomlade to Ingleham, where it joins the Thames, is a distance of more than 30 miles. A communication, not only with the **TRENT**, but with the **MERSEY**, has likewise been effected by a canal from Oxford to Coventry (See **MERSEY**); and another canal extends from this, at Braunston, to the Thames at Brentford, called *The Grand Junction Canal*. The tide flows up the Thames as high as Richmond, which, following the winding of the river, is 70 miles from the ocean; a greater distance than the tide is carried by any other river in Europe. The water is esteemed extremely wholesome, and fit for use in very long voyages, during which it will work itself perfectly fine.

(2.) **THAMES**, a river of Connecticut. See **CONNECTICUT**.

(3.) **THAMES**, another river of the United States, which runs into Lake St Clair; in Lon. 82. 10. E. Lat. 42. 45. N.

(4.) **THAMES**, a river of New Zealand, which runs into the S. Pacific Ocean on the NE. coast.

THAMAS, an ancient king of Egypt, cotemporary with **THOTH**, the Egyptian Mercury.

* **THAN**, *adv.* [*thanne*, Saxon.] A particle placed

placed in comparison after the comparative adjective or adverb, noting a less degree of the quality compared in the word that follows *than*: as, *Monarchy is better than anarchy. The hawk flies more swiftly than the pigeon.*—

*Were we not better to fall once with virtue,
Than draw a wretched and dishonour'd breath?*
Ben Jonson.

*More true delight in that small ground,
Than in possessing all the earth was found.*
Daniel.

—I never met with a more unhappy conjuncture of affairs, *than* in the business of that unfortunate earl, *King Charles*.—I love you for nothing more *than* for the just esteem you have for all the sons of Adam. *Swift.*

(1.) * *THANE*. *n. f.* [*thegn*, Saxon.] An old title of honour, perhaps equivalent to baron.—

By *Sinel's* death I know I'm *thane* of Glamis;
The *thane* of Cawdor lives. *Shak.*

(2.) *THANE* [*thanus*, Lat.] was a title formerly given to the nobility in Britain. It signifies a minister or honourable retainer, from the verb *thanian*, to minister. There were several degrees of nobility among the Anglo-Saxons; but those most commonly mentioned are the *king's thanes* and the *alderman's thanes*. The *king's thanes* seem to have been of three different degrees, according to their different degrees of wealth or favour at court. The *alderman's thanes* seem to have been of the lowest degree of nobility, and next to them those who were promoted to that dignity from their advancement in the church, from their valour, success in agriculture or commerce; for if a corol or farmer applied to learning and attained to priests' orders; if he acquitted himself so well as to obtain from a nobleman five bythes of land, or a gilt sword, helmet, and breast-plate, the reward of his valour; or if by his industry he had acquired the property of five bythes of land; or if he applied to trade, and made three voyages beyond sea in a ship of his own, and a cargo belonging to himself—he was denominated a *thane*. The *thanes* were obliged to attend the king with their followers in military expeditions, to assist in building and defending the royal castles, and in keeping the bridges and highways in proper repair. This title of *thane* was abolished in England at the conquest, upon the introduction of the feudal system by William I. The titles of *earl* and *baron* were about the same period introduced into Scotland by Malcolm Canmore, and the title of *thane* fell into disuse.

THANET, an island in the county of Kent, surrounded by the sea, except on the NE. side, where it is bounded by the branches of the Stour, now inconsiderable to what they were formerly. It contains several villages, and the sea-port towns of Margate and Ramsgate. It is celebrated for being the spot through which arts, sciences, and divine knowledge, came into this happy isle. The Britons called it *RICHBOROUGH*, from its vicinity to the city of that name, now only a venerable ruin; but the Saxons called it *Thanet*, from fire, having so many beacons erected on it. It lies open to the sea on the N. and E. with the river Wantsum on the W. and S.; is

about 10 miles long from the N. Foreland to Sarre-Bridge, and about 8 broad from Westgate to Sandwich-Ferry. The N. part of it is all arable, except some barren land, that is sown with sainfoin, which produces a load, and sometimes two loads of hay upon an acre; by which means, the land that otherwise is not worth half a crown an acre yields 30s. or 40s. The S. and W. parts of the island are most of them marsh or pasture lands. The soil is generally very fertile, especially in the best of barley, and other grain, of which it is computed above 20,000 quarters are sent hence to London in a year, besides what is sold to other places. The *ALGA MARINA*, or sea ware, is their chief manure.

* *To THANK*. *v. a.* [*thancian*, Saxon; *dancken*, Dutch; *thanken*, German.] 1. To return acknowledgments for any favour or kindness.—

The forlorn soldier, that so nobly fought,
He would have well become this place, and
grac'd

The *thankings* of a king. *Shak.*

For your stubborn answer,
The king shall know it, and, no doubt, *thank*
you. *Shak.*

—We *thank* God always for you: 2 *Tbeff. i. 3.*
To *thank* me for defending ev'n his foes.

Dryden.

2. It is used often in a contrary or ironical sense.—
For this we may *thank* Adam. *Milton.*

Thank yourself if ought should fall amiss.

Dryden.

—That Portugal hath yet no more than a suspension of arms, they may *thank* themselves, because they came so late into the treaty; and, that they came so late, they may *thank* the whigs. *Swift.*

* *THANK*. *THANKS*. *n. f.* [*thancar*, Saxon; *dancke*, Dutch.] Acknowledgment paid for favour or kindness; expression of gratitude. *Thanks* is commonly used of verbal acknowledgment, *gratitude* of real repayment. It is seldom used in the singular.—

The poorest service is repaid with *thanks*. *Shak.*

Thanks, good Egeus. *Shak.*

—I have no *thank* for all my good deed. *Ecclus. xx. 16.*—He took bread, and gave *thanks* to God. *Acts xxvii. 35.*—*Thanks* be to God, which giveth us the victory. 1 *Cor. xv.*—Some embrace suits which never mean to deal effectually in them; but they will win a *thank*. *Bacon.*—

For this to th' infinitely good we owe
Immortal *thanks*. *Milton.*

* *THANKFUL*. *adj.* [*thancful*, Sax.] Full of gratitude; ready to acknowledge good received.

—A *thankful* remembrance of his death. *Common Prayer.*—Be *thankful* unto him, and bless his name. *Psal. c. 4.*—It maketh the persons preferred more *thankful*. *Bacon.*—

Live, thou great encourager of arts;
Live ever in our *thankful* hearts. *Dryden.*

* *THANKFULLY*. *adv.* [from *thankful*.] With lively and grateful sense of good received.—Take it *thankfully*. *Shak.*—

If you have liv'd, take *thankfully* the part.

Dryden.

—I shall very *thankfully* learn. *Boyle.*

* *THANK.*

* **THANKFULNESS.** *n. f.* [from *thankful*.] Gratitude; lively sense or ready acknowledgment of good received.—He scarcely would give me thanks for what I had done, for fear that *thankfulness* might have an introduction of reward.

Sidney.—

Sweet prince, you learn me noble *thankfulness*. *Shak.*

—Retire with all *thankfulness* of heart. *Taylor.*—*Thankfulness* and submission make us happy. *L'Estrange.*

* **THANKLESS.** *adj.* [from *thank*.] 1. Unthankful; ungrateful; making no acknowledgment.—

Left to great good as he for her had wrought
Should die unknown, and buried be in *thankless*
thought. *Spenser.*

How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
To have a *thankless* child. *Shak.*

One grateful woman to thy fame supply'd
What a whole *thankless* land to his deny'd. *Pope.*

2. Not deserving, or not likely to gain thanks.—The contracting and extending the lines and sense of others, if the first authors might speak for themselves, would appear a *thankless* office. *Watson.*—

Bring home on thy breast more *thankless* scars. *Crafshaw.*

* **THANKLESSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *thankless*.] Ingratitude; failure to acknowledge good received. Not t'have written then, seems little less
Than worst of civil vices, *thanklessness*. *Donne.*

* **THANKOFFERING.** *n. f.* [*thank* and *offering*.] Offering paid in acknowledgment of mercy.—A thousand *thankofferings* are due to providence. *Watts.*

* **THANKS.** See **THANK.**

* **THANKSGIVING.** *n. f.* [*thanks* and *give*.] Celebration of mercy.—These sacred hymns Christianity hath peculiar to itself, the other being songs too of praise and *thanksgiving*. *Hooker.*—Of old there were songs of praise and *thanksgiving* unto God. *Neb. xii. 46.*—We should acknowledge our obligations to God for the many favours we receive, by continual praises and *thanksgiving*. *Tillotson.*—The common practice of all Christian churches and states, in appointing and keeping days of publick *thanksgiving* and humiliation. *Nelson.*

* **THANKWORTHY.** *adj.* [*thank* and *worthy*.] Deserving gratitude; meritorious.—This is *thankworthy*, if a man endure grief. 1 *Pet. ii. 19.*—

If love be compell'd,

How can it grateful or *thankworthy* prove?

Davies.

THANN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Rhine; 13½ miles NNE. of Befort, and 18 SSE. of Colmar.

THANNHAUSEN, a town of Suabia, capital of a lordship so named, 22 miles E. of Ulm.

THANWALD, a town of Silesia, 13 miles NW. of Breslaw.

THAPSIA, the DEADLY CARROT, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *dignia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 45th order, *Umbellatae*. The fruit is oblong, and girt with a membrane. There are five species:

1—5. **THAPSIA ASCLEPIUM, FOETIDA, GAR-**

ANICA, TRIFOLIATA, and VILLOSA. The roots of the foetida were formerly ordered in medicine, but are now entirely disused; a small dose operating with extreme violence both upwards and downwards.

(1.) **THAPSUS**, a town of Africa Proper, where Scipio and Juba were defeated by Julius Cæsar. *Liv. 29. c. 30.*

(2.) **THAPSUS**, a town of Sicily, N. of Syracuse. See **SICILY**, § 6.

THARGELIA, in Grecian antiquity, festivals in honour of Apollo and Diana.

* **THARM.** *n. f.* [*tbearm*, Sax. *darm*, Dutch, the gut.] Intestines twisted for several uses.

THAROPOS, the father of Oeagrus and grandfather of ORPHEUS. Bacchus made him king of Thrace. *Diod. 4.*

THARUS, in ornithology, the Chilese eagle. See **FALCO**, N° 16.

(1.) **THASOS**, or } an island in the Ægean sea,
(1.) **THASUS**, } anciently called *Æthria*, famous for its gold mines; with a town so named.

(2.) **THASUS**, a brother of Cadmus, whom he accompanied in search of Europa. *Apollod. 3.*

(1.) * **THAT.** *pronoun.* [*thata*, Gothick; *that*, Saxon; *dat*, Dutch.] 1. Not this, but the other. He wins me by *that* means I told you. *Shak.*

Octavia, not only *that*,

That were excusable, *that* and thousands more. *Shak.*

2. Which; relating to an antecedent thing.—The finner makes an aberration from the scope or mark *that* is set before him. *Perkins.*—

You'll rue the time

That clogs me with this answer. *Shak.*

Nothing they but dust can show,
Or bones *that* hasten to be so. *Cowley.*

—A judgment *that* is equal and impartial must incline to the greater probabilities. *Wilkins. 3.* Who; relating to an antecedent person.—

Saints *that* taught and led the way to heaven. *Tickel.*

4. It sometimes serves to save the repetition of a word or words foregoing.—

I'll know your business, *that* I will. *Shak.*
—They said, what is *that* to us? see thou to *that*. *Matth.*—Ye defraud, and *that* your brethren. 1 *Cor. vi. 8.*—Yet for all *that*—I will not cast them away. *Lev. xxvi. 44.*—We must direct our prayers to right ends; and *that* either in respect of the prayer itself, or the things we pray for. *Duty of Man.*—

They weep, as if they meant

That way at least proud Nabas to prevent. *Cowley.*

—This Runick subject will occur upon that of poetry. *Temple.*—What is inviting in this sort of poetry proceeds not so much from the idea of a country life itself, as from *that* of its tranquillity. *Pope. 5.* Opposed to *this*, as the other to one—

This is not fair, nor profitable *that*. *Dryden.*

6. When *this* and *that* relate to foregoing words, *this* is referred like *hic* or *cery* to the latter, and *that* like *ill* or *cela* to the former.—

In this scale gold, in t'other fame does lie,
The weight of *that* mounts *this* so high. *Cowley.*

7. Such as.—By religion is meant a living up to those

those principles, *that* is, to act conformably to our best reason. *Tillotson*. 8. That which; what.

Sir, I think the meat wants *that* I have. *Shak.*

9. The thing.—The Nazarite bath vowed, besides *that* his hand shall get. *Numb. vi. 21.*—

He made *that* art which was a rage. *Cowley.*

10. The thing which then was.—

Secure proud Nabas slept,

And dreamt, vain man, of *that* day's barb'rous sport. *Cowley.*

11. By way of eminence.—

This is *that* Jonathan the joy and grace,
That Jonathan in whom does mixt remain

All that fond mothers wish. *Cowley.*

Hence love himself, *that* tyrant of my days. *Cowley.*

12. In *THAT*. Because; in consequence of.—

Things are preached not in *that* they are taught,
but in *that* they are published. *Hooker.*—

(1.) * *THAT*, conjunction. 1. Because.—

It is not *that* I love you less

Than when before your feet I lay. *Waller.*

Forgive me *that* I thus your patience wrong. *Cowley.*

2. Noting a consequence.—

That he should dare to do me this disgrace,

Is fool or coward writ upon my face? *Dryden.*

—The custom and familiarity of these tongues do

sometimes so far influence the expressions in these

epistles, that one may observe the force of the

Hebrew conjugations. *Locke*. 3. Noting indication.

—We answered, *that* we held it to agreeable,

that we thought an hour spent with him was

more years of our former life. *Bacon*.—They saw

so much light, as to believe *that* when they died,

they went immediately to the stars. *Heylyn*.—I

have shewed before, *that* a mere possibility to the

contrary, can by no means hinder a thing from

being highly credible. *Wilkins*. 4. Noting a final

end.—

Treat it kindly, *that* it may

With at least with us to stay. *Cowley.*

* *THATCH*. *n. f.* [*thace*, Saxon, *brov*, Skinner.

from *thac*, a roof; in Islandick, *thak*. Mr Lye.] To

straw laid upon the top of a house to keep out

the weather.—

Hard by a flye, beneath a roof of *thatch*

Dwelt Obloquy. *Pope.*

—A plough-boy, who has never seen any thing

but *thatched* houses, naturally imagines that

thatch belongs to the very nature of a house.

Waller.—

Then came rosy Health from her cottage of

thatch. *Smart.*

* *TO THATCH*. *v. a.* [*thaccian*, Saxon.] To

cover as with straw.—

Make false hair, and *thatch*

Your poor thin roofs with burthens of the dead, *Shak.*

—Moss groweth chiefly upon ridges of houses tiled or *thatched*. *Bacon*.—

Then Rome was poor, and there you might behold

The palace *thatch'd* with straw. *Dryden.*

Sonnet or elegies to Chloris

Might raise a house above two stories:

A lyric ode would state, a catch

Would tile, an epigram would *thatch*. *Swift.*

VOL. XXII. PART I.

* *THATCHER*. *n. f.* [from *thatch*.] One whose trade is to cover houses with straw.—

You merit new employments daily;

Your *thatcher*, ditcher, gard'ner, baily. *Swift.*

—Ash is universal timber; it serves the soldier, seaman, carpenter, *thatcher*, and husbandman. *Mortimer.*

THAU, a lake of France, in the dept. of the Herault, near the coast of the Mediterranean, between Frontignan and Agde.

THAUMANTIAS, in the mythology, a name of Iris, the goddess of the rain-bow; from her father THAUMAS.

THAUMAS, a son of Oceanus and Terra, who married Electra, by whom he had Iris, the Harpies, &c.

THAUMASIUS, a mountain of Arcadia, the birth-place of Jupiter, according to the poets.

* THAW. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Liquefaction of any thing congealed.—A man of continual dissolution and *thaw*. *Shak.*—

His stubborn heart, still as ice

More hardened after *thaw*. *Milton.*

2. Warmth such as liquifies congelation.—

I was the prince's jester, and duller than a great *thaw*. *Shak.*

—That cold country where discourse doth freeze in the air all Winter, and may be heard in the next Summer, or at a great *thaw*. *Wilkins.*—

When sharp frosts had long constrain'd the earth,

A kindly *thaw* unlocks it with cold rain. *Dryd.*

(1.) * *TO THAW*. *v. n.* [*thawian*, Saxon; *degen*, Dutch.] 1. To grow liquid after congelation; to melt.—

When thy melted maid

His letter at thy pillow hath laid:

If thou begin'st to *thaw* for this,

May my name step in. *Donne.*

It on firm land

Thaws not but gathers heap. *Milton.*

—Having let that ice *thaw* of itself, and frozen the liquor a second time, we could not discern any thing. *Boyle.*—

Or starting from a half year's sleep,

From Hecla view the *thawing* deep. *Grainger.*

2. To remit the cold which had caused frost.

(2.) * *TO THAW*. *v. a.* To melt what was congealed.—

Where Phœbus' fire scarce *thaws* the icicles. *Shak.*

Think not that Cæsar bears such rebel blood,

That will be *thaw'd* from the true quality. *Shak.*

My love is *thaw'd*. *Shak.*

She can unlock

The clapping charm, and *thaw* the numbing spall. *Milton.*

Burnish'd steel, that cast a glare

From far, and seem'd to *thaw* the freezing air. *Dryden.*

Her icy heart is *thaw'd*. *Granville.*

THAWING. *part. n. f.* [from *thaw*.] the resolution of ice into its former fluid state by the warmth of the air. See CONGELATION, and FROST.

THAXTED, an incorporated town of England, in Essex, with a fine church, and a market on Friday, seated near the Chelmer, 20 miles N.W. of Chelmsford.

! j Chelms-

Chelmsford, 6 N. of Dunmow, and 43 NNE. of London. Lon. ϕ . 22. E. Lat. 51. 56. N.

* **THE**, article. [*de*, Dutch.] 1. The article noting a particular thing.—

He only lived but till he was a man,

The which no sooner had his prowess confirm'd,
In the unshrinking station where he fought.

But like a man he died! *Shak.*

—He put him in mind of *the* long pretence he had
to be groom of the bed chamber, for *the* which he
had the queen's promise. *Clarendon.*—

Unhappy till *the* last, *the* kind releasing knell.

Cowley.

I'll march *the* muses, Hannibal!

Cowley.

The fair example of the heavenly lark.

The fruit

Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste

Brought death into *the* world. *Milton.*

Night shades *the* groves, and all in silence

lie.

All but *the* mournful Philomel and I. *Pope.*

2. Before a couplet is commonly cut off in verse.—

Who had *th'* especial engines been to rear

His fortunes up into the state they were. *Dan.*

Th' adorning thee with so much art

Is but a bar'rous skill. *Cowley.*

3. Sometimes *he* is cut off.—

In this scale gold, in *t'* other fame does lie.

Cowley.

4. It is used by way of consequential reference.

—*The* longer sin hath kept possession of the heart,
The harder it will be to drive it out. *Duty of Man.*

5. In the following passage *the* is used according
to the French idiom.—As all the considerable gov-
ernments among the Alps are commonwealths,
so it is a constitution the most adapted of any to
the poverty of these countries. *Addison.*

THEA, in botany. See **TEA**, N^o 1, § 1—11.

THEAKIKI. lake of the United States, which
runs into Lake Illinois in Lon. 89. 15. W. Lat.
42. 52. N.

THEALE, a small town of England, in Buck-
inghamshire, seated on the Kennet, 4 miles W. of
Reading.

THEANGELA, a town of Caria.

THEANO, a town of Naples, in Iavora, with
a bishop's see. 15 miles N. of Capua.

THEANUM. See **TEANUM**.

THEATE, a town of Naples, with a bishop's
see. See **CHRIST**.

THEATINES, a religious order in the Romish
church, so called from their principle founder
John Peter Caraffa, the bishop of **THEATE**, or
Chieti, in the kingdom of Naples, and afterwards
pope, under the name of *Paul IV*. The names
of the other founders were Grestan, Boniface,
and Configlieri. These four pious men desiring
to reform the ecclesiastical state, laid the founda-
tion of an order of regular clerks at Rome in
the year 1524. Pope Clement VII. approved the
institution, and permitted the brethren to make
three religious vows, to elect a superior every
3 years, and to draw up statutes for the regu-
lation of the order. They first endeavoured, by
their example, to revive among the clergy the
poverty of the apostles and first disciples of our
Saviour, and were the first who assumed the title
of regular clerks.

* **THEATRAL**. *adi.* [*theatral*, Fr. *theatralis*,
Lat.] Belonging to a theatre.

(1.) * **THEATRE**. *n. f.* [*theatre*, Fr. *theatrum*,
Lat.] 1. A place in which shews are exhibited;
a playhouse.

This wife and universal theatre,
Presents more woful pageants than the scene

Wherein we play. *Shak.*

—They all stood as in a theatre beholding this
light. *Bacon.* 2. A place rising by steps or gra-
dations like a theatre.—

Shade above shade, a woody theatre. *Milton.*

A native theatre, which rising slow,

By just degrees o'erlook'd the ground below.

Dryden.

No theatres of oaks around him rise. *Harris.*

(2.) **THEATRE**, ANCIENT HISTORY OF THE

GRECIAN. For the origin of the DRAMATIC

ART, we naturally look to Greece, the nursery

of the arts and sciences. It derived its origin

from the hymns which were sung in the festivals

of Bacchus in honour of that deity. While these

resounded in the ears of the multitude, choruses

of Bucchants and Fauns, ranged round certain

obscene images which they carried in triumph

procession, chanted lascivious songs, and some-

times sacrificed individuals to public ridicule. The

hymns in honour of Bacchus, while they describ-

ed his rapid progress and splendid conquests, be-

came imitative; and in the contests of the Pythi-

an games, the players on the flute who entered

into competition were enjoined by an express law

to represent successively the circumstances that

had preceded, accompanied, and followed the

victory of Apollo over Python. Some years after

this regulation, Sufarion and **THESPIS**, both born

in a small borough of Attica, named *Icaria*, ap-

peared each at the head of a company of actors,

the one on a kind of stage, the other in a cart.

The former attacked the vices and absurdities of

his time; and the latter treated more noble sub-

jects, which he took from history. Sufarion re-

presented his first pieces towards the year 580 be-

fore Christ. Some years after, Thespis made his

first attempts in tragedy, and acted his Alcexis in

536. Thespis had more than once seen in the festi-

vals, in which as yet hymns only were sung, one

of the fingers, mounted on a table, form a kind

of dialogue with the chorus. From this hint he

conceived the idea of introducing into the trage-

dies an actor who, by simple recitals introduced

at intervals, should give relief to the chorus, di-

vide the action, and render it more interesting.

This happy innovation, together with some other

liberties in which he had allowed himself, gave

alarm to SOLON, but the excessive approbation

and delight with which the pieces of Thespis and

Sufarion were received, at once justified and ren-

dered useless his suspicious foresight. The poets,

who till then had only exercised their genius in

dithyrambs and licentious satire, struck with the

elegant forms which these species of composition

began to assume, dedicated their talents to trage-

dy and comedy. Soon after a greater variety was

introduced in the subjects of the former of these

poems. *Phrynicus*, the disciple of Thespis, made

choice of that kind of verse which is most suitable

to the drama, was the author of some other chan-

ges,

ger, and left tragedy in its infancy. *ÆSCHYLUS* received it from his hands enveloped in a rude vestment, its visage covered with false colours, or a mask unexpressive of character, without either grace or dignity in its motions, inspiring the desire of an interest which it with difficulty excited, still attached to the buffooneries which had amused its infant years, and expressing its conceptions sometimes with elegance and dignity, but frequently in a feeble and low style, polluted with gross obscenities. In his first tragedies he introduced a second actor; and afterward, copying the example of *SOPHOCLES*, who had just entered on his theatrical career, he admitted a third, and sometimes even a fourth. By this multiplicity of personages, as the chorus now held only a subaltern station, *Æschylus* shortened its part. To give an impression of *greatness* he raised his actors on stilts, and covered their faces with masks. He also clothed them with magnificent robes. Instead of those wretched scaffolds which were formerly erected in haste, he obtained a theatre furnished with machines, and embellished with decorations. Here the sound of the trumpet was reverberated, incense was seen to burn on the altars, the shades of the dead to arise from the tomb, and the *FURIES* to rush from the gulphs of *TARTARUS*. The effect of so many new objects could not but astonish the spectators; nor were they less surprised and delighted at the intelligence displayed in the performance of the actors, whom *Æschylus* almost always exercised himself. The progress of the art was extremely rapid. *Æschylus* was born 525 years before Christ, 11 years after *Thespis* had acted his *Alceus*. He had for competitors *CHOERILUS*, *Pratinas*, and *Phrynichus*, whose glory he eclipsed, and *Sophocles*, who rivalled his own. *Sophocles* was born about the year 497 B.C. about 14 years before *Euripides*. These carried tragedy to the highest perfection to which it attained among the Greeks. *ÆSCHYLUS* painted men greater than they can be, *SOPHOCLES* as they ought to be, and *EURIPIDES*, as they are. It was not till after a long infancy that comedy began suddenly to make a rapid improvement in Sicily. Instead of a succession of scenes without connection or tendency, the philosopher *EPICHRMUS* introduced an action, all the parts of which had a dependence on each other; and conducted his subject, without wandering from it, through a just extent to a determinate end. His pieces, subjected to the same laws as tragedy, were known in Greece, where they were considered as models; and comedy soon shared with her rival the suffrages of the public, and the homage due to genius. The Athenians, especially, received her with transport, and many of their poets exercised their genius in this novel species of composition; as *Magnes*, *Cratinus*, *Crates*, *Pherecrates*, *Eupolis*, and *Aristophanes*. They all flourished in the age of *Pericles*. In such of their pieces as have come down to us, the gods and heroes are travelled, gross and obscene language is often employed, and virulent invectives are often thrown out against individuals of the first rank for genius and virtue. Towards the end of the Peloponnesian war the licentiousness of comedy was restrained. The chorus was

laid aside, because the rich citizens were alarmed, and would no longer contribute money to support it, nor provide masks with portraits for exposing individuals. The poets being thus restrained from mentioning names of living persons on the stage, invented false names, but still exposed real and known characters. *ARISTOPHANES*, in some of his latest pieces, has given us some good examples of this kind of comedy, which is sometimes called the *middle comedy*. *COMEDY* was still liable to abuse, and therefore required farther reformation. As the use of real names had formerly been prohibited, real subjects were also forbidden; and thus was formed what is called the *new comedy*, which has continued to be cultivated and improved in modern times.

(3.) THEATRE, DESCRIPTION OF AN ANCIENT GRECIAN. To give some idea of a Grecian theatre, we shall describe very shortly the theatre of *Bacchus* in Athens, which was built by the famous architect *Philos* in the time of *Pericles*. The part intended for the spectators was of a semicircular form, at the diameter of which was erected the stage. The orchestra occupied the space where the pit in modern theatres is situated, where the music, the chorus, and the *MIMI* were placed. It was four feet elevated above the ground. The spectators were arranged in three galleries round all the sides of the orchestra except that of the stage, each gallery containing 8 rows of seats. At the farther end of the orchestra, where the stage is erected in modern theatres, stood the *thymele* or *logeon*, but projecting a little towards the audience. It was a little higher than the orchestra, and did not extend the whole breadth of it. In some theatres it was only six feet square. Here the principal part of the chorus made their recitations, and in comical interludes the *mimi* performed. Behind the *THYMELE* appeared the stage or proscenium, considerably elevated. No part of this theatre was covered except the stage, and a high gallery called *cirois* set apart for the women. The Athenians, being exposed to the weather, came usually with great cloaks, to secure them from the rain or the cold; and for defence against the sun, they had the *sciadion*, a kind of parasol, which the Romans used also in their theatres by the name of *umbellæ*; but when a sudden storm arose, the play was interrupted, and the spectators dispersed. The chorus, according as the subject demanded, was composed of men and women, old men or youths, citizens or slaves, priests, soldiers, &c. to the number of 15 in tragedy, and 24 in comedy. The chorus came upon the stage preceded by a flute-player, who regulated their steps; sometimes one after the other, but in tragedy more frequently three in front and five in depth, or five in front and three in depth. The pay of those performers who had acquired great reputation was considerable. *Polaus* gained a talent in two days (equal to £125 Sterling). Several judicious remarks on the difference between the ancient and modern theatre, are inserted under the article ART, § 1. 8.

(4.) THEATRE, DESCRIPTION OF AN ANCIENT ROMAN. Dramatic entertainments were introduced at Rome in A. U. C. 391. They were called *ludi scenici*, because they were first acted in a shade

I i 2 formed

formed by the branches and leaves of trees. They were borrowed immediately from Etruria, whence also they received their first players. These Etrurians at first only danced to a flute, without either singing or acting. The Roman youth soon imitated them at their solemn festivals, adding saffery in rude verses, and gestures adapted to the subject. These verses were called *Fescennini* from Fescennia, a city of Etruria. Livius Andronicus was the first poet who wrote a regular play in Latin. This happened in A. U. C. 512 or 513, about 160 years after the death of Sophocles and Euripides, and 52 after that of MENANDER. The Grecian model was afterwards introduced and cultivated much by succeeding dramatic writers. This was the model of Menander, for the old and middle comedy was unknown at Rome. As the Romans were only imitators of the Greeks in the dramatic art, as well as in most of the arts and sciences, nothing more is necessary to be said in addition to the account which we have already given of the Grecian stage.

(5.) THEATRE OF ENGLAND, HISTORY OF THE. The first origin of the English stage is hid in obscurity. It was not, however, copied from the Grecian or Roman; for it was evidently different in form as well as in matter, and may with more propriety be deduced from Gothic original. It appears that there were theatrical entertainments in England almost as early as the conquest; for we are told by William Stephanides or Fitz-Stephen, a monk, who in the reign of Henry II. wrote his *Descriptio Nobilissima Civitatis Londonie*, that "London, instead of the common interludes of the theatre, had plays of a more holy kind; representations of the miracles of confessors, and the sufferings of martyrs. At this time there were also certain sets of idle people, who travelled the countries and were called *Mummers*, a kind of vagrant comedians, whose excellence consisted altogether in mimicry and humour. It is probable that, soon after this time, the dramatic representations called *Mysteries* were exhibited: These mysteries were taken from scripture history; some represented the creation of the world, with the fall of Adam and Eve; some the story of Joseph; and others even the incarnation and sufferings of the Son of God. These Mysteries were succeeded by *Moralities*, in which there were some rude traces of a fable and a moral; and some also of poetry, the virtues, vices, and other affections of the mind being frequently personified. After these Moralities came what were called *Interludes*, which made some approaches to wit and humour. In the time of Henry VIII. one or two pieces had been published under the classical names of *Comedy* and *Tragedy*, but they seem not to have been intended for popular use. It was not till the religious ferment had subsided, that the public had leisure to attend to dramatic poetry. In the reign of Elizabeth, tragedies and comedies began to appear in form, and could the poets have persevered, the first models were good. *Corbodu*, a regular tragedy, was acted in 1561; and Gascoigne, in 1566, exhibited *Jocasta*, a translation from Euripides, as also *The Supplices*, a regular comedy, from Aristotle, near 30 years before any of Shakespeare's were printed. The people however still retained

a relish for their old mysteries and moralities, and the popular dramatic poets seem to have made them their models. The graver sort of moralities appear to have given birth to our modern tragedy; as our comedy evidently took its rise from the lighter interludes of that kind. Even after the people had been accustomed to tragedies and comedies, moralities still kept their ground. One of them, entitled *The New Cusum*, was printed so late as 1573. At length they assumed the name of *masques*, and with some classical improvements, became in the two following reigns the favourite entertainments of the court. As for the old mysteries, which ceased to be acted after the reformation, they seem to have given rise to a third species of stage exhibition; which, though now confounded with tragedy or comedy, were by our first dramatic writers considered as quite distinct from them both; these were historical plays, or histories; a species of dramatic writing which resembled the old mysteries in representing a series of historical events simply in the order of time in which they happened, without any regard to the *three unities*. Of this description were many of the pieces which the age of Elizabeth produced, the principal author of which era was the immortal SHAKESPEARE. Such an author could not fail to establish the reputation of the theatre, and insure its prosperity. In this flourishing state it continued during the whole reign of James I; dramatic authors abounded, and every year produced a number of new plays; it became a fashion for the nobility to celebrate their weddings, birth days, and other occasions of rejoicing, with masques and interludes, which were exhibited with surprising expence; our great architect, Inigo Jones, being frequently employed to furnish decorations, with all the luxuriance of his invention and magnificence of his art. The king and his lords, and the queen and her ladies, frequently performed in these masques at court, and the nobility at their private houses; nor was any public entertainment thought complete without them. Yet even about this flourishing period, many of our ancient dramatic pieces were performed in the yards of carriers' inns; in which the comedians, who then first united themselves in companies, erected an occasional stage. The stage was strewn with rushes, which, in the time of Shakespeare, were the usual covering of floors in England. The curtain opened in the middle, and was drawn backwards and forwards on an iron rod. In some play-houses they were woollen, in others made of silk.—Towards the rear of the stage there appears to have been a balcony, the platform of which was probably 8 or 10 feet from the ground, and in many of our old plays, part of the dialogue was spoken from thence; and in the front of this balcony curtains were also hung. The mechanism of our ancient stage seldom went beyond a painted chair or a trap-door, and few, if any of them, had moveable scenes. When tragedies were performed the stage was hung with black. In the early part of Shakespeare's acquaintance with the theatre, the want of scenery seems to have been supplied by the simple expedient of writing the names of the different places where the scene was laid in the progress of the play,

play, which were disposed in such a manner as to be visible to the audience. It is probable that the stage was formerly lighted by two large branches, of a form similar to those now hung in churches. They gave place in a subsequent period to small circular wooden frames, furnished with candles, eight of which were hung on the stage, four at either side; and these within a few years were wholly removed by Mr Garrick, who, on his return from France, first introduced the present commodious method of illuminating the stage by lights not visible to the audience. Many of the companies of players were formerly so thin, that one person played two or three parts; and a battle on which the fate of an empire was supposed to depend was decided by half a dozen combatants. It appears to have been a common practice, in their mock engagements, to discharge small pieces of ordnance on the stage. Before the exhibition began, three flourishes or pieces of music were played, or, in the ancient language, there were three *foundings*. Music was likewise played between the acts. The instruments chiefly used were trumpets, cornets, and hautboys. The band, which did not consist of more than five or six performers, sat in an upper balcony, over what is now called the stage-box. The person who spoke the prologue was ushered in by trumpets, and usually wore a long black velvet cloak. The amusements of our ancestors, before the commencement of the play, were of various kinds, such as reading, playing at cards, drinking ale, or smoking tobacco. It was a common practice to carry table-books to the theatre, and, either from curiosity or enmity to the author, or some other motive, to write down passages of the play that was represented; and there is reason to believe that the imperfect and mutilated copies of some of Shakespeare's dramas which are yet extant were taken down in short-hand during the exhibition. At the end of the piece, the actors, in noblemen's houses and in taverns, where plays were frequently performed, prayed for the health and prosperity of their patrons; and in the public theatres for the king and queen. This prayer sometimes made part of the epilogue. Hence, probably, as Mr Steevens has observed, the addition of *Vivant rex et regina* to the modern play-bills. Plays, in the time of Shakespeare, began at one o'clock p. m. and the exhibition was usually finished in two hours. Even in 1667 they commenced at three. When Goffon wrote his *School of Abuse* in 1579, it seems the dramatic entertainments were usually exhibited on Sundays. Afterwards they were performed on that and other days indiscriminately. It appears from a contemporary writer, that exhibiting plays on Sunday had not been abolished in the third year of king Charles I. The taste for theatrical entertainments continued during great part of the reign of king Charles I. but in 1633 it began to be opposed by the Puritans from the press; and the troubles that soon after followed entirely suspended them till the restoration of king Charles II. in 1660. Till this time no woman had been seen upon the English stage, the characters of women having always been performed by boys, or young men of an effeminate aspect; but the power of real and beau-

tiful women was now added to the stage. From that period the stage has held the rank to which it is entitled as the first of rational amusements. The powerful OTWAY, the pathetic ROWE, and the sublime although extravagant LEE, produced, in the end of the 17th, and the early part of the 18th century, their excellent tragedies, which, with those of SHAKESPEARE, and a small number of others, are the *stock pieces* of the theatres; for few are the productions of Melpomene within the last 50 years that have been able to obtain this footing. The comic muse, however, has been cultivated with more success. A splendid chain, the links of which are continuous, although of unequal brilliancy, extends from CONGREVE to SHERIDAN. Of late years, indeed, a nauseous superfluity of trite and palling sentiment, a childish indulgence in *barlequinade*, and an unnatural adoption of the gloomy and *gigantesque* absurdities of Germany, have prevailed but too much on the British stage. Yet let us hope that these are but the follies of a day, and that their place on the English boards will soon be supplied by the native and legitimate drama,—that drama, which, never inattentive to the rules of composition, yet renders them subservient to the dictates of truth and of nature.

(6.) THEATRE, PRESENT STATE OF THE, IN GREAT BRITAIN. There are in London only three theatres licensed to perform tragedies and comedies; Drury-Lane, Covent-Garden, and the little theatre in the Haymarket; the latter a summer, and the two former winter houses. The winter theatres open in October, and continue performing until the end of June, and the summer house is open in the intermediate months. That part in all the houses which is appropriated for the reception of the audience is fitted up in the most elegant and commodious manner; and no art or embellishment which can heighten the delusion of the scene is omitted on the stage. The dresses are characteristic and superb, the machinery skilful, the scenery beautiful, the orchestra powerful and harmonious, and the performers in general excellent. The prices of admission have been gradually raised, until they now are, boxes 6s. pit 3s. 6d. galleries 2s. and 1s. Such establishments are not confined to London; every town in the island has its regular or occasional theatre; and in many cities, as Birmingham, Liverpool, York, Glasgow, &c. they yield only to those of London in size. The emoluments of the best actors are great, amounting to several thousands in a year; and the most eminent hold that rank in society to which they are entitled by their abilities. The King's Theatre, or Opera House, we have noticed under OPERA. There are *spectacle* houses in London, as Astley's amphitheatre, Jones's circus, Sadler's Wells, &c. but as their performances are chiefly equestrian or pantomimic, we do not consider them as properly belonging to the article THEATRE.

* THEATRICAL. THEATRICK. *adj.* [*theatrum*, Lat.] Scenick; suiting a theatre; pertaining to a theatre.—*Theatrical* forms fickle hard for the prize of religion: a distorted countenance is made the mark of an upright heart. *Decay of Piety.*—

Load

Load some vain church with old *theatrick*
state. *Pope.*

* **THEATRICALY.** *adv.* [from *theatrical*.]
 In a manner suited the stage.—

Her voice *theatrically* loud. *Pope.*

• **THEATRICK.** See **THEATRICAL.**

THEBÆ, *plur.* the ancient name of **THEBES**
 in Bæotia.

(1.) **THEBAIC,** *adj.* [from *Thebes* or *Thebais*.]
 Of or belonging to **THEBES** or **THEBAIS**

(2.) **THEBAIC POWDER.** See **PHARMACY, Index.**

(3.) **THEBAIC TINCTURE,** a name given to
LAUDANUM. of the tincture of opium.

(1.) **THEBAID,** a celebrated heroic poem of
 Statius, the subject of which is the civil war of
 Thebes, between the two brothers Eteocles and
 Polynices, or Thebes taken by Thebes.

(2.) **THEBAID,** or **THEBAIS,** the ancient
 name of an extensive district
 in the S. of Upper Egypt, so called from **THEBES**,
 its chief city. It is the least fertile and the least
 populous of any country in Egypt. It is the retreat
 of many Greek Christians, but is chiefly inhabited
 by Arabs, who are zealous enemies to the Turks.
 It is now called **SAID**.

(1.) **THEBAN,** *adj.* [from *Thebes*.] Of or
 belonging to, or sprung from Thebes.

(2.) **THEBAN LEGION,** a legion of Roman sol-
 diers, who suffered martyrdom for Christianity
 under Dioclesian and Maximian. It was com-
 manded by St **MAURICE**, and, together with the
 officers, amounted to 6600 men. This legion re-
 ceived its name from the city of Thebes in Egypt,
 where it was raised. It was sent by Dioclesian to
 check the Bagaudæ, who had excited some dis-
 turbances in Gaul. Maurice having carried his
 troops over the Alps, the emperor Maximian com-
 manded him to employ his utmost exertions to
 extirpate Christianity. This proposal was received
 with horror both by the commander and by the
 soldiers. The emperor, enraged at their oppo-
 sition, commanded the legion to be decimated;
 and when they still declared that they would
 sooner die than do any thing prejudicial to the
 Christian faith, every tenth man of those who
 remained was put to death. Their perseverance
 excited the emperor to still greater cruelty; for
 when he saw that nothing could make them re-
 linquish their religion, he commanded his troops
 to surround them, and cut them to pieces. **Ma-
 urice**, the commander of these Christian heroes,
 and **Exuperus** and **Candidus**, officers of the le-
 gion, who had chiefly instigated the soldiers to
 this noble resistance, signalized themselves by
 their patience and their attachment to the doc-
 trines of the Christian religion. They were mas-
 sacred, it is believed, at Agaune, in Chablais,
 the 22d September 286.—Notwithstanding many
 proofs which support this transaction, **Dubordier**,
Hottinger, **Moyle**, **Burnet**, and **Mosheim**, doubt
 the fact.

THEBANS, *n. s.* the citizens of Thebes.

THEBARTON, a town of England, in Suffolk,
 SW. of Dunwich.

(1.) **THEBES,** an ancient city of Egypt, capital
 of the district of **THEBAIS**, was one of the most
 renowned cities of the ancient world. It was
 also called **DIOSPOLIS**, or the city of Jupiter; and

was built, according to some, by **OSIRIS**, ac-
 cording to others by **BUSIRIS**. Its length, in
 Strabo's time, was 80 furlongs, or 10 miles; but
 this was nothing in comparison of its ancient ex-
 tent, before it was ruined by Cambyzes, which
 was no less than 420 stadia, or 52 miles and an
 half. The wealth of this city was so great, that,
 after it had been plundered by the Persians, what
 was found, on burning the remains of the pillage,
 amounted to above 300 talents of gold and 2300
 of silver.

(II. 1.) **THEBES**, the name of a celebrated city
 of ancient Greece. It is supposed to have been
 built by Cadmus, about the year of the world
 2555. This Cadmus, according to the Greeks,
 was the son of Agenor king of Sidon or of Tyre;
 but the Sidonians say he was his cook, and that
 his wife was a musician at court, with whom he
 ran away into Greece. The Greek writers tell
 us, that being commanded by his father to go in
 search of his daughter Europa, whom Jupiter in
 the shape of a bull had carried off, and forbid to
 return without her, he built, or rebuilt, the city
 of Thebes, after having long sought her in vain.
 He was at first opposed by the Hyantes and Aones,
 the former of whom he defeated in battle, and
 forced to retire into Locris; the latter submitted,
 and were incorporated among his subjects.

(2.) **THEBES, ANCIENT HISTORY OF THE**
KINGDOM OF. Those who endeavour to extract
 some truth from the multitude of fables in which
 the early part of the Grecian history is obscured,
 are of opinion that Cadmus was one of the Can-
 naanites expelled by Joshua; and that he was of
 the family of the Cadmonites mentioned by Moses
 and Joshua. He is universally allowed to have
 introduced the Phœnician letters into Greece, set
 up the first schools, and introduced brass; which,
 from him, had the name of **CADMEAN** given to it.
 The government of Thebes continued for a long
 time monarchical; and the names of a number of
 its kings have been transmitted to us, with some
 account of their transactions; but so much ob-
 scured by fable, that little certain can be deter-
 mined concerning them. See **CREON**, **ETEOCLES**,
LAÏUS, **ŒDIPUS**, &c. We shall therefore here
 only take notice of that period of it when the
 Thebans emerged from their obscurity, and for a
 time held the sovereignty of Greece.

(3.) **THEBES, HISTORY OF THE REPUBLIC OF,**
UNTIL THE BATTLE OF LEUCTRA. Though
 the Thebans are famed in the early period of their
 history for their martial exploits, yet in process
 of time they seem to have degenerated. At the
 time of the invasion of Xerxes, they were the first
 people in Greece who were gained over to the
 Persian interest. On account of this misbeha-
 viour, they were become very obnoxious to the
 other states, especially to the Athenians, whose
 power and renown increased every day, and
 threatened at last to swallow them up altogether.
 The Thebans being in no condition to oppose
 such a formidable power, put themselves under the
 protection of the Spartans, who, out of jealousy
 of the Athenians, readily forgave them; and so
 grateful were the Thebans for the kindness shown
 them at this time, that, during the whole of the
 Peloponnesian war, Sparta had not a more faithful

ally.

ally. By these means they not only recovered the government of Bœotia, of which they had been formerly in possession, till deprived of it on account of their siding with the Persians, but their city became one of the first in Greece. By this prosperity the Thebans were so much elated, that, when the peace of Antalcidas came to be signed, they refused to agree to it, as they were thus once more deprived of the government of Bœotia; so that it was not without the utmost difficulty that they were overawed into it by the other states. Not content with forcing them to give up this point, however, the Spartans undertook to change the form of the Theban government, which at this time was a democracy, and accomplished it through the treachery of those who had the care of the citadel. The Thebans continued under the power of the Spartans for 4 years; at the end of which term a conspiracy being formed against them by some of the principal people in the city, among whom was a young nobleman, named *Pelopidas*, the Spartans were massacred and driven out, and the citadel regained. During the tumult Epaminondas, afterwards the celebrated general, with a number of the best citizens, joined the party of Pelopidas; and the latter having called a general assembly of the Thebans, proclaimed liberty to them, and exhorted them in the strongest manner to fight for their country. This speech was received with the greatest acclamations; Pelopidas was unanimously proclaimed the preserver of Thebes, and was charged with the management of the war which was then to be declared against Sparta. These transactions so much exasperated the Spartans, that they immediately sent their king Cleombrotus against them, though it was then the depth of winter. The Athenians, in the mean time, who had hitherto assisted the Thebans, declined any farther connection, lest they should draw upon themselves the resentment of the Spartans. But they were soon after determined to act again on the same side, by an attempt which the Spartan general, Sphodras, had rashly made on the Piræum or harbour of Athens. Thus, by means of the Athenians, a powerful diversion was made in favour of the Thebans, who gradually recovered all the towns of Bœotia, and at length began to act offensively against their enemies, and made a powerful invasion in Phocis. They had now many sharp encounters with them; which, though they did not amount to decisive battles, yet raised their courage, and depressed that of the Spartans. In the battle of *TANAGRA*, the Lacedæmonians were entirely defeated by the Athenians and their allies. Soon after this, Pelopidas with a body of only 300 Thebans, entirely routed and dispersed near 1000 Spartans. These successes of the Thebans greatly alarmed the Athenians, who continually fought to oppose their growing power. In this opposition they were joined by the Plataeans, who on this account became extremely obnoxious to the Thebans, so that they at last came to a resolution to surprise their city. This they accomplished, and entirely destroyed it, together with *THESPIA*, another city extremely well affected to Athens. Soon after this, the Thebans, encouraged by their success, began to think of en-

larging their territories, and of making encroachments on their neighbours, as they saw other states had done before them. When the general treaty for restoring peace to Greece came to be proposed by the Athenians, and was upon the point of being executed by the rest of the states, the Thebans refused to agree to it; unless they were comprehended in it under the name of *Bœotians*. The consequence was, that Sparta declared war against them, about the year *A. A. C.* 371. The Thebans were in no small consternation to see themselves engaged in a war with the powerful Spartans, without any ally to assist them. However, they resolved to make the best defence they could; and put their army, consisting of 6000 men, under the command of Epaminondas; and at *LEUCTRA*, defeated the Spartans with great slaughter, as related under that article.

(4.) *THEBES, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF PELOPIDAS.* The victorious general, desirous to improve this great victory, sent an herald, crowned with garlands, to communicate it in form to the Athenians, in hopes that this would be an effectual means to reunite them to the Theban interest. But it proved quite otherwise. Athens, which now looked upon them with a jealous eye, and had then in view the sovereignty of Greece, chose rather, if they could not wholly obtain it, to share it with Sparta, than to let the Thebans into the whole; and therefore even declined giving their herald audience. However, the Thebans took care to strengthen themselves by alliances; and, besides the Arcadians and Eleans, had got the Phocians, Locrians, Acarnanians, Eubœans, and other states, under their dependence: so that they were now in a condition to act offensively against the Spartans. Accordingly, under pretence of assisting the Arcadians, they entered Peloponnesus with a gallant army, with Epaminondas and Pelopidas at their head. Here they were joined by the Arcadian and other confederate forces; so that the whole amounted to 40,000, or 50,000 men, besides great numbers of those who followed the camp rather for plunder than fighting, and were computed about 20,000 more. The army was divided into four columns, and moved straight towards Sellasia, the place of their rendezvous, from which they pursued their journey with fire and sword towards Sparta. But here they were repulsed by Agesilaus, who was then returned to that metropolis. To repair, in some measure, this disgrace, and at the same time to leave some lasting monument which should redound as much to his glory as to the mortification of the Spartans, Epaminondas left not their territories till he had restored the posterity of the old Messenians to their ancient dominions, out of which they had been banished near 300 years; rebuilt their capital, and left a strong garrison for its defence. He was, however, like to have been stopped in his return by Iphicrates, whom the Athenians had sent with 12,000 men to intercept him; but this last loitered so long at Corinth, that the Thebans had passed the defiles of Cenchreæ, the chief place where he could have obstructed his retreat had he taken possession of it in proper time. Epaminondas continued his march till he came in full view of the city

city of Corinth. He found the roads choked up with trees, rocks, stones, and every thing that could render them impassable; and the Corinthians well fortified, and resolute on a stout defence. But he came so furiously upon them, notwithstanding all these difficulties, that they abandoned all their entrenchments and outworks to the Thebans, and fled into the city. Thither these pursued them sword in hand, and made an horrid slaughter of them; inasmuch that Corinth must have unavoidably fallen into their hands, had their generals pursued these advantages; but whether they were afraid of the Athenians falling upon them, or apprehended some dangerous ambush in a country with which they were but indifferently acquainted; or whether the army was too much weakened through so many fatigues; or lastly, whether the coldness of the season, it being then the depth of winter, would not permit them to proceed farther, they immediately marched towards Boeotia. This gave such an handle to their enemies, that they met with a very mortifying reception at their return to Thebes, where they were both arrested, and clapped up as state prisoners, for having presumed to prolong their command four months longer than the time limited by law, which time took in almost the whole of their expedition from their first entrance into Peloponnesus. However, at last, the judges being ashamed to proceed any farther, they were both honourably acquitted. This prosecution had been chiefly carried on and encouraged by Meneclides, a discontented Theban, and a bold and able speaker, who, by his artful calumnies at the trial, had so far prevailed with the judges as to get Epaminondas deprived of the government of Boeotia for a whole year, though he could not gain the same advantage against Pelopidas, who was then a greater favourite of the people, as being his senior. By this delay the Spartans, with much difficulty, had recovered themselves from their great defeat at Leuctra, and settled their affairs in as good a posture as they could; but though they had repulsed the Thebans in Peloponnesus, yet from the exploits they had performed there, especially in the dismembering the whole kingdom of Messenia from them, they had still cause to fear what their forces might do under two such generals; and had accordingly taken care to strengthen themselves against them, and to provide themselves with a great number of auxiliaries from other states, especially from Athens, with which they had renewed their old treaty, and had agreed that each should have the command five days alternately. Soon after this treaty the Arcadians renewed the war, and took Pallene in Laconia by storm, put the garrison to the sword, and were presently assisted by the Argives and Eleans, and especially by the Thebans who sent to them 7000 foot and 300 horse under Epaminondas. This so alarmed the Athenians that they immediately sent Gobrias with some forces to oppose his passage, and he so behaved himself against the Thebans, that they were forced to abandon Peloponnesus a second time. This ill success gave fresh occasion to the enemies of Epaminondas to blame his conduct in the highest terms, notwithstanding the singular bravery with

which he and his troops had forced the pass. His friends could not but suspect him of partiality for the Spartans, in not pursuing his advantage over them, and making a greater slaughter of them when he had it in his power; whilst his enemies made it amount to no less than treachery to his country: so that their brave general was once more deprived of the government of Boeotia, and reduced to the condition of a private man. He did not continue long under this disgrace, before an occasion offered to make his services again of such necessity to the state, as to give him an opportunity to retrieve his fame, and wipe off the stain which his enemies had thrown upon him. The Thessalians, who had groaned some time under the tyranny of the usurper ALEXANDER, surnamed the *Pherean*, sent an embassy to Thebes to implore their aid and protection; upon which Pelopidas was immediately sent as ambassador to expostulate with him on their behalf. He was then in Macedon, whence he took the young prince Philip, afterwards the celebrated PHILIP II. to protect and educate him; and, upon his return, marched directly to Pharsalus in Thessaly, to punish the treachery of some mercenaries, who had deserted the Thebans in that expedition; but when he came thither, he was surprised to be met by the tyrant at the head of a numerous army before that city, whilst his own was but an handful of men. However, whether he supposed, or would be thought to do so, that Alexander came thither to justify himself, and answer to the complaints alleged against him, he went, with Ismenias his colleague, to him unarmed and unattended, not doubting but his character as ambassador from so powerful a republic, joined to his own character and authority, would protect them from insult or violence: but he found himself mistaken; for Alexander had no sooner got them in his hands, than he caused them to be seized, and sent prisoners to Phere. The Thebans, highly resenting the indignity offered to their ambassadors, sent immediately an army into Thessaly; but the generals were repulsed with great loss by the *Pherean* usurper; and it was owing to Epaminondas, who was among them only as a private sentinel, that they were not totally cut off. For the Thebans, finding themselves in such imminent danger, which they attributed to the incapacity of their generals, had immediately recourse to him, whose valour and experience had been so often tried; and, partly by persuasions and intreaties, and partly by threats, obliged him to take the command. This soon gave a different turn to their affairs, and converted their flight into a safe and regular retreat; for he took the horse and light-armed foot, and placed himself at their head in the rear, and charged the enemy with such vigour and bravery, that he obliged them to desist from their pursuit. However, as the army had suffered such loss before as not to be able to pursue them in their turn, he was obliged to return with them to Thebes, with their pusillanimous generals; where the latter were fined 12,000 drachmas each, and the former was reinstated in the command, and sent with a new reinforcement to repair the late dishonour, and prosecute their revenge. The news of his being in full march on this errand

greatly

greatly alarmed the tyrant ; but Epaminondas, preferring the safety of his imprisoned colleague to all other considerations, forbore pushing hostilities to extremes, for fear of provoking the enemy to wreak all his fury on him : to prevent which, he contented himself for a while hovering about with his army, and now and then with such slight skirmishes as should intimidate the tyrant, and bring him the sooner to make some satisfactory offers. Alexander being fully convinced of the superiority of the Theban general, was glad to accept of a truce of 30 days, and to restore Pelopidas and Ismenias to him ; upon which he immediately withdrew his forces, and returned with them to Thebes. By this time Thebes was raised to such a height of reputation and glory, as to begin to aim at the sovereignty of Greece. The main obstacle to it was, that the other states grew so jealous of her present greatness, as to enter into the strongest alliances and confederacies to prevent its farther growth ; so that not being able now to procure many allies at home, they made no difficulty to seek for them abroad ; and the Lacedæmonians, by leading the van, gave them a plausible pretence to follow their steps, and to procure an alliance with Persia, which at that time was ready to accept of their offers on any terms ; the only question was, which of the three states should be preferred, Sparta, Athens, or Thebes. The Thebans proposed to their new confederates to send proper deputies to the Persian court, to support their respective interests ; which they readily agreed to. These were the Arcadians, Eleans, and Argives ; at the head of whose deputation Pelopidas was sent on the behalf of the Thebans ; which the Athenians being apprised of, appointed two on their part. These being all arrived at the Persian court, began to pursue each their respective interests ; but Pelopidas had by that time gained such credit there, both for his singular address and his extraordinary exploits, that he was distinguished in a particular manner from all the other deputies, and was received by the king with the highest marks of honour and esteem, who freely owned himself convinced that the Thebans were the people on whom he could most safely depend ; and after having greatly applauded the equity of his demands, ratified and confirmed them with great readiness, to the no small mortification of the other states. The substance of them was, that the liberties formerly granted to the other towns of Greece should be confirmed ; that Messenia, in particular, should continue free and independent on the jurisdiction of Sparta ; that the Athenians should lay up their fleet ; and that the Thebans should be looked upon as the ancient and hereditary friends of Persia. The Thebans took advantage of the dissensions which prevailed among the Greeks as a pretence for increasing their forces ; and Epaminondas thought it a proper opportunity for his countrymen to make a bold effort to obtain the dominion at sea, as they had obtained it in a great measure at land. He proposed it to them in a public assembly, and encouraged their hopes from the experience of the Lacedæmonians, who in Xerxes's time, had with

ten ships only at sea, gained the superiority over the Athenians, who had no fewer than 200 ; and added, that it would be a disgrace now to Thebes to suffer two such republics to engross the empire of so extensive an element, without putting in at least for their share of it. The people readily came into his proposal, with extraordinary applause, and immediately ordered 100 galleys to be equipped ; and in the meanwhile sent him to Rhodes, Chios, and Byzantium, to secure those states in their interest, and get what assistance he could from them. His negotiation had all the success that could be wished for, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the Athenians ; and of their admiral Laches, who was sent with a powerful squadron against him. But what more effectually thwarted all his measures, was the work that they found for him on land, and the obliging the Thebans to take part in the quarrels that then reigned among their neighbours : so that whatever projects they had concerted, they proved abortive at this time. During the absence of that general, and of his colleague Pelopidas, the Orchomenians being spirited up by some Theban fugitives, had formed a design to change the Theban government into an aristocracy ; and 300 horsemen of the former had been actually sent to put it in execution. Their project, however, was timely discovered by the vigilance of the magistrates, who caused them to be seized, and put immediately to death. They next sent a sufficient force against the city of ORCHOMENOS, with orders to put all the men to death, and to sell the women and children for slaves, which was punctually done ; after which they razed that noble city to the ground. Pelopidas was then on his way to Thessaly, at the head of a powerful army, whither he had been sent to assist the Thessalians, who still groaned under the tyranny of Alexander the Phærian, and had made several brave efforts to recover their liberty, but had been still overpowered by that usurper. Being joined by the Thessalians, he encamped in the face of the enemy, though far superior in numbers, and consisting of above 20,000 men. A fierce engagement soon ensued, in which both sides fought with uncommon bravery. The place where the battle was fought was called *Cynocephala*, from several little hills on it, between which there lay a large plain. Both sides endeavoured at first to post themselves on these eminences with their foot, whilst Pelopidas ordered his cavalry to charge that of the enemy below ; which they did with such success, that they soon put them to the rout, and pursued them over the plain. This obliged the tyrant to gain the tops of the hills, where he greatly annoyed the Thessalians who endeavoured to force those ascents : so that Pelopidas was obliged to give over his pursuit to come to their relief. This immediately inspired the Thessalians with fresh courage, who again charged the enemy at several onsets ; and soon threw them into such disorder, that they were forced to give way. Pelopidas no sooner perceived the advantage, than he began to look about for Alexander, with a design of engaging him. Having found him out as he was commanding his right wing, and endeavouring to rally his

men, he moved directly to him; and being got near enough to be heard by him, challenged him to decide the battle by single combat. Alexander, instead of accepting the offer, turned about, and with all the speed he could, ran to screen himself amongst his guards. Upon this Pelopidas charged him with such furious speed, that he obliged him to retire farther, and shelter himself within the thickest ranks; the sight of which made him attack with fresh vigour, and fight more desperately against him. He tried in vain several times to break through their ranks to reach him, cutting down great numbers of those that came forward to oppose him; but his eagerness at length exposed him so far to the enemy's darts, that some of them went quite through his armour, and gave him a desperate wound or two, while the rest advanced and stabbed him in the breast with their spears.

(5.) THEBES, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF EPAMINONDAS. It is scarce possible for words to express the grief and despair which not only his brave Thebans, but likewise the Thessalians and other allies, showed at the sight of their slain general: some of the latter, who had perceived the danger he was exposed to, came down the hill with all possible speed to his relief; but when they perceived that they were come too late to save him, both they and the rest of the little army thought on nothing now but to revenge his death. They rallied accordingly, both horse and foot, as quick as possible, and began to charge the enemy afresh, and with such desperate fury, that they at length gained a complete victory over them, and killed above 5000 of them in their pursuit, besides a much greater number which they had slain on the field of battle, though they still looked upon all these advantages as vastly too small to compensate the loss of their brave general. The news of his death had no sooner reached Thebes, than the whole city went into mourning. However, they sent a reinforcement to the army of 7000 foot and 700 horse, as well to revenge the death of that general, as to improve the victory he had gained over the enemy; by the help of which they fell so furiously on them, that they quickly broke and totally defeated the shattered remains of Alexander's army. Hereupon he was forced to sue for peace, and to accept it on such conditions as the conquerors thought fit to impose. He was at length dispatched in his bed by his wife Thebe, assisted by her brothers, about seven years after his defeat. His body was afterwards dragged along the streets, trodden under foot, and left a prey to the dogs. All this while the Thebans were watching to improve every commotion that happened, every success they met with, to the forwarding of their then favourite project, of increasing their power, and to give laws to Greece. Their late success in Thessaly, and the rupture between the Arcadians and Mantineans at the same time, about some consecrated money which the former had taken out of the temple of Olympia to pay their troops employed against the Eleans, and which the latter called a downright sacrilege, besides other discords in the other states of Greece, gave fresh encouragement to Thebes to set up for arbiters in those

disputes; and so much the more, as those who had embezzled the sacred money, and wanted rather to embroil matters than to have them brought to light, sent that republic word that the Arcadians were just upon the point of revolting to the Spartans, and advised them to come and put an immediate stop to it. At the same time they dispatched some private directions to a Theban officer at Tegea, to apprehend several of their own people as disturbers of the peace. This was accordingly done, and several eminent persons were confined as prisoners of state: they were soon after discharged, and loud complaints were made against such arbitrary and unjust proceedings. The officer was accused before the Theban senate for having intermeddled in their affairs, and endeavoured to interrupt the good correspondence between the two states. It was even insisted on by some of the Tegeans, that he should be indicted and proceeded against by his principals; whilst the more moderate, who foresaw the consequences that were likely to attend such appeals, and that it would infallibly bring the Thebans upon them, loudly protested against their marching into their territories, and did all they could to prevent it. The Thebans, however, were become too powerful and ambitious to miss so fair an opportunity of getting once more footing in Peloponnesus, and Epaminondas was so far from making a secret of their design, that he told the Arcadian deputies in justification of it, that as it was on their account that the Thebans engaged in the war, they had acted treacherously with them in making peace with Athens without their consent. This speech alarmed them greatly; so that even those who were best affected to the Thebans disliked it; and all who had the welfare of Peloponnesus at heart, agreed with the Mantineans, that there was no time to be lost to use all proper means to prevent the impending storm. Athens and Sparta were accordingly applied to, and were easily prevailed upon to assist the Mantineans against the Thebans; and to prevent all disputes about the command of the army, it was agreed that each state should have it in its own territories. But Epaminondas set off in full march at the head of his Boeotian troops, with some Euboean auxiliaries, and a body of stout Thessalian horse; and was joined by the Messenians, Argives, and several other nations, as soon as he had entered Peloponnesus. The confederate army against him had ordered their rendezvous at Mantinea, the place which they concluded would be first attacked, as being the chief seat of those who had revolted from the Thebans. But whilst they were securing themselves on that side, Epaminondas, who wisely considered how far this confederacy and expedition must have drained Sparta of its main strength, broke up privately from Nemæa, where he had lain for some time encamped, and marched all that night to surprise that important capital; but his project being discovered, the vigilant king took care to disconcert it; so that, though the Theban general made several vigorous assaults on that city, he was so stoutly repulsed, and the Spartans behaved with such intrepid valour, that he was forced to retire and turn his arms against Mantinea, which he judged to be quite

quite defenceless; and indeed it was not only drained of its troops, but likewise of its inhabitants, who took that opportunity to gather in their harvest, and were scattered all over the country; so that he would not have met with any difficulty in gaining the town, had not the Athenian auxiliaries come unexpectedly to its relief, and given him a fresh repulse. These two last defeats greatly exasperated the Theban general; and what added to his difficulties was, that the time allotted him for his expedition was almost expired. He was moreover got far into the enemy's country, and saw how narrowly they watched all his motions, and how well prepared they were to oppose him. Under all these difficulties, he considered, that he must immediately resolve upon a decisive battle. In this engagement Epaminondas made the wisest disposition of his troops, attacked and fought with the most intrepid courage and conduct, and had opened himself a way through the Spartan phalanxes, thrown them into the utmost confusion, and made a terrible slaughter of them, inasmuch that the field of battle was covered with their wounded and slain, when in the heat of the fight, having ventured too far, to give them a total overthrow, the enemy rallied again, pouring three volleys of darts at him, some of which he drew out and returned to them, till at length, being covered with wounds, and weakened with the loss of blood, he received a mortal wound from a javelin, and was with great difficulty rescued from the enemy by his brave Thebans, and brought alive, though speechless, into his tent. As soon as he had recovered himself, he asked his friends what was become of his shield; and being told that it was safe, he beckoned to have it brought to him. He next inquired which side had gained the victory; and being answered, The Thebans; he replied, *Then all is well*: and upon observing some of his friends bewailing his untimely death, and his leaving no children, he answered, Yes; I have left two fair daughters, the victory of *LeuGra*, and this of *Mantineia*, to perpetuate my memory. Soon after this, upon drawing the javelin out of his body, he expired.

(6.) **THEBES, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS TOTAL DESTRUCTION BY ALEXANDER.** The consequence of this great general's fall, and of this bloody fight, in which neither side could boast any great advantage over the other, but a great loss of men on both sides, inasmuch that Xenophon makes it a drawn battle, was, that both parties agreed on a cessation of arms, and parted, as it were by consent, to take care of their wounded and slain. The Thebans indeed thus far gained the greater share of glory, that they renewed the fight, and after a most desperate contest, gained the victory over those Spartans that opposed them, and rescued the body of their dying general out of their hands. However, an effectual end was put to this bloody war, and a general peace agreed on by all but Sparta; who refused it only because the Messenians were included in it. But as to the Thebans, they had no great reason to boast of this dear bought victory, since their power and glory began to decline from that very time;

so that it might be truly said, that it rose and set with their great general. On the death of Epaminondas, the Thebans relapsed into their former state of inactivity and indolence; and at last having ventured to oppose Alexander the Great, their city was taken, and the inhabitants slaughtered for several hours, after which the buildings were destroyed. (See *MACEDON*, § 10.)

(7.) **THEBES MODERN HISTORY OF.** Thebes was rebuilt by Cassander, but never afterwards made any considerable figure among the states of Greece. About the year 146 B. C. it fell under the power of the Romans, under which it continued till the extinction of their empire by the Turks. It is now called *THIVE*, and is nothing to what it was formerly; yet it is 4 miles in circumference, but so full of ruins, that there are not above 4000 Turks and Christians in it. It is now famous for a fine sort of white clay, of which they make bowls for pipes after the Turkish fashion. They are never burnt, but dry naturally, and become as hard as a stone. There are two mosques in Thebes, and a great number of Greek churches. It is seated between two small rivers, in Lon. 23. 40. E. Lat. 38. 17. N.

THECAM, a small town of Northumberland, NW. of Corenfle.

THECLA, a noble and learned lady of Alexandria, in Egypt, who in the 4th century, transcribed the whole of the Bible in the Greek language, from the original *SEPTUAGINT* copy, then preserved in the Alexandrian Library; and this ancient copy is still preserved, and constitutes the celebrated *Alexandrine Manuscript*, so often appealed to by commentators. It was presented to King Charles I. by CYRILLUS LUCARIS, patriarch of Constantinople, in 1628. See *SCRIPTURE*, *SECT. VIII.*

THEDDINGWORTH, a town of England, in Leicestershire, NW. of Harborough.

THEDDLESTHORP, a town of Lincolnshire, near Saltfleet.

THEDINGHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, and in the county of Hoya, 12 miles NNW. of Hoya.

* **THEE**, the oblique singular of *thou*.—

Poet and Saint, to *thee* alone were giv'n
The two most sacred names of earth and heav'n.
Cowley.

(1.) * **THEFT.** *n. f.* [from *thief*] 1. The act of stealing.—*Theft* is an unlawful felonious taking away of another man's goods against the owner's knowledge or will. *Cowel.*—His *thefts* were too open. *Shak.*

Their nurse Euriphile,

Whom for the *theft* I wedded, stole these children.
Shak.

—Decree in trade, a secret *theft*: extortion, an impudent *theft*. *Holyday.*—The *thefts* upon the public can be looked into and punished. *Davenant.* 2. The thing stolen.—If the *theft* be certainly found in his hand alive, whether, ox, ass, or sheep, he shall restore double. *Exod. xxii. 4.*

(2.) **THEFT.** In English Law, or SIMPLE LARCENY, is "the felonious taking and carrying away of the personal goods of another." By the Jew-

THE LAW it was only punished with a pecuniary fine, and satisfaction to the party injured; and in the civil law, till some very late constitutions, we never find the punishment capital. The laws of Draco at Athens punished it with death; but his laws were said to be written with blood; and Solon afterwards changed the penalty to a pecuniary mulct. And so the Attic laws in general continued; except that once, in a time of dearth, it was made capital to break into a garden and steal figs; but this law, and the informers against the offence, grew so odious, that from them all malicious informers were styled *SYCOPHANTS*; a name which we have much perverted from its original meaning. The punishment of theft throughout the greatest part of Europe is *capital*. The Anglo-Saxon laws nominally punished theft with death, if above the value of 12d.; but the criminal was permitted to redeem his life by a pecuniary ransom; as, among their ancestors the Germans, by a stated number of cattle. But in the 9th year of Henry I. this power of redemption was taken away, and all persons guilty of larceny above the value of 12d. were directed to be hanged; which law continues in force to this day. For though the inferior species of theft, or *petit larceny*, is only punished by whipping at common law, or, (by stat. 4 Geo. I. c. 11.) may be extended to transportation for 7 years, as is also expressly directed in the case of the Plate-glass Company; yet the punishment of *grand larceny*, or the stealing above the value of 12d. (which sum was the standard in the time of king Athelstan, above 800 years ago), is at common law regularly death, although the mercy of juries will often make them strain a point, and bring in larceny to be under the value of twelvepence, when it is really of much greater value.

(4.) **THEFT**, in Scots Law. See *LAW, Part III. Chap. III. Sect. IV. § 28—30.*

THEFT-BOTE, *n. s.* [from the Saxon *theof*, i. e. a thief and *bote*, *compensatio*,] the receiving of a man's goods again from a thief, after stolen, or otherwise amends not to prosecute the felon, and to the intent the thief may escape; which is an offence punishable with fine and imprisonment, &c.

THEFTUOUS, *adj.* in Scots law, thievish, pilfering, addicted or habituated to theft.

THEIFENECE, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, 5 miles NE. of Wolfsborg.

THEIMSDORF, a town of Lusatia, 6 miles E. of Rornenburg.

* **THEIR**. *n. s.* [*theora*, of *them*, Saxon.] 1. Of them: the pronoun possessive, from *they*.—

The round world should have shook

Lions into civil streets, and citizens into their dens. *Shak.*

—For the Italians, Dante had begun to file *their* language in verse before Boccaccio. *Dryden.* 2.

Theirs is used when any thing comes in construction between the possessive and substantive.—Prayer we always have in our power to bestow, and they never in *theirs* to refuse. *Hooker.*—They gave the same names to their own idols which the Egyptians did to *theirs*. *Raleigh.*—

The penalty to thy transgression due,
And due to *theirs* which out of thine will grow.
Milton.

Nothing but the name of zeal appears,
'Twixt our best actions and the worst of *theirs*.
Denham.

The fault is more *their* language than *theirs*.
Roscommon.

—Which established law of *theirs* seems too strict.
Dryden.—

And reading wish, like *theirs*, our fate and fame.
Pope.

THEISM, *n. s.* [from *ΘΕΟΣ*, God.] The doctrine, or belief, that there is but one God. This word is synonymous with *Deism*, the latter being derived from the Latin, the former from the Greek. See **DEISM**.

THEIST. *n. s.* [from *ΘΕΟΣ*, Gr. God.] One who believes in the eternal existence of one God. A word synonymous with *Deist*. See **DEIST**. All Christians, Jews, and even Mahometans, are Theists, or Deists, though all Theists are not Christians.

THEISTICAL, *adj.* [from *Theist*.] Of or belonging to Theism, or Deism; the opposite of *atheistical*; favouring of the principles of Deism.

THELIGONUM, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *monœcia*, and order of *polyandria*: and in the natural method ranging under the 53d order, *Scabridæ*. The male calyx is bifid; there is no corolla; the stamina are generally 12. The female calyx is also bifid; there is no corolla; only one pistil; the capsule is coriaceous, unilocular, and monospermous. There is only one species, viz.

THELIGONUM CYNOCRAMBE, which is indigenous in the South of Europe.

THELUSSON, Peter Isaac, a native of Geneva, who settled for many years as a merchant in London, where he accumulated an immense fortune, which, at his death in 1798, he left by will to be disposed of as follows. Above 100,000l. to his widow and children, and all the rest to accumulate till a certain period, when if none of his descendants shall then be in life, the whole is to be devoted to the Sinking Fund, to pay off the NATIONAL DEBT, and to be entirely at the disposal of the British Parliament. It is estimated, that within 120 years, there will be none of his posterity in life, and the sum will then have accumulated to 140 millions of pounds sterling. His descendants applied to the Court of Chancery to get this will set aside, but without success.

* **THEM**, the oblique of *they*.—The materials of *them* were not from any herb. *Wilkins.*

THEMAR, a town of Franconia, in Henneberg seated on the Werra. In 1634, it was mostly burnt by the Croats. It is 12 miles SE. of Meiningen.

* **THEME**. *n. s.* [*thème*, Fr. from *θημα*.] 1. A subject on which one speaks or writes.—Every object of our idea is called a *theme*, whether it be a being or not being. *Watts.*—

Two truths are told,

As happy prologues to the swelling act
Of the imperial *theme*. *Shak.*

When a soldier was the *theme*, my name
Was not far off. *Shak.*

O! could I flow like thee, and make thy
stream

My great example, as it is my *theme*. Denham.
Whatever near Eurota's happy stream,
With laurels crown'd, had been Apollo's *theme*.

Roscommon.

These now no more shall be the mule's *themes*.

Pope.

1. A short dissertation written by boys on any topic.—Forcing the empty wits of children to compose *themes*. Milton. 3. The original word whence others are derived.—Let scholars daily reduce the words to their original or *theme*. Watts.

(1.) THEMIS, in the mythology, the goddess of justice, but different from *ASTRÆA*; she was a daughter of Coelus and Terra, and according to the poets, was compelled to marry Jupiter, by whom she became mother of the *PARCÆ* or *FATES*, and of *Dice*, *Eunomia*, *Irene*, &c. Her oracle was famous in Attica in the age of *DEUCALION*, who consulted her after the Deluge, and was directed how to repopulate the world. She is represented with a pair of scales in one hand, and a sword in the other. Lemp.

(2.) THEMIS, the daughter of Ilus, king of Troy, who married Capys, and became mother of *ANCHISES*, the father of *JENAS*. *Apollod.* iii. c. 12.

(3.) THEMIS, in geography, a river of Transylvania, which runs into the Alaut, near Marienburg.

THEMISON, a celebrated physician of Laodicea, a disciple of *ASCLEPIADES*. He founded the *METHODIC SECT*, with a view to the more easily teaching and practising the art of medicine. (See *MEDICINE*, *Index*.) Themison gave the first account of *diacodium*, which was prepared of the juice and decoction of poppy-heads and honey. He invented a purging medicine called *heira*.

THEMISTIUS, an ancient Greek orator and philosopher, a native of Paphlagonia, who flourished in the 4th century. He had great interest and favour with the emperors in his time, and, though a heathen, was of a very tolerating spirit. He taught for many years at Constantinople, of which city he was made præfect by Julian and Theodosius; and lived to be very old. More than 50 of his orations are still extant, besides commentaries on several parts of Aristotle's works.

THEMISTOCLES, the renowned Athenian admiral, general, and patriot, who gained the battle of *SALAMIS* against the Persians. Being banished his country by his ungrateful fellow citizens, he fled to Artaxerxes king of Persia; but to avoid taking up arms against his country, he slew himself, 464 B. C. See *ATTICA*, § 11.

* **THEMSELVES**. *n. s.* [See *THEY* and *SELFS*.] 1. These very persons: in this sense it is nominative.—Whatever evil befalleth in that, *themselves* have made *themselves* worthy to suffer it. Hooker.

2. The oblique case of *they* and *selves*.—They open to *themselves* at length the way.

Milton.

—Such things as in *themselves* are equally true and certain, may not yet be capable of the same kind or degree of evidence. Wilkins.—Give them kind usage till they come perfectly to *themselves*. Locke.

* **THEN**. *adv.* [than, Gothick; than, Saxon;

dan, Dutch.] 1. At that time.—The *then* bishop of London, Dr Laud. Clarendon.—

Thence, then a boy, with my arms I laid.

Dryden.

2. Afterwards; immediately afterwards; soon afterwards.—if an herb be cut off from the roots in Winter, and *then* the earth be trodden down hard, the roots will become very big in Summer. Bacon. 3. In that case; in consequence.—If God's immediate speaking and writing argueth precepts to be perpetually moral; *then* his not writing of precepts argueth them to be temporary. White.—

Had not men been fated to be blind,
Then had our lances pierc'd the treach'rous wood.

Dryden.

Had fate so pleas'd I had been eldest born,
And *then* without a crime the crown had worn.

Dryden.

—If all this be so, *then* man has a natural freedom. Locke. 4. Therefore; for this reason.—Whiles *then* the apostle moves us to unity. Holyday.—

If *then* his providence

Out of our evil seek to bring forth good. Milt.
Now *then* be all thy weighty cares away.

Dryden.

5. At another time: as *now* and *then*, at one time and other.—

Now shaves with level wing the deep, *then* soars.

Milton.

—One while the master is not aware of what is done, and *then* in other cases it may fall out to be his own act. L'Estrange. 6. That time: it has here the effect of a noun.—

Till *then* who knew

Milton.

THENAR, or **TENAR**, in anatomy, the muscle that draws the thumb from the fingers, called also *Abductor brevis Pollicis*. See *ABDUCTOR*, § 10, and *ANATOMY*, § 214, N° 2.

THENATH. See *TAANATH-SHILOH*.

* **THENCE**. *n. s.* [contracted, according to *Minsheu*, from *there hence*.] 1. From that place.

Fast by the oracle of God; I *thence*

Invoke thy aid.

Milton.

Surat he took, and *thence* preventing fame,
By quick and painful marches thither came.

Dryden.

2. From that time.—There shall be no more *thence* an infant of days. Isa. lxxv. 3. For that reason.—

Not to sit idle with so great a gift

Uclefs, and *thence* ridiculous about him. Milt.

3. From *thence* is a barbarous expression, *thence* implying the same, yet it wants not good authorities.—

From *thence*; from him, whose daughter

His tears proclaim'd his parting with her;

thence

We have cross'd.

Shak.

There plant eyes, all mist from *thence*

Purge and disperse.

Milton.

* **THENCEFORTH**. *adv.* [*thence* and *forth*.]

1. From that time.—

Thenceforth this land was tributary made

T'ambitious Rome.

Spenser.

—They shall be placed in Leinster, and have land given

given them, to labour *thenceforth* for their living.
Spenser.—

Wrath shall be no more
Thenceforth, but in thy presence joy entire.

Milton.

2. *From thenceforth* is a barbarous corruption, though it has crept into books where it ought not to be found.—

Avert

His holy eyes; resolving *from thenceforth*
To leave them to their own polluted ways.

Milton.

—Men grow acquainted with these self-evident truths; but whosoever does so, finds in himself that he then begins to know a proposition which he knew not before, and which *from thenceforth* he never questions. *Locke.*

* **THENCEFORWARD.** *adv.* [*thence* and *forward*.] On from that time.—When he comes to the Lord's table, every communicant professes to lead a new life *thenceforward*. *Kettleswell.*

THEOBALD, Lewis, the son of an attorney at Sittingbourne in Kent, was a well-known writer and critic in the early part of the 18th century. He engaged in a paper called the *Censor*, published in *Miss's Journal*, wherein, by delivering his opinions with too little reserve concerning some eminent wits, he exposed himself to their resentment. Upon the publication of Pope's *Homer*, he praised it in terms of extravagant admiration, yet afterwards thought proper to abuse it as earnestly; for which Pope at first made him the hero of his *Dunciad*, though he afterwards laid him aside for another. Mr Theobald not only exposed himself to the lashes of Pope, but waged war with Mr Dennis, who treated him more roughly, though with less satire. He nevertheless published an edition of *Shakespeare*, in which he corrected, with great pains and ingenuity, many faults that had crept into that poet's writings. This edition is still in great esteem, being in general preferred to those published by Pope, Warburton, and Hanmer. He also wrote some plays, and translated others from the ancients.

THEOBROMA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polyadelphia*, and order of *pentandria*; and in the natural system ranging under the 37th order, *Colummiferae*. The calyx is triphyllous; the petals, which are five in number, are vaulted and two-horned; the nectarium is pentaphyllous and regular; the stamina grow from the nectarium, each having five antheræ. There are three species, viz.

1. **THEOBROMA ANGUSTA.**

2. **THEOBROMA CACAO**, or *chocolate tree*. This tree delights in shady places and deep valleys. It is seldom above 20 feet high. The leaves are oblong, large, and pointed. The flowers spring from the trunk and large branches; they are small, and pale red. The pods are oval and pointed. The seeds or nuts are numerous, and curiously stowed in a white pithy substance. See **CHOCOLATE**.

3. **THEOBROMA GUAZUMA.**

(1.) * **THEOCRACY.** *n. f.* [*theocratic*, Fr. *théocratique*, and *cratie*.] Government immediately superintended by God.—The characters of the reign of Christ are chiefly justice, peace, and divine presence or conduct, which is called *theocracy*. *Barnet.*

(2.) **THEOCRACY.** The only theocracy, or a state governed by the immediate direction of God alone, that ever was in the world, was the ancient government of the Jews before the reign of Saul. Many Christians believe that the final consummation of all things will terminate in an universal theocracy.

* **THEOCRATICAL.** *adj.* [*theocratique*, Fr. from *theocracy*.] Relating to a government administered by God.—The government is neither human nor angelical, but peculiarly *theocratical*. *Barnet.*

THEOCRITUS, the father of pastoral poetry, was born at Syracuse in Sicily, and flourished under Hiero, who began his reign about A. A. C. The compositions of this poet are distinguished among the ancients by the name of *Idylliums*, in order to express their smallness and variety: they would now be called *Miscellanies*, or *Poems on several Occasions*. The works of this poet were first published in folio by Aldus Manutius at Venice in 1495. But the best edition was published in 1770, in 2 vols 4to, by Mr Thomas Warton.

THEODATUS, or **THEODORUS**, the third king of the Ostrogoths in Italy, was raised to the throne by his aunt Amalasuntha, who married him, but whom the villain ungratefully murdered. See **ITALY**, § 8.

THEODICY. *n. f.* a branch of metaphysics, otherwise called *Metaphysical Theology*. See **METAPHYSICS**, § 6.

THEODOBERT, grandson of Clovis. See **FRANCE**, § 7. 8.

(1.) * **THEODOLITE.** *n. f.* A mathematical instrument for taking heights and distances.

(2.) **THEODOLITE.** See **GEOMETRY**, Part II. Sec. II.

THEODORE, king of Corsica, baron Nieuhoff in the county of La Marc in Westphalia. He had his education in the French service, and afterwards went to Spain; but being of an unsettled disposition, he quitted Spain, and travelled into Italy, England, and Holland, in search of some new adventure. He at last fixed his attention on Corsica, and formed the scheme of rendering himself sovereign of that island. He went to Tunis, where he fell upon means to procure some money and arms; and then went to Leghorn, from whence he wrote a letter to the Corsican chiefs Giafferi and Paoli, offering considerable assistance to the nation if they would elect him as their sovereign. This letter was configned to Count Dominico Rivarola, who acted as Corsican plenipotentiary in Tuscany; and he gave for answer, that if Theodore brought the assistance he promised to the Corsicans, they would very willingly make him king. Upon this he, without loss of time, set sail, and landed at Tavagna in spring 1736. He had a few attendants with him; and his manners were so engaging, and his offers so plausible, that he was proclaimed king of Corsica before Count Rivarola's dispatches arrived to inform the chiefs of the terms upon which he had agreed. Theodore instantly assumed every mark of royal dignity. The Genoese were not a little confounded with this unexpected adventurer. They published a violent manifesto against Theodore, treating him with great contempt; but at the same time

time showing they were alarmed at his appearance. Theodore replied in a manifesto, with all the calmness and dignity of a monarch; but after being about eight months in Corsica, perceiving that the people began to cool in their affections towards him, he assembled his chiefs, and declared he would keep them no longer in a state of uncertainty, being determined to seek in person the support he had so long expected. He settled an administration during his absence, recommended unity in the strongest terms, and left the island with reciprocal assurances of fidelity and affection. He went to Holland, where he was so successful as to obtain credit from several rich merchants, particularly Jews, who trusted him with cannon and other warlike stores to a great value, under the charge of a supercargo. With these he returned to Corsica in 1739; but by this time the French, as auxiliaries to the Genoese, had become so powerful in the island, that though Theodore threw in his supply of warlike stores, he did not incline to venture his person, the Genoese having set a high price on his head. He therefore again departed; and after many unavailing attempts to recover the crown, at length retired to England, where he was reduced so low as to be several years before his death a prisoner for debt in the King's Bench. At length, to the honour of some gentlemen of rank, a charitable contribution was set on foot for him in 1753, by which he was released from prison; but the remainder of his life was spent in extreme poverty. Theodore died 11th Dec. 1756, and was buried in St Anne's churchyard, Westminster. He left a son, the late Col. FREDERICK, who was an accomplished gentleman.

THEODORET, bishop of St Cyricus in Syria, in the 4th century, and one of the most learned fathers of the church, was born A. D. 386, and was the disciple of Theodorus of Mopsuestes and St John Chrysostom. Having received holy orders, he was with difficulty persuaded to accept of the bishopric of St Cyricus, about A. D. 420. He displayed great frugality in the expences of his table, dress, and furniture, but spent considerable sums in improving and adorning the city of Cyricus. Yet his zeal was not confined to his own church: he went to preach at Antioch and the neighbouring towns, where he became admired for his eloquence and learning, and had the happiness to convert multitudes of people. He wrote in favour of John of Antioch and the Nestorians, against Cyril's *Twelve Anathemas*: he afterwards attacked the opinions of Nestorius, and was deposed in the synod held by the Eutychians at Ephesus; but was again restored by the general council of Chalcedon, in which he was present, in 451. It is thought that he died soon after; though others say that he lived till A. D. 457. There are still extant Theodore's excellent *Commentary on St Paul's Epistles*, and on several other books of the Holy Scriptures. 2. His *Ecclesiastical History*, from the time of Arius to Theodosius the Younger. 3. *History of the Anchorites*. 4. *Epistles*. 5. *Discourses on Providence*. 6. A treatise entitled, *De Curandis Græcorum Affectionibus*; and other works. The best edition is that of Sirmond, in Greek and Latin, in 4 vols folio.

(1.) **THEODORICK**, the first and greatest monarch of the OSTROGOTHS in Italy. He had many virtues, shaded with some vices. He defeated Clovis king of France, and Odoacer king of Italy, A. D. 526. See FRANCE, § 6. GOTHS, and ITALY, § 6. and 7.

(2.) **THEODORICK**, or THIERRI, king of Metz; the eldest son of Clovis. See FRANCE, § 7.

THEODORUS, bishop of Mopsuestes, a city in Cilicia, a learned prelate of the 5th century. He wrote a *Commentary on the Psalms*, another *On the Twelve Minor Prophets*; which, with some other fragments, are extant. He died A. D. 428. But his works were condemned in the 5th general council, as favouring Nestorianism (see NESTORIANS) and Socinianism.

THEODOSIA. See CAFFA, N° 2.

THEODOSIANS. See CONTOBARDITES.

(1.) **THEODOSIUS**, a celebrated mathematician, who flourished in the times of Cicero and Pompey, but the time and place of his death are unknown. Theodosius chiefly cultivated that part of geometry which relates to the doctrine of the sphere, concerning which he published three books, of which a good English translation was made by Dr Barrow.

(2.) **THEODOSIUS I.** called the GREAT, was a native of Spain. The valour he had shown, and the great services he had done to the empire, made Gratian, attacked by the Goths and Germans, to admit him as a partner in the government. He received the purple in A. D. 379, aged 43. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 8.

(3.) **THEODOSIUS II.** See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 8. EUDOCIA, and PULCHERIA, N° 3.

(1.) **THEODOTUS**. See ITALY, § 8. and THEODATUS.

(2.) **THEODOTUS**, a native of Byzantium, who flourished in the reign of Marcus Aurelius, and at first professed Christianity, but during the persecution under that emperor, renounced it, and afterwards set up a new heresy, called from him *Theodotian*, or *Theodosian*. See THEODOSIANS. He was a tanner by profession.

THEOGNIS, an ancient Greek poet of Megara in Achaia, who flourished about the 59th Olympiad, 144 B. C. We have a work of his extant, concerning a summary of precepts and reflections, usually to be found in the collections of the Greek minor poets.

(1.) * **THEOGONY**. *n. f.* [*theogenic*, Fr. *theogonie*.] The generation of the gods. *Bailey*.

(2.) **THEOGONY**, [from *Θεός*, God, and *γενετήρ*, genitura, seed or offspring.] Hesiod gives us the ancient theogony, in a poem under that title. Among the most ancient writers, Dr Burnet observes, that theogony and cosmogony signified the same thing. In effect, the generation of the gods of the ancient Persians, fire, water, and earth, is apparently no other than that of the primary elements. See POLYTHEISM.

* **THEOLOGER**. } *n. f.* [*theologien*, Fr. *theologie*.]
* **THEOLOGIAN**. } *logus*, Lat.] A divine; a professor of divinity.—Some theologians desire places erected only for religion by defending oppressions. *Hayward*.—

They to their viands fell: nor seemingly
The

The angel, nor in mist, the common glofs
Of *theologians*, but with keen dispatch
Of real hunger. *Milton.*

* **THEOLOGICAL.** *adj.* [*theologique*, Fr. *theologia*, Lat.] Relating to the science of divinity.—Although some pens have only symbolized the same from the mystery of its colours, yet are there other affections might admit of *theological* allusions. *Brown.*—They generally are extracts of *theological* and moral sentences drawn from ecclesiastical and other authors. *Swift.*

* **THEOLOGICALLY.** *adv.* [from *theological*.] According to the principles of theology.

* **THEOLOGIST.** } *n. s.* [*theologus*, Lat.] A
* **THEOLOGUE.** } divine; one studious in
the science of divinity.—The cardinals of Rome; which are *theologues*, friars, and schoolmen. *Bacon.*

A *theologue* more by need than genial bent.

Dryden.

—It is no more an order, according to popish *theologists*, than the prima tonsura, they allowing only seven ecclesiastical *theologists*. *Ayliffe.*

T H E O L O G Y.

ETYMOLOGY AND DEFINITIONS.

* **THEOLOGY.** *n. s.* [*theologie*, Fr. *θεολογία*.] Divinity.—The whole drift of the scripture of God, what is it but only to teach *theology*? *Theology*, what is it but the science of things divine? *Hooker.*—She was most dear to the king in regard of her knowledge in languages, in *theology*, and in philosophy. *Hayward.*—The oldest writers of *theology* were of this mind. *Tillotson.*

THEOLOGY OF DIVINITY is that science which treats of the being and attributes of God, his relations to us, the dispensations of his providence, his will with respect to our actions, and his purposes with respect to our end. The word was first used to denote the systems of those poets and philosophers who wrote of the genealogy and exploits of the gods of Greece. Hence ORPHEUS, MUSEUS, HESIOD, PHERCYDES, and PYTHAGORAS, were called *theologians*; as was PLATO, on account of his speculations on the same subject. It was afterwards adopted by the earliest writers of the Christian church, who styled the author of the apocalypse, by way of eminence, *ὁ θεολόγος*, the *Divine*.

INTRODUCTION.

THE Pagan systems are treated of under **POLYTHEISM**; and that of the Mahometans under **ALCORAN** and **MAHOMETANISM**: the only theology of which we have to treat at present is **CHRISTIAN THEOLOGY**, which comprehends that which is commonly called *natural*, and that which is *revealed* in the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments. These taken together, and they ought never to be separated, compose a body of science so important, that in comparison with it all other sciences sink into insignificance. But if this knowledge be necessary to all Christians, it is doubly so to those who are appointed to feed the flock of Christ.

The principles of this science are to be found only in the word and works of God; but before entering on this study, much previous knowledge is requisite. A general acquaintance with the physical and mathematical sciences is necessary; for just and enlarged conceptions of the God of the universe, cannot otherwise be obtained. See **PHYSICS**, *Sec.* III. The student should also make himself acquainted with the principles of logic, the several powers of the human mind, and the different sources of evidence; in doing which he

will find the greatest assistance from Bacon's *Novum Organum*, Locke's *Essay on the Human Understanding*, Reid's *Essays on the Intellectual and Active Powers of Man*, and Tatham's *Chart and Scale of Truth*. These works, of which the young student ought to make himself master, will teach him to think justly, and guard him against a thousand errors, which those who have not laid such a foundation are apt to embrace as the truths of God.

It is obvious that a knowledge of the languages in which the scriptures were written, is absolutely necessary; and the student will not neglect to read those works of the ancients as well as moderns, which will direct him in the acquisition of that simple but powerful oratory which ought to be possessed by a preacher of the gospel.

PRELIMINARY DIRECTIONS for the STUDY of THEOLOGY.

CHRISTIAN THEOLOGY is divided into two great parts, *natural* and *revealed*: the former comprehending that which may be known of God from the creation of the world, even his eternal power and Godhead; the latter, that which is discovered to man only in the Bible.

Concerning the extent of natural theology many opinions have been formed; but into these disputes we mean not to enter. It is undeniable that there are some of the principles of theology which may be called *natural*; for though it is probable that the parents of mankind received all their theological knowledge by *supernatural* means, it is yet obvious that some parts of that knowledge must have been capable of a proof purely rational, otherwise not a single religious truth could have been conveyed through the succeeding generations of the human race but by the immediate inspiration of each individual. We indeed admit many propositions as certainly true, upon the sole authority of the Jewish and Christian scriptures; but it is self-evident that we could not do either the one or the other, were we not convinced by natural means that God exists, that he is a Being of goodness, justice, and power, and that he inspired with divine wisdom the penmen of these sacred volumes. Now, though it is very possible that no man or body of men, left to themselves from infancy in a desert world, would ever have made a theological discovery; yet whatever propositions relating to the being and attributes of the first cause and the duty of man, can be demonstrated

monstrated by human reason, independent of written revelation, may be called *natural theology*, and are of great importance, as being to us the first principles of all religion. Natural theology, in this sense of the word, is the foundation of the Christian revelation; for without a previous knowledge of it, we could have no evidence that the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments are indeed the word of God.

The young divine, therefore, in the regular order of his studies, ought to make himself master of *natural theology* before he enter upon the important task of searching the scriptures. On this subject many books have been published in our own and other languages; but perhaps there are none more worthy of attention than *The Religion of Nature Delineated* by Mr WOLLASTON, CUMBERLAND on the *Law of Nature*, PALEY's *Elements of Moral Philosophy*, and CUDWORTH's *Intellectual System*.

After such a course, he may study the scriptures, directing himself as much as possible of the prejudices of education in behalf of a particular system of faith, and sitting down to the study of the sacred volume as of a work to which he is an entire stranger. He ought first to read it as a moral history of facts and doctrines, beginning with the books of Moses, and proceeding through the rest, not in the order in which they are commonly published, but in that in which there is reason to believe they were written. (See SCRIPTURE.) In this perusal we would advise him to consult no commentator, because his object now is not to study the doctrines contained in the bible, but merely to discover what are the subjects of which it treats. Many histories of the bible have been written; among these, Stackhouse's, with all its defects, may be useful as a guide to the series of facts recorded in the scriptures. Between the Old and New Testaments there is a great chasm in the history of the Jewish nation; but it is supplied in a very able and satisfactory manner by Dr PRIDEAUX, whose *Connection of the History of the Old and New Testaments* is one of the most valuable historical works in any language. Shuckford's *Sacred and Profane History of the World connected*, may likewise be read with advantage, as throwing light upon many passages of the Old Testament.

It will next be the student's business to consider the doctrines of scripture, and to distinguish such as relate to the whole human race, from those in which Abraham and his posterity were alone interested. He must therefore travel over the sacred volume a second time; and still we would advise him to travel without a guide. From Walton's *Polyglot bible*, and the large collection called *Critici sacri*, he may indeed derive much assistance in his endeavours to ascertain the sense of a difficult text; but he should make little use of commentators and expositors, and still less of system-builders, till he has formed some opinions of his own respecting the leading doctrines of the Jewish and Christian religion. In the course of this inquiry into the import of the sacred volume, the student will pay particular attention to the circumstances of the age and country in which its

various writers respectively lived, and to the nature of the different styles, *analogical* and *parabolical*, in which it is written. He will likewise keep in mind that God, whom it claims for its author, is the parent of truth, and that all his actions and dispensations must be consistent with one another. He will therefore compare the different passages of the Old and New Testaments which relate to the same doctrine, or to the same event, reasonably concluding that the bible must be the best interpreter of itself.

Those systems of divinity which are most approved are;—by the divines of the *Arminian school*, Episcopius's *Theologic Institutiones*, Limborch's *Theologia Christiana*, and Locke's *Reasonableness of Christianity*; whilst the followers of CALVIN have preferred the *Institutiones* of their master, Turretine's *Institutio Theologic Elenctica*, and Gill's *Body of Divinity*.

As the Jewish and Christian dispensations are closely linked together, being in truth but parts of one great whole, it is impossible to have an adequate notion of the latter without understanding the design of the former. Now, though the Mosaic religion is nowhere to be learned but in the Old Testament, it may be proper for our student, after he has formed his own opinions of it from that sacred source, to know what has been written on the subject by others. For illustrating the ritual law, a learned prelate warmly recommends the *Ductor Dubitantium* of Maimonides, and Spencer's book entitled *De Legibus Hebræorum Ritualibus*. Both works have undoubtedly great merit; but our young divine will do well to read along with them *Hermanni Witsii Egyptiæ*, and Dr Woodward's *Discourse on the Worship of the Ancient Egyptians*, communicated to the London Society of Antiquaries in 1775, where some of Spencer's notions are shortly and ably refuted. On the other parts of this dispensation, the reader will find much erudition and ingenuity displayed in the 2d part of Warburton's *Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated*.

Having proceeded thus far in the course, the student's business should now be to enquire seriously what evidence there is that the doctrines which he has so carefully studied were indeed revealed in times past by God. The first step towards the embracing of any truth is, to get fairly rid of the objections which are made to it; and the general objections made by deistical writers to the Christian revelation are by no writer more completely removed than by Bishop Butler, in his celebrated work entitled *Analogy of Religion natural and revealed to the Constitution and Course of Nature*. The student must also read *Grotius de Veritate Religionis Christianæ*, and Stillingfleet's *Origines Sacreæ*. Other works may be read with great advantage, as Paley's *Evidences of the Christian Religion*, and Leslie's *Short Method with the Deists*. To these defences of revelation we may add the collection of sermons preached at Boyle's lecture from 1691 to 1732, published in 3 vols. fol. 1739; the works of Leland; Bishop Newton's *Disquisitions on the Prophecies*; and above all, Lardner's *Credibility of the Gospel History*, with the Supplement.

L I

Having

Having satisfied himself of the truth of revelation in general, it may be useful for the young divine to provide a defence of the Christian religion against the objections of modern Judaism. In this part of his studies he will need no other instruction than what he may reap from Limborch's work entitled *De Veritate Religionis Christianæ amica collatio cum erudito Judæo*. See OROBIO and LIMBORCH.

The various controversies subsisting between the several denominations of Christians, about points which separate them into different churches, ought next to be studied in the order of the course; yet we would by no means recommend deep immersion in polemical controversies. A complete knowledge of ecclesiastical history will be a safe introduction to this part of the study. There are many histories of the Christian church which possess great merit, but we are acquainted with none which appears wholly impartial. MOSHEIM's is perhaps the most perfect compend. There is no coming at the true history of the primitive church, but by studying the works of the primitive writers. The rise and progress of the Reformation in general, may be best learned from Sicidan's book *De Statu Religionis et Reipublicæ, Caroli V. Cæsaris. Commentarii*; the History of the Reformation of the Church of Scotland from KNOX and SPOTSWOOD; and that of the Church of England from the much applauded work of Bishop BURNET. The Bp. of Landaff recommends DUPIN's, EACHARD's, GREGORY's, FORMEY's, and JABLONSKI's *Ecclesiastical Histories*, as works of merit.

After this course of ecclesiastical history, the young divine may read with advantage the most important controversies which have agitated the Christian world; for he will now read them without danger of giving up his faith to the mere authority of great names. To enumerate these controversies, and to point out the ablest authors who have written on each, would be a very tedious, but not a very profitable task. On that between the Romish and Protestant churches, we would recommend CHILLINGWORTH's *Religion of Protestants a safe way to Salvation*; in which the long dispute between the Popish and Reformed churches is placed on its proper ground, the Holy Scriptures.

PART I.

OF NATURAL THEOLOGY.

SECT. I. Of the BEING and ATTRIBUTES of GOD.

THE existence of God is the foundation of all religion, and the first principle of the science which is the subject of this article. It is likewise a principle which must command the assent of every man who has any notion of the relation between effects and their causes, and whose curiosity has ever been excited by the phenomena of nature. This great and important truth we have elsewhere endeavoured to demonstrate; (see METAPHYSICS, SECT. XXXI—XXXIX; but it may be proved by arguments much more simple than the nature of that article required us to use.

We see that the human race, and every other

species of animals, is at present propagated by the co-operation of two parents; but has this process continued from eternity? A moment's reflection will convince us that it has not. Let us take any one man alive, and, to avoid perplexity, let us suppose his father and mother dead, and himself the only person at present existing; how came he into the world? It will be said he was produced mechanically or chemically by the conjunction of his parents, and that his parents were produced in the same manner by theirs. Let this then be supposed; it must surely be granted, that when this man was born, an addition was made to the series of the human race. But a series which can be enlarged may likewise be diminished; and by tracing it backwards, we must at some period, however remote, reach its beginning. There must therefore have been a first pair of the human race, who were not propagated by the conjunction of parents. How did these come into the world?

ANAXIMANDER tells us, that the first men and all animals were bred in warm moisture, inclosed in crustaceous skins like crab-fish or lobsters; and that when they arrived at a proper age, their shelly prisons growing dry, broke, and made way for their liberty. EMPEDOCLES informs us, that mother Earth at first brought forth vast numbers of legs, and arms, and heads, &c. which, approaching each other, arranging themselves properly, and being cemented together, started up at once full grown men. Another of these philosophers relates, that there first grew up a sort of worms, which having their roots in the earth, attracted thence a kind of milk for the nourishment of the fœtus, which in process of time broke through the membranes and shifted for itself; whilst the Egyptian fathers of this hopeful school contented themselves with simply affirming, that animals like vegetables sprung at first from the bosom of the earth.

Surely those fables, or their followers, should have been able to tell us why the earth has not in any climate this prolific power of putting forth vegetable men or the parts of men at present. If this universal parent be eternal and self-existent, it must be incapable of decay or the smallest change in any of its qualities: if it be not eternal, we shall be obliged to find a cause for its existence, or at least for its form and all its powers. But such a cause may have produced the first human pair, and undoubtedly did produce them, without making them spring as plants from the soil. Indeed the growth of plants themselves clearly evinces a cause superior to any vegetative power which can be supposed inherent in the earth. No plant, from the sturdy oak to the creeping ivy, can be propagated but by seed or slips from the parent stock; but when one contemplates the regular process of vegetation, the existence of every plant implies the prior existence of a parent seed, and the existence of every seed the prior existence of a parent plant. Which then of these, the oak or the acorn, was the first, and whence was its existence derived? Not from the earth; for we have the evidence of universal experience that the earth never produces a tree but from seed, nor seed but from a tree. There must therefore be some superior power which formed the first seed or the first

first tree, planted it in the earth, and gave to it those powers of vegetation by which the species has been propagated to this day.

Thus clearly do the processes of generation and vegetation indicate a power superior to those which are usually called the *powers of nature*. The same thing appears no less evident from the laws of attraction and repulsion, which plainly prevail through the whole system of matter, and hold together the stupendous structure. Experiment shows that very few particles of the most solid body are in actual contact with each other; (see *OPTICS, Index, and PHYSICS, Sect. III.*) and that there are considerable interstices between the particles of every elastic fluid, is obvious to the smallest reflection. Yet the particles of solid bodies strongly cohere, whilst those of elastic fluids repel each other. How are these phenomena accounted for? To say that the former is the effect of attraction and the latter of repulsion, is only to say that two individual phenomena are subject to those laws which prevail through the whole of the classes under which they are respectively arranged; whilst the question at issue is concerning the *ORIGIN OF THE LAWS THEMSELVES*, the *power* which makes the particles of gold cohere, and those of air repel each other. Power without substance is inconceivable; and by a law of human thought, no man can believe a being to operate but where it is in some manner or other actually present: but the particles of gold adhere, and the particles of air keep at a distance from each other, by powers exerted where no matter is present. There must therefore be some substance endowed with power which is not material.

Of this substance or Being the power is evidently immense. The earth and other planets are carried round the sun with a velocity which human imagination can hardly conceive. That this motion is not produced by the agency of these vast bodies on one another, or by the interposition of any material fluid, has been shown elsewhere, (see *METAPHYSICS, Sect. XVIII. and XX.*; and *OPTICS, Index*); and since it is a law of our best philosophy, that we are not to multiply substances without necessity, we must infer that the same Being which formed the first animals and vegetables, endowing them with powers to propagate their respective kinds, is likewise the cause of all the phenomena of nature, such as *cohesion, repulsion, elasticity, and motion*, not excepting even the motions of the heavenly bodies themselves.

If this powerful Being, who is the parent of vegetable and animal life, and the source of all corporeal motions, be self-existent, intelligent, and independent in his actions and volitions, he is an original or FIRST CAUSE, and that Being whom we denominate GOD. If he be not self-existent and independent, there must be a cause in the order of nature prior and superior to him, which is either itself the first cause, or a link in that series of causes and effects, which, however vast we suppose it, must be traced ultimately to some one Being, who is self-existent, and has in himself the power of beginning motion, independent of every thing but his own intelligence and volition. In vain the Atheists allege, that the series may ascend infinitely, and for that reason have no first

mover or cause. An infinite series of successive beings involves an absurdity and contradiction, (see *METAPHYSICS, Sect. XIII. XIV. XV.*); but not to insist upon this at present, we shall only beg leave to consider such a series as a whole, and see what consequences will flow from the supposition. That we may with logical propriety consider it in this light, is incontrovertible; for the birth of every individual of the human race shows that it is made up of parts; but parts imply a whole as necessarily as an attribute implies its substance. As in this supposed series there is no cause which is not likewise an effect, nor any body moving another which was not itself moved by a third, the whole is undeniably equivalent to an infinite effect, or a finite body moved; but if a finite effect must necessarily have proceeded from a cause, and a finite body in motion must have been put into that state by a mover, is there a human mind which can conceive an infinite effect to have proceeded from no cause, or an infinite body in motion to have been moved by nothing? No, surely! An infinite effect, were such a thing supposable, would compel us to admit an INFINITE CAUSE, and an infinite body in motion a mover of infinite power.

This great cause is GOD, whose wisdom, power, and goodness, all nature loudly proclaims. That the phenomena which we daily see evince the existence of one such Being, has just been shown; and that we have no reason to infer the existence of more than one, a very few reflections will make abundantly evident. For, not to say more stress than it will bear upon that rule of Newton's, which forbids us to multiply substances without necessity, such a harmony prevails through the whole visible universe, as plainly shows it to be under the government of one INTELLIGENCE. That on this globe the several elements serve for nourishment to plants, plants to the inferior animals, and animals to man; that the other planets of our system are probably inhabited, and their inhabitants nourished in the same or a similar manner; that the sun is so placed as to give light and heat to all, and by the law of gravitation to bind the whole planets into one system with itself—are truths so obvious and so universally acknowledged, as to supersede the necessity of establishing them by proof. The fair inference therefore is, that the solar system and all its parts are under the government of one intelligence, which directs all its motions, and all the changes which take place among its parts, for some wise purposes. To suppose it under the government of two or more intelligences would be highly unreasonable; for if these intelligences had equal power, equal wisdom, and the same design, more than one of them would evidently be superfluous; and if they had equal power and contrary designs, they could not be the parents of that harmony which we perceive to prevail in the system.

But the Being capable of regulating the movements of so vast a machine, may well be supposed to possess infinite power, and to be capable of superintending the motions of the universe. That the widely extended system of nature is but one system, of which the several parts are united by many bonds of mutual connexion, has been shown

l. l. a

elsewhere,

elsewhere, (see PHYSICS, *See* IV. V.), and appears daily more and more evident from their progress in physical discoveries; and therefore it is in the highest degree unreasonable to suppose it has more than one author, or one supreme governor.

As the unity of *design* apparent in the works of creation plainly proves the unity of their Author, so do the immensity of the whole, and the admirable adjustment of the several parts to one another, demonstrate His power and His wisdom.

No reasoning could be more satisfactory on this point than a reference to the numerous articles in this work of NATURAL HISTORY, ASTRONOMY, &c. Under every head the adoring student will discover endless proofs that there must be some Almighty MIND who modelled and preserves the universe; lays the causes of things so deep; prescribes them such uniform and steady laws; defines and adapts them to certain purposes; and makes one thing to fit and answer another so as to produce one harmonious whole.

But the GOODNESS of God is not less conspicuous in his works than his power or his wisdom. The view of a landscape is pleasant; the taste of nourishing food is pleasant; sounds not too loud are agreeable, while musical sounds are exquisite; and hardly any smells, except such as are excited by effluvia obviously pernicious to the brain, are disagreeable; whilst some of them, if not too long indulged, are delightful. Our lives are preserved and the species is continued by obeying the impulse of appetites, of which the gratification is exquisite, when not repeated too frequently, to answer the purposes of the Author of our being. Since, then, God has called forth his consummate wisdom to contrive and provide for our happiness, and has made those things which are necessary to our existence and the continuance of the race sources of our greatest sensual pleasures, who can doubt but that benevolence is one of his attributes, and the attribute in which he himself most delighteth? But it is not from sensation only that we may infer the benevolence of the Deity: He has formed us with minds capable of intellectual improvement, and he has implanted in the breast of every man a very strong desire of adding to his knowledge. This addition indeed cannot be made without labour; but a very short progress in any study converts what was irksome into a pleasure of the most exalted kind; and he who by study enlarges his ideas, and is conscious that he is daily rising in the scale of intelligence, experiences a high degree of complacency. That the practice of virtue is attended with a pleasure of the purest kind, is a fact which no man has ever questioned but the habitually vicious. The benevolence of a Being, who seems thus anxious to furnish us with both sensual and intellectual enjoyments, and who has made our duty our greatest pleasure, cannot be questioned; and therefore we must infer, that the Author of Nature wishes the happiness of the whole sensible and intelligent creation.

To such reasoning it has been objected, "Why, if the Author of Nature be a benevolent Being, are we necessarily subject to pain, diseases, and death?" The scientific physiologist replies, Because from these evils Omnipotence itself could not in our present state exempt us, but by a con-

stant series of *miracles*. The world is governed by general laws, without which there could be among men neither ARTS nor SCIENCES. As long as we have material and solid bodies capable of motion, liable to resistance from other solid bodies, supported by food, subject to the agency of the air, and divisible, they must necessarily be liable to pain, disease, corruption, and death, and that too by the very influence of those laws which preserve the order and harmony of the universe. Thus gravitation is a general law so necessary, that were it for a moment suspended, the world would instantly fall to pieces; and yet by this law the man must inevitably be *crushed* to death upon whom a tower shall chance to tumble. Again, the attraction of cohesion is a general law, without which it does not appear any corporeal system could possibly exist: it is by this law too, or a modification of it, that the glands and lacteals of the human body extract from the blood such particles as are necessary to nourish the solids; and yet it is by the very same modification of the same law that a man is liable to be *poisoned*.

"But why is every disorder attended with sickness or with pain? and why is such a horror of death implanted in our breasts, feeling that by the laws of nature death is inevitable?" We answer, That sickness, pain, and the dread of death, serve the very best purposes. Could a man be put to death, or have his limbs broken, without feeling pain, the human race had long ago been extinct. If we felt no uneasiness in a fever, we should be insensible to the disease, and die before we suspected our health to be impaired. The horror which generally accompanies our fear of death tends to make us more careful of life, and prevents us from quitting this world rashly when our affairs prosper not according to our wishes, and tends perhaps more than any thing else to make us live while we are here in such a manner as to ensure our happiness hereafter.

Thus, from every view that we can take of the works and laws of God, and even from considering the objections which have sometimes been made to them, we are compelled to acknowledge the benevolence of their Author.

The substance or essence of this self-existent, all-powerful, infinitely wise, and perfectly good Being, is to us wholly incomprehensible. That it is not MATTER, is shown by the process of argumentation by which we have proved it to exist; but what it is we know not. It is sufficient for all the purposes of religion to know that God is somehow or other present to every part of his works; that existence and every possible perfection is essential to him; and that he wishes the happiness of all his creatures. From these truths we might proceed to prove and illustrate the perpetual superintendence of his providence, both general and particular, over every the minutest part of the universe. (See PROVIDENCE, § 2. and MORAL PHILOSOPHY, Part II. *See* III. IV.) We shall only observe here, that the manner in which animals are propagated affords us as complete a proof of the constant superintendence of divine power and wisdom, as it does of the immediate exertion of these faculties in the formation of the parent pair of each species. For were this business of propa-

gation

gation carried on by necessity and mechanical laws, it is obvious, that in every age there would be generated, in each species of animals, the very same proportion of males to females that there was in the age preceding. On the other hand, did generation depend upon fortuitous mechanism, it is not conceivable but that, since the beginning of the world, or, according to the hypothesis, during the course of eternity, several species of animals should in some ages have generated nothing but males, and in others nothing but females; and that of course many species would have been long since extinct. As neither of these cases has ever happened, the preservation of the various species of animals, by keeping up constantly in the world a due, though not always the same proportion, between the sexes of male and female, is a complete proof of the superintendence of divine providence.

SECT. II. Of the DUTIES and SANCTIONS of NATURAL RELIGION.

FROM the short view we have taken of the divine perfections, it is evidently our duty to reverence in our minds the self-existent Being to whom they belong. He who has considered seriously the power, the wisdom, and the goodness, displayed in the works of God, must be convinced that he has no imperfection; that his power can accomplish every thing which involves not a contradiction; that his knowledge is intuitive, and free from the possibility of error; and that his goodness exceeds to all without partiality. With silent gratitude and elevation glowing in the breast of the contemplative man, he will be careful not to form even a mental image of that all-perfect Being to whom they are directed, for he knows that God is not material. The man who has any notion of the perfections of the Supreme Being will never speak lightly of him or make use of his name at all but on great and solemn occasions.

Whether worship is a fruit of natural religion, is a point of dispute; but no doubts can be entertained as to the foundation of moral virtue. Reason clearly perceives it to be the will of our Maker, that every individual of the human race should treat every other individual as, in similar circumstances, he could justly expect to be treated himself. It is thus only that the greatest sum of human happiness can be produced; (see MORAL PHILOSOPHY, Part III. Sect. I.—III.) for were all men temperate, sober, just in their dealings, faithful to their promises, charitable to the poor, &c. it is obvious that no miseries would be felt upon earth, but the few which, by the laws of material and corporeal nature, unavoidably result from the union of our minds with systems of matter. But it has been already shown, that the design of God in forming sentient beings was to communicate to them some portion, or rather some resemblance, of that felicity which is essential to himself; and therefore every action which in its natural tendency co-operates with this design must be agreeable to him, as every action of a contrary tendency must be disagreeable. From this reasoning it follows undeniably, that we are obliged not only to be just and beneficent to one another, but also to abstain from all unnecessary cruelty to inferior animals.

There are few questions of greater importance, than “What are the sanctions by which natural religion enforces obedience to her own laws?” Natural religion as a system of doctrines influencing the conduct, is exceedingly defective in this point, unless it afford sufficient evidence, intelligible to every ordinary capacity, of the immortality of the soul, or at least of a future state of rewards and punishments. That it does afford this evidence, is strenuously maintained by some deists, and even by many philosophers, who profess Christianity.

One great argument made use of to prove that the immortality of the soul is among the doctrines of natural religion, is the universal belief of all ages and nations that men continuing to live in some other state after death has separated their souls from their bodies. Hence it is argued *omnium consensus nature vox est*. But there appears not to be any proof of that doctrine being the deduction of human reasoning. The popular belief of Paganism, both ancient and modern, is so fantastic and absurd, that it could never have been rationally inferred from what nature teaches of God and the soul.

The philosophers of Greece and Rome, despising the popular mythology of their respective countries, employed much time and great talents in disquisitions concerning the human soul and the probability of a future state; and if the genuine conclusions of natural religion on this subject are anywhere to be found, one would naturally look for them in the writings of those men whose genius and virtues did the highest honour to human nature. Yet it is a fact which cannot be controverted, that the philosophers held such notions concerning the substance of the soul and its state after death, as could afford no rational support to suffering virtue, (see METAPHYSICS, Sect. XXXI.) SOCRATES is indeed an exception. But although his opinions were juster, yet he had formed none with certainty. “I would have you to know said he, on the last day of his life that I have great hopes I am now going into the company of good men; yet I would not be too peremptory and confident concerning it.” *Plato in Phæd.* CICERO also expressed similar doubts.

To us who know, by stronger evidence, that the soul is immortal, and that there will be a future state in which all the obliquities of the present shall be made straight, the argument drawn from the moral attributes of God, and the unequal distribution of the good things of this life, appears to have the force of demonstration. Yet none of us will surely pretend to say, that his powers of reasoning are greater than were those of Socrates and Cicero: and therefore the probability is, that had we been like them destitute of the light of revelation, we should have been disturbed by the same doubts.

Upon the whole, the hope of a future state is the only support of virtue and religion; and we think the arguments which we have stated elsewhere, and above referred to, make the reality of it so highly probable, that, though there were no other evidence, he would act a very foolish part who should confine his attention wholly to the present life.

But

But were the arguments which the light of nature affords for the immortality of the human soul as absolutely convincing as any geometrical demonstration—natural religion would still be defective; because it points out no method by which such as have offended God may be certainly restored to his favour, and to the hopes of happiness which by their sin they had lost. To point out how guilty man is to be reconciled to his Maker is the grand object of revealed religion, and the darkness which the theology of nature leaves on this point is to us who live under the sunshine of the gospel happily removed by the various revelations contained in the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments. These taken together, and in the order in which they were given, exhibit such a display of providence, such a great, benevolent, over-ruling divine system of doctrines, and such precepts of practical wisdom, as the ingenuity of man could never have discovered. The Christian, with the scriptures in his hands, can regulate his conduct by an infallible guide, and rest his hopes on the surest foundation. These scriptures it is now our business to examine.

PART II.

OF REVEALED THEOLOGY.

SECT. I. *Of the Divisions of Theology.*

IN every civilized country the popular system of theology has claimed its origin from divine revelation. The pagans of antiquity had their augurs and oracles; the Chinese have their inspired teachers, Confucius and Fohi; the Hindoos have their sacred books derived from Brama; the followers of Mahomet have their koran dictated by an angel; and the Jews and Christians have the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments, which they believe to have been written by holy men of old, who spake and wrote as they were moved by the Holy Ghost.

That the claims of ancient Paganism to a theology derived from heaven, as well as the similar claims of the Chinese, Hindoos, and Mahometans, are ill founded, has been shown in various articles of this work, (see CHINA, HINDOSTAN, MAHOMETANISM, MYTHOLOGY, and POLYTHEISM); whilst, under the articles PROPHECY, RELIGION, REVELATION, and SCRIPTURE, we have sufficiently proved the divine inspiration of the Jewish and Christian scriptures, and of course the divine origin of Jewish and Christian theology. These indeed are not two systems of theology, but two parts of one system, which was gradually revealed as men were able to receive it: and therefore both scriptures must be studied by the Christian divine.

Artificial systems of theology are commonly divided into two great parts, the *theoretic* and the *practical*; and these again are subdivided into many inferior branches. Under the theoretic part are sometimes classed,

1. **DOGMATIC THEOLOGY**; which comprehends an entire system of all the dogmas or tenets which a Christian is bound to believe and profess. The truth of these the divine must clearly per-

ceive, and be able to enforce upon his audience; and hence the necessity of studying what is called,

2. **THE EXEGESIS**, or the art of attaining the true sense of the holy scriptures; and,

3. **HERMENEUTIC THEOLOGY**, or the art of interpreting and explaining the scriptures to others; an art of which no man can be ignorant who knows how to attain the true sense of them himself.

4. **POLEMICAL THEOLOGY**, or controversy; and,

5. **MORAL THEOLOGY**, which is distinguished from moral philosophy, or the simple doctrine of ethics, by teaching a much higher degree of moral perfection than the mere light of reason could ever have discovered, and adding new motives to the practice of virtue.

The practical sciences of the divine are,

1. **HOMILETIC, or PASTORAL THEOLOGY**; which teaches him to adapt his discourses from the pulpit to the capacity of his hearers, and to pursue the best methods of guiding them by his doctrine and example in the way of salvation.

2. **CATECHETIC THEOLOGY**, or the art of teaching youth and ignorant persons the principal points of evangelical doctrine, as well with regard to belief as to practice.

3. **CASUISTIC THEOLOGY**, or the science which decides on doubtful cases of moral theology, and that calms the scruples of conscience which arise in the Christian's soul during his journey through the present world.

We have mentioned these divisions and subdivisions of the science of theology, not because we think them important, but merely that our readers may be at no loss to understand the terms when they meet with them in other works. Of such terms we shall ourselves make no use, for the greater part of them indicate distinctions where there is no difference, and tend only to perplex the student.

SECT. II. *Of God and his Attributes.*

THE Jewish lawgiver, who records the earliest revelations that were made to man, begins his history with a display of the wisdom and power of God in the creation of the world. He does not inform his countrymen, and expect them to believe, upon the authority of his divine commission, that God *exists*; for he well knew that the being of God must be admitted, and tolerably just notions entertained of his attributes, before man can be required to pay any regard to miracles which afford the only evidence of a primary revelation. "In the beginning (says he) God created the heavens and the earth." Here the being of God is assumed as a truth universally received; but the sentence, short as it is, reveals another which, as we shall afterwards shew, human reason could never have discovered.

But before we consider the CREATION of the world, what the scripture says of it, with the opinions of the most enlightened ancients on the same subject, it will be proper to attend to the appellation which is here given to God; and inquire what light is thrown upon it by subsequent revelations. The passage in the original is ברא אלהים, where it is remarkable that the Creator is deno-

denominated by a noun in the plural number, signifying literally "persons under the obligation of an oath to perform certain conditions." This is certainly a very extraordinary denomination for the one supreme and self-existent Being; and what adds to the strangeness of the phraseology is, that the verb with which this plural noun is made to agree is put in the singular number. What now could be the sacred historian's motive for expressing himself in this manner? His style is in general remarkable for its plainness and grammatical accuracy; and we believe it would be difficult to find in all his five books a single phrase not relating to the Supreme being in which there appears such a violation of concord.

To this it has been replied that Moses uses the plural noun to express in a magnificent way the majesty of God, just as it is customary for kings and earthly potentates, when publishing edicts and laws, to call themselves *we* and *us*. But there is no evidence on record that such a mode of speaking was introduced among kings at a period so early as the era of Moses. Let it be observed, too, that whenever this phraseology was introduced among men, the plural noun was in every grammatical tongue joined to a plural verb; whereas Moses not only puts the noun and the verb in different numbers in the verse under consideration, but afterwards represents the *אֱלֹהִים* as saying, "let us make man in our image;" and, "behold the man is become as one of us." Such phrases as these last were never used by a single man, and therefore cannot have been borrowed from human idioms.

Is there then a plurality of gods? No; there is nothing which the scriptures more frequently or more earnestly inculcate than the unity of the divine nature. The texts asserting this great and fundamental truth are almost numberless. "Unto thee (says Moses to his countrymen) it was shewed, that thou mightest know that the Lord is God; there is none else besides him. Know therefore that the Lord *be* is God in heaven above and upon the earth beneath: there is none else." And again, "Hear, O Israel, the Lord our God is one Lord," or, as it is expressed in the original, "Jehovah our God is one Jehovah," one Being to whom existence is essential, who could not have a beginning and cannot have an end. In the prophecies of Isaiah, God is introduced as repeatedly declaring, "I am Jehovah, and there is none else; there is no God besides me; that they may know from the rising of the sun and from the west, that there is none besides me: I am Jehovah, and there is none else: Is there a God besides me? Yea there is no God; I know not any." In perfect harmony with these declarations of Moses and the prophets, our Saviour, addressing himself to his father says, "This is life eternal, that they might know Thee, the only true God, and Jesus Christ whom thou hast sent;" and St Paul, who derived his doctrine from his divine Master, affirms, that "an idol is nothing in the world; and that there is none other God but one."

The unity of the divine nature, which, from the order and harmony of the world, appears probable to human reason, these texts of revelation put beyond a doubt. Hence the first precept

of the Jewish law, and, according to their own writers, the foundation of their whole religion, was, "Thou shalt have none other gods before Me." Hence, too, the reason of that strict command to Jews and Christians to give divine worship to none but God: "Thou shalt worship the Lord thy God, and him only shalt thou serve;" because he is *God alone*. Him only must we fear, because he alone hath infinite power; in him alone must we trust, because "He only is our rock and our salvation;" and to him alone must we direct our devotions, because "he only knoweth the hearts of the children of men."

It will not be contended then, that the word *אֱלֹהִים* indicates a plurality of gods. In the opinion, however, of many eminent divines, it denotes, by its junction with the singular verb, a plurality of persons in the one Godhead; and some few have contended, that by means of this peculiar construction, the Christian doctrine of the Trinity may be proved from the first chapter of the book of Genesis. To this latter opinion we can by no means give our assent. That there are three distinct persons in the one divine nature may be inferred with sufficient evidence from a multitude of passages in the Old and New Testaments diligently compared together; but it would perhaps be rash to rest the proof of so sublime a mystery upon any single text of holy scripture, and would certainly be so to rest it upon the text in question. That Moses was acquainted with this doctrine, we, to whom it has been explicitly revealed, may reasonably conclude from his so frequently making a plural name of God to agree with a verb in the singular number: but had we not possessed the brighter light of the New Testament to guide us, we should never have thought of drawing such an inference. For supposing the word *אֱלֹהִים* to denote clearly a plurality of persons, and that it cannot possibly signify any thing else, how could we have known that the number is neither more nor less than three, had it not been ascertained to us by subsequent revelations?

There are indeed various passages in the Old Testament, of the phraseology of which no rational account can be given, but that they indicate more than one person in the Godhead. Such are those texts already noticed; "and the Lord God said let us make man in our image after our likeness;" and "the Lord God said, behold the man is become like one of us." To these may be added the following, which are to us perfectly unintelligible upon any other supposition; "and the Lord God said, let us go down, and there confound their language." "If I be a Master (in the Hebrew *adonim*, MASTERS), where is my fear?" "The fear of the Lord (JEHOVAH) is the beginning of wisdom, and the knowledge of the Holy (in the Hebrew *holy ones*) is understanding." "Remember thy Creator (Hebrew thy CREATORS) in the days of thy youth." "And now the Lord God and his SPIRIT hath sent me." "Seek ye out of the book of the Lord and read; for my mouth it hath commanded, and his SPIRIT it hath gathered them.

That these texts imply a plurality of divine persons, seems to us incontrovertible. It does not, however, appear evident from these passages, or

from

from any other that we recollect in the Old Testament, that the persons in Deity are three and no more: but no sober Christian will harbour a doubt but that the precise number was by some means or other made known to the ancient Hebrews; for inquiries leading to it would be naturally suggested by the form in which the high-priest was commanded to bless the people. See Num. vi. 24—26.

Of this benediction it has been well observed, that if its three articles be attentively considered, they will be found to agree respectively to the three persons taken in the usual order of the FATHER, the SON, and the HOLY GHOST. The Father is the author of *blessing and preservation. Grace and illumination* are from the Son, by whom we have "the light of the knowledge of the glory of God, in the face of Jesus Christ." *Peace* is the gift of the Spirit, whose name is the *Comforter*, and whose first and best fruit is the work of *peace*.

Similar to this benediction, but much more explicit, is the form of Christian baptism; which, to us who live under the sunshine of the gospel, establishes the truth of the doctrine of the Trinity beyond all reasonable ground of dispute. "Go (says our blessed Saviour) and teach all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost." If those who believe the inspiration of the scriptures could require any further proof that the Godhead comprehends a Trinity of persons in one nature, we might urge upon them the apostolic form of benediction; "The grace of our LORD JESUS CHRIST, and the love of GOD, and the communion of the HOLY GHOST, be with you all."

But how, it will be asked, can *three* divine persons be but *one* and *the same* God? This is a question which has been often put, but which, we believe, no created being can fully answer. The divine nature and its manner of existence is to us wholly incomprehensible; and we might with greater reason attempt to weigh the mountains in a pair of scales, than by our limited faculties to fathom the depths of infinity. The Supreme being is present in power to every portion of space, and yet it is demonstrable, that in his essence he is not extended (see METAPHYSICS, *SECT. XIV.*) Both these truths, his inextensibility and omnipresence, are fundamental principles in what is called *natural religion*; and when taken together they form, in the opinion of most people, a mystery as incomprehensible as that of the Trinity in unity. Indeed there is nothing of which it is more difficult for us to form a distinct notion than *unity* simple, and absolutely indivisible; and we are persuaded that such of our readers as have been accustomed to turn their thoughts inwards, and reflect upon the operations of their own minds, will acknowledge the difficulty is not much less to them. Though the Trinity in unity, therefore, were no Christian doctrine, mysteries must still be believed; for they are as inseparable from the religion of nature as from that of revelation; and atheism involves the most incomprehensible of all mysteries, even the beginning of existence without a cause. We must indeed form the best notions that we can of this and of all other

mysteries; for if we have no notions whatever of a Trinity in unity, we can neither believe nor disbelieve that doctrine. It is however to be remembered, that all our notions of God are more or less analogical; that they must be expressed in words which, literally interpreted, are applicable only to man; and that propositions understood in this literal sense may involve an apparent contradiction, from which the truth meant to be expressed by them would be seen to be free, had we direct and adequate conceptions of the divine nature. On this account it is to be wished that men treating of the mystery of the holy TRINITY, had always expressed themselves in scripture language, and never aimed at being wise beyond what is written.

In the scriptures the three persons are denominated by the terms FATHER, SON, and HOLY GHOST, or by GOD, the WORD, who is also declared to be God, and the SPIRIT OF GOD. If each be truly God, it is obvious that they must all have the same divine nature, just as every man has the same human nature with every other man; and if there be but ONE GOD, it is equally obvious that they must be of the same individual substance or essence, which no three men can possibly be. In this there is a difficulty; but, as will be seen by and by, there is no contradiction. The very terms FATHER and SON imply such a relation between the two persons so denominated, as that though they are of the same substance, possessed of the same attributes, and equally God, just as a human father and his son are equally men, yet the second must be personally subordinate to the first. In like manner, the HOLY GHOST, who is called the Spirit of God, and is said to proceed from the Father, and to be sent by the Son, must be conceived as subordinate to both, much in the same way as a son is subordinate to his parents, though possessed of equal or even of superior powers. That this is the true doctrine, appears to us undeniable from the words of our Saviour himself, who, in a prayer addressed to his Father, styles him by way of pre-eminence, "the only true God," as being the fountain or origin of the Godhead from which the Son and the Holy Ghost derive their true divinity. In like manner, St Paul, when opposing the polytheism of the Greeks, says expressly, that "to us there is but one GOD, THE FATHER, OF whom are all things, and we in, or for, him; and one LORD JESUS CHRIST, BY whom are all things, and we by him."

Some modern divines of great learning, however, contend, that the three persons in Deity are all *consubstantial, co eternal, co-ordinate*, without derivation, subordination, or dependence, of any sort, as to nature or essence; whilst others affirm, that the second and third persons derive from the first their personality, but not their nature. We shall consider these opinions as different, though, from the obscurity of the language in which we have always seen them expressed, we cannot be certain but they may be one and the same. The maintainers of the former opinion hold, that the three persons called *Elohim* in the Old Testament, naturally independent on each other, entered into that agreement before the creation of the world, that

one of them should in the fulness of time assume human nature, for the purpose of redeeming mankind from that misery into which it was foreseen that they would fall. This antemundane agreement, they add, constitutes the whole of that paternal and filial relation which subsists between the first and second persons whom we denominate Father and Son; and they hold, that the Son is said to be begotten before all worlds, to indicate that *He* who was before all worlds was *begotten*, or to be begotten, into the office of redeemer; or, more decisively, to signify that he undertook that office before the creation, and *assumed* to himself some appearance or figure of the reality in which he was to execute it; and he is called *μωϋσῆς* or the only begotten, because he *alone* was begotten into the office of redeemer.

This doctrine is sufficiently overturned by two sentences of holy scripture, about the meaning of which there can be no dispute. "In this (says St John) was manifested the love of God towards us, because that God sent his only begotten son into the world, that we might live through him." Taking the word *son* in its usual acceptation, this was certainly a wonderful degree of love in the Father of mercies to send into the world on our account a person so nearly related to him as an only son; but if we substitute this novel interpretation of the words *only begotten son* in their stead, the apostle's reasoning will lose all its force. St John will then be made to say, "In this was manifested the love of God toward us, because that God sent a divine person equal to himself, and no way related to him, but who had before the creation covenanted to come into the world, that we might live through him." Is this a proof of the love of the person here called God? Again, the inspired author of the epistle to the Hebrews, treating of our Saviour's priesthood, says, among other things expressive of his humiliation, that "though he was a son, yet learned he obedience (or, as others would render the words *μαθήναι ὁμολογῆσαι*, he taught obedience) by the things which he suffered" (*Heb. v. 8.*) If the word *son* be here understood in its proper sense, this verse displays in a very striking manner the condescension of our divine Redeemer, who, though he was no less a person than the proper Son of God by nature, yet vouchsafed to learn or teach us obedience by the things which he suffered; but if we substitute this metaphorical sonship in place of the natural, the reasoning of the author (for that he is reasoning cannot be denied) will be very extraordinary, "Though this divine personage agreed before all worlds to suffer death for the redemption of man, yet learned he obedience, or yet taught he us obedience, by the things which he suffered." What sense is there in this argument? Is it a proof of condescension to fulfil one's engagement? Surely, if the meaning of the word *son*, when applied to the second person of the blessed Trinity, were what is here supposed, the inspired writer's argument would have been more to the purpose for which it is brought had it run thus; "Though he was *not* a son, *i. e.* though he had made no previous agreement, yet condescended he to learn or teach," &c.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

The other opinion, which supposes the Son and the Holy Ghost to derive from the Father their personality, but not their nature, is to us wholly unintelligible; for personality cannot exist, or be conceived in a state of separation from all natures, any more than a quality can exist in a state of separation from all substances. The former of these opinions we are unable to reconcile with the unity of God; the latter is clothed in words that have no meaning. Both, as far as we can understand them, are palpable polytheism; more palpable indeed than that of the Grecian philosophers, who, though they worshipped gods many and lords many, yet all held one God supreme over the rest. See POLYTHEISM, p. 124, 125.

But if the Son and the Holy Ghost derive their nature as well their personality from the Father, will it not follow that they must be posterior to him in *time*, since every effect is posterior to its cause? No; this consequence seems to follow only by reasoning too closely from one nature to another, when there is between the two but a very distant analogy. It is indeed true that, among men, every father must be prior in *time* as well as in the *order* of nature to his son; but were it essential to a man to be a father, so as that he could not exist otherwise than in that relation, it is obvious that his son would be coeval with himself, though still, as proceeding from him, he would be posterior in the order of nature. This is the case with all necessary causes and effects. The visible sun is the immediate and necessary cause of light and heat, either as emitting the rays from his own substance, or as exciting the agency of a fluid diffused for that purpose through the whole system. Light and heat therefore must be as old as the sun; and had he existed from all eternity, they would have existed from eternity with him, though still, as his effects, they would have been behind him in the order of nature. Hence it is, that as we must speak analogically of the Divine nature, and, when treating of mind, even the Supreme mind, make use of words literally applicable only to the modifications of matter, the Nicene fathers illustrate the eternal generation of the second person of the blessed Trinity by this procession of light from the corporeal sun, calling him *God of God, light of light*.

Another comparison has been made use of to enable us to form some notion, however inadequate, how three divine persons can subsist in the same substance, and thereby constitute but one God. Moses informs us, that man was made after the *image* of God. That this relates to the soul more than to the body of man, has been granted by all but a few gross anthropomorphites; but it has been well observed, that the soul, though in itself one indivisible and unextended substance, is conceived as consisting of three principal faculties, the *understanding*, the *memory*, and the *will*. Of these, though they are all coeval in time, and equally essential to a rational soul, the understanding is in the order of nature obviously the first, and the memory the second; for things must be perceived before they can be remembered; and they must be remembered and compared together before they can excite volition, from

M m

being

being, some agreeable, and others disagreeable. The memory therefore may be said to spring from the understanding, and the will from both; and as these three faculties are conceived to constitute one soul, so may three Divine persons, partaking of the same individual nature or essence, constitute one God.

These parallels or analogies are by no means brought forward as proofs of the Trinity, of which the evidence is to be gathered wholly from the word of God; but they serve perhaps to help our labouring minds to form the justest notions of that adorable mystery which it is possible for us to form in the present state of our existence; and they seem to rescue the doctrine sufficiently from the charge of contradiction, which has been so often urged against it by Unitarian writers. To the last analogy we are aware it has often been objected, that the soul may as well be said to consist of ten or twenty faculties as of three, since the passions are equally essential to it with the understanding, the memory, and the will, and are as different from one another as these three faculties are. This, however, is probably a mistake; for the best philosophy seems to teach us, that the passions are not innate; that a man might exist through a long life a stranger to many of them; and that there are probably no two minds in which are generated *all* the passions (see *PASSION*, § 4.); but understanding, memory, and will, are absolutely and equally necessary to every rational being. But whatever be in this, if the human mind can be *conceived* to be one indivisible substance, consisting of different faculties, whether many or few, why should it be thought an impossibility for the infinite and eternal nature of God to be communicated to three persons acting different parts in the creation and government of the world, and in the great scheme of man's redemption.

To the doctrine of the Trinity many objections have been made, as it implies the divinity of the Son and the Holy Ghost; of whom the former assumed our nature, and in it died for the redemption of man. These we shall notice when we come to examine the revelations more peculiarly Christian; but there is one objection which, as it respects the doctrine in general, may be properly noticed here. It is said that the first Christians borrowed the notion of a Tri-une God from the later Platonists; and that we hear not of a Trinity in the church till converts were made from the school of Alexandria. But if this be the case, we may properly ask, whence had those Platonists the doctrine themselves? It is not surely so simple or so obvious as to be likely to have occurred to the reasoning mind of a Pagan philosopher; or, if it be, why do Unitarians suppose it to involve a contradiction? The Platonic and Pythagorean Trinities never could have occurred to the mind of him who, merely from the works of creation, endeavoured to discover the being and attributes of the Creator; and therefore, as those philosophers travelled into Egypt and the East in quest of knowledge, it appears to us in the highest degree probable, that they picked up this mysterious and sublime doctrine in those regions where it had been handed down as a dogma from the re-

most ages, and where we know that science was not taught systematically, but detailed in collections of sententious maxims and traditional opinions. If this be so, we cannot doubt but that the Pagan Trinities had their origin in some primordial revelation. Nothing else indeed can account for the general prevalence of a doctrine so remote from human imagination, and of which we find vestiges in the sacred books of almost every civilized people of antiquity. The corrupt state in which it is viewed in the writings of PLATO and others, is the natural consequence of its descent through a long course of oral tradition; and then falling into the hands of men who bent every opinion as much as possible to a conformity with their own speculations. The Trinity of Platonism therefore, instead of being an objection, lends, in our opinion, no feeble support to the Christian doctrine, since it affords almost a complete proof of that doctrine's having made part of the first revelations communicated to man.

As the one God, to whom Moses gives the plural name *ELOHIM*, thus comprehends three persons; let us inquire what power this Tri-une God exerted, when, as the same sacred writer informs us, he created the heavens and the earth. That by the heaven and the earth is here meant the whole universe, visible and invisible, is known to every person acquainted with the phraseology of Scripture; and we need inform no man conversant with English writers, that by *creation*, in its proper sense, is meant bringing into *being*, or making that to *exist* which existed not *before*. It must, however be acknowledged, that the Hebrew word *בָּרָא* does not always imply the production of substance, but very often the forming of particular organized bodies out of pre-existing matter. Thus when it is said that "God created great whales, and every living creature that moveth, which the waters brought forth abundantly after their kind," and again, that "he created man male and female; though the word *בָּרָא* is used on both occasions, we are not to conceive that the bodies of the first human pair, and of these animals, were brought into being from non-entity, but only that they were formed by a proper organization being given to pre-existent matter. But when Moses says, "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth," he cannot be supposed to mean that "in the beginning God only gave form to matter already existing of itself;" for in the very next verse we are assured that after this act of creation was over, "the earth was still *without form, and void*;" or, in other words, in a chaotic state.

The Jews, before the coming of our Saviour, undoubtedly understood their lawgiver to teach a proper *creation*, as is plain from that passage in the 2d book of the Maccabees, in which a mother, to persuade her son to suffer the cruellest tortures rather than forsake the law of his God, uses the following argument: "I beseech thee, my son, look upon the heavens and the earth, and all that is therein, and consider that God made them of things that were not." To the same purpose the inspired author of the Epistle to the Hebrews, when magnifying the excellence of faith, says, "Through faith we understand that the worlds were

were framed by the word of God, so that things which are seen were not made of things which do appear;" where, as bishop Pearson has ably proved, the phrase *ex nihilo* or is equivalent to *ex deo* in the quotation from the Maccabees. From the first verse, therefore, of the book of Genesis, we learn a most important truth, which all the uninspired wisdom of antiquity could not discover. It assures us, that as nothing exists by chance, no nothing is necessarily existing but the three divine persons in the one Godhead. Every thing else, whether material or immaterial, derives its substance, as well as its form or qualities, from the fiat of that self-existent Being, "who was, and is, and is to come."

It does not, however, follow from this verse, or from any other passage in the sacred Scriptures, that the whole universe was called into existence at the same instant; neither is it by any means evident that the chaos of our world was brought into being on the first of those six days during which it was gradually reduced into form. From a passage in the book of Job, in which we are told by God himself, that when the "foundation of the earth was laid, the morning stars sang together, and all the sons of God shouted for joy," it appears extremely probable that worlds had been created, formed, and inhabited, long before our earth had any existence. Nor is this opinion at all contrary to what Moses says of the creation of the stars; for though they are mentioned in the same verse with the sun and moon, yet the manner in which, according to the original, they are introduced, by no means indicates that all the stars were formed at the same time with the luminaries of our system. Most of them may have been created long before, and some of them since our world was brought into being; for that clause (verse 16.), "he made the stars also," is in the Hebrew no more than "and the stars;" the words *he made* being inserted by the translators. The whole verse therefore ought to be rendered thus: "And God made two great lights; the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light with the stars to rule the night;" where nothing is intimated with respect to the time when the stars were formed, any more than in that verse of the Psalms (cxxxvi. 9.) which exhorts us to give thanks to God, who made the moon and stars to rule by night; for his mercy endureth "for ever." The first verse of the book of Genesis informs us, that all things spiritual and corporeal derive their existence from God; but it is nowhere said that all matter was created at the same time; and the generations of men afford sufficient evidence of a successive and continual creation of spirits.

That the whole corporeal universe *may have been* created at once must be granted; but if so, we have reason to believe that this earth, with the sun and all the planets of the system, were suffered to remain for ages in a state of chaos, "without form, and void;" because it appears from other scriptures, that worlds of intelligent creatures existed, and even that some angels had fallen from a state of happiness, prior to the era of the Mosaic cosmogony. That the sun and the other planets revolving round him were formed at the same

time with the earth, cannot indeed be questioned; for it is not only extremely probable in itself from the known laws of nature, but is expressly affirmed by the sacred historian, who relates the formation of the sun and moon in the order in which it took place. Into the particulars of his narrative we have no occasion to enter, as it is sufficiently explained and vindicated under the article CREATION, § 3—9. See also ANGELS, § 6.

How strongly do the works of creation impress upon our minds a conviction of the infinite power of their Author! He spoke, and the universe started into being; he commanded, and it stood fast. How mighty is the arm which "stretched out the heavens, and laid the foundations of the earth; which removeth the mountains, and they know it not; which overturneth them in his anger; which shaketh the earth out of her place, and the pillars thereof tremble! How powerful the word which commandeth the sun, and it riseth not, and which sealeth up the stars;" which sustaineth numberless worlds of amazing bulk suspended in the regions of empty space, and directs their various and inconceivably rapid motions with the utmost regularity! "Lift up your eyes on high, and behold who hath created all these things? By the word of the Lord were the heavens made, and all the host of them by the breath of his mouth. Hell is naked before him, and destruction hath no covering. He stretcheth out the north over the empty place, and hangeth the earth upon nothing. He has measured the waters in the hollow of his hand, and meted out the heavens with a span, and comprehended the dust of the earth in a measure; and weighed the mountains in scales, and the hills in a balance. Behold! the nations are as a drop of the bucket, and are counted as the small dust of the balance; behold, he taketh up the isles as a very little thing. All nations before him are as nothing, and they are counted to him less than nothing, and vanity. To whom then will ye liken God, or what likeness will ye compare unto him?"

As the works of creation are the effects of God's power, they likewise in the most eminent manner display his wisdom. This was so apparent to Cicero, even from the partial and very imperfect knowledge in astronomy which his time afforded, that he declared those who could assert the contrary void of all understanding. But if that great master of reason had been acquainted with the modern discoveries in astronomy, which exhibit numberless worlds scattered through space, and each of immense magnitude; had he known that the sun is placed in the centre of our system, and that, to diversify the seasons, the planets move round him with exquisite regularity; could he have conceived that the distinction between light and darkness is produced by the diurnal rotation of the earth on its own axis, instead of that disproportionate whirling of the whole heavens which the ancient astronomers were forced to suppose; had he known of the wonderful motions of the comets, and considered how such eccentric bodies have been preserved from falling upon some of the planets in the same system, and the several systems from falling upon each other;

had he taken into the account that there are yet greater things than these, and "that we have seen but a few of God's works;"—that virtuous Pagan would have been ready to exclaim, in the words of the Psalmist, "O Lord, how manifold are thy works! In wisdom hast thou made them all; the earth is full of thy riches."

That creation is the offspring of unmixed goodness, has been already shown, with sufficient evidence, (see *METAPHYSICS*, § 6, 189. and the preceding part of this article); and from the vast number of creatures on our earth endowed with life and sense, and a capability of happiness, and the infinitely greater number which probably inhabit the planets of this and other systems, we may infer that the goodness of God is as boundless as his power. Surely the Author of so much happiness must be essential goodness; and we must conclude with St John, that "God is LOVE."

These attributes of power, wisdom, and goodness, so conspicuously displayed in the works of creation, belong in the same supreme degree to each person in the blessed Trinity; for Moses declares that the heaven and the earth were created, not by *one* person, but by the ELOHIM. The *λογος*, indeed, or second person, appears to have been the *immediate* Creator; for St John assures us, that "all things were made by him, and that without him was not any thing made that was made." St Paul expressly affirms, that by the second person in the blessed Trinity "were ALL things created that are in the heaven, and that are in earth, *visible and invisible*, whether they be THRONES, or DOMINIONS, or PRINCIPALITIES, or POWERS: all things were created by him and for him; and he is before all things, and by him all things consist." Coloss. iv. 17. Indeed the Hebrew Scriptures, in more places than one, expressly declare that this earth, and of course the whole solar system, was *formed* as well as *created*, not by any inferior being, but by the *true* Gpd, even *Jehovah* alone. (See Isa. xl. 12. xlv. 24. Jer. x. 10—13.)

But though it be thus evident that the *λογος* was the immediate Creator of the universe, we are not to suppose that it was without the concurrence of the other two persons. The Father, who may be said to be the fountain of the Divinity itself, was certainly concerned in the creation of the world, and is therefore in the apostle's creed denominated "the Father Almighty, *Maker of heaven and earth*;" and that the Holy Ghost, or third person, is likewise a Creator, we have the express testimony of two inspired writers. "By the word of the Lord (says the Psalmist) were the heavens made, and all the host of them by the BREATH (Hebrew, SPIRIT) of his mouth." And Job declares, that the "SPIRIT of God made him, and that the breath of the Almighty gave him life." Indeed these three divine persons are so intimately united, that what is done by one must be done by all, as they have but one and the same will.

SECT. III. *Of the ORIGINAL STATE of MAN, and the FIRST COVENANT of ETERNAL LIFE, which GOD vouchsafed to make with him.*

In the Mosaic account of the creation, every attentive reader must be struck with the manner

in which the supreme Being is represented as making man. See Gen. i. 26—31. and ii. 1, 2, 3. which is a very remarkable passage, and contains much important information. It indicates a plurality of persons in the Godhead, describes the nature of man as he came at first from the hands of his Creator, and furnishes data from which we may infer what were the duties required of him in that primeval state, and what were the rewards to which obedience would entitle him. We proceed to inquire into the specific nature of the first man. This must be implied in the *image of God*. Now this image or likeness could not be in his body; for the infinite and omnipotent God is without body, parts, or passions, and therefore such as nothing *corporeal* can resemble. Some have contended, that man is the only creature on this earth who is animated by a principle essentially different from *matter*; and hence he is said to have been formed in the divine image, on account of the immateriality of that vital principle which was infused into his body when the "Lord God breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, and man became a living soul." That this account of the animation of the body of man indicates a superiority of the human soul to the vital principle of all other animals, cannot, we think, be questioned. It has been shown elsewhere (see *METAPHYSICS*, *Sec.* IV. V. and VI.), that the power of sensation, attended with individual consciousness, as it appears to be in all the higher species of animals, cannot result from any organic structure, or be the quality of a compound extended being. The vital principle in such animals, therefore, must be immaterial as well as the human soul; but as the word *immaterial* denotes only a negative notion, the souls of men and brutes, though both immaterial, may yet be substances essentially different. This being the case, it is plain that the divine image in which man was formed, and by which he is distinguished from the brutes, cannot consist in the mere circumstance of his mind being a substance different from matter, but in some positive quality which distinguishes him from every other creature on this globe.

About this characteristic quality various opinions have been formed. Some have supposed that the image of God in Adam appeared in that rectitude, righteousness, and holiness, in which he was made, which were perfect; his understanding was free from all error; his will biased to that which is good. And this righteousness (say they) was *natural*, and created with him. They therefore call it *original righteousness*.

To this doctrine many objections have been made; because nothing which is produced in a man without his knowledge and consent can be in him either virtue or vice. Adam was unquestionably placed in a state of trial, which proves that he had righteous habits to *acquire*; but perfect righteousness is inconsistent with a state of trial. That Adam was not so, is plain, as he yielded to the first temptation with which he was assailed.

Since man was made in the image of God, that phrase, whatever be its precise import, must denote something *peculiar*, and at the same time essential to human nature; but the only quality at once natural and peculiar to man is his reason. It has therefore

therefore been concluded that it was the faculty of reason which made the resemblance. To give strength to this argument it is observed, that when God says, "let us make man in our image," he immediately adds, "and let them have dominion over the fish of the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over the cattle, and over all the earth;" but as many of the cattle have much greater bodily strength than man, this dominion could not be maintained but by the faculty of reason bestowed upon him and withheld from them.

If the image of God was impressed only on the mind of man, this reasoning seems to be conclusive; but to this it is objected that man does not resemble God in his reasoning faculty more than in his form. And it would be little short of idolatry to imagine that God is obliged to compare ideas and notions together; to advance from particular truths to general propositions; and to acquire knowledge, as we do, by the tedious processes of inductive and syllogistic reasoning. There can therefore be no direct image of God either in the soul or in the body of man; and the phrase really seems to import nothing more than those powers or qualities by which man was fitted to exercise dominion over the inferior creation; as if it had been said, "Let us make man in our image, after our likeness, that *they may have dominion*," &c. But the erect form of man contributes in some degree, as well as his rational powers, to enable him to maintain his authority over the brute creation; for it has been observed by travellers, that the fiercest beast of prey, unless ready to perish by hunger, shrinks back from a steady look of the human face divine. Dr GILL advances another opinion, viz. that all the members of Christ's body, being written in the book of God's decrees, and having an ideal existence from eternity in the divine mind; therefore the body of Adam might be said to be formed after the image of God, because it was made according to that idea. But the objections to this interpretation appear unanswerable. It is obvious, that whatever more may be meant by the image of God in which man was made, the phrase undoubtedly comprehends all those powers and qualities by which he is enabled to maintain his authority over the inferior creation. Among these the faculty of reason is confessedly the most important; for it is by it that man is capable of being made acquainted with the Author of his being, the relation which subsists between them, and the duties implied in the relation from the creature to the Creator.

That the first man however, was not left to discover these things by the mere efforts of his unassisted reason we have endeavoured to show in another place; (see RELIGION), and the conclusion to which we were there led, is confirmed by the portion of revelation before us. The inspired historian says, that "God blessed the seventh day and *sanctified* it, because that in it he had rested from all his works which he created and made;" but Adam could not have understood what was meant by the *sanctification* of a particular day, or of any thing else, unless he had previously received some religious instruction. There cannot therefore be a doubt, but that as soon as man was made,

his Creator communicated to him the truths of what is called natural religion, which we have endeavoured to explain and establish in *Part I.* of this article; and to these were added the precept to keep holy the Sabbath day, and set it apart for the purposes of contemplation and worship.

This was a very wise institution, as all the divine institutions must be. "The great end for which we are brought into life, is to attain the knowledge and be confirmed in the love of God. This includes obedience to his will in thought, word, and deed, or that course of conduct which can alone make us happy here, and fit us for eternal glory hereafter. But of these things we cannot retain a proper sense without close and repeated application of thought; and the unavoidable cares and concerns of the present life occupying much of our attention, it is, in the nature of things, necessary that some certain portion of time should be appropriated to the purposes of religious instruction and the public adoration of our Creator, in whom we all live, and move, and have our being." Hence Dr Taylor has inferred that though the particular time is a matter of positive appointment, the observance of a sabbath in general is a duty of natural religion, as having its foundation in the reason of things. See SABBATH, § 3—5.

Man therefore in his *natural* and original state was a rational and religious being, bound to do "justice, to love mercy, to walk humbly with his God, and to keep holy the Sabbath day." These seem to be all the duties which in that state were required of him; for as soon as he was introduced into the terrestrial paradise and admitted into covenant with his Maker, he was placed in a *supernatural* state, when other duties were of course enjoined.

That our first parents were both made on the sixth day, Moses expressly affirms, Gen. i. 27: v. 2. but that they were introduced into the garden of Eden on that day, is an opinion which, however general, seems not to be reconcilable with the narrative of the sacred penman. After telling us, that on the sixth day God finished all his works, which he saw to be very good, and rested on the seventh day, he briefly recapitulates the history of the generations of the heavens and of the earth, gives us a more particular account of the formation of the first man, informing us that the "Lord God formed him out of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, when man became a living soul;" and then proceeds to say, that the "Lord God planted a garden eastward in Eden, where he put the man whom he *had formed*." From this short history of the first pair it appears beyond dispute evident, that neither the man nor the woman was formed *in* the garden; and that from their creation some time elapsed before the garden was prepared for their reception, is likewise evident from a comparison of Gen. i. 29. with Gen. ii. 16, 17. In the first of these passages God gives to man, immediately after his creation, "every herb bearing seed which was upon the face of all the earth, and *every tree*, without exception, in which was the fruit of a tree bearing seed; to him he said it should be for meat." In the 2d, "he commanded the man, saying, of every

every tree of the garden thou mayest freely eat; but of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, thou shalt not eat of it; for in the day thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die." When the first grant of food was given, Adam and his wife must have been where no tree of knowledge grew, and they must have been intended to live at least so long in that state as they should have occasion for food, otherwise the formal grant of it would have been superfluous.

In this original state man was under the discipline of what we have called *natural religion*, entitled to happiness while he should perform the duties required of him, and liable to punishment when he should neglect those duties, or transgress the law of his nature as a rational and moral agent. This being the case, it is a matter of some importance, and which will enable us to perceive more clearly the prerogatives of Christianity, to ascertain if we can, what the rewards and punishments are which natural religion holds out to her votaries.

That under every dispensation of religion the pious and virtuous man shall, during the whole of his existence, enjoy more happiness than misery; and that the incorrigibly wicked shall have a greater portion of misery than happiness, are truths which cannot be controverted by any one who admits, that the Almighty Governor of the universe is a Being of wisdom, goodness, and justice. But respecting the rewards of virtue and the punishment of vice, more than these general truths seems not to be taught by natural religion. How long our first parents continued innocent and happy in Paradise, is no where recorded. It is generally thought, that the period of their continuance in that station was not long. Of this, however, nothing can be said with certainty. They may have lived for *years* or only a *few days* in their original state; but it is necessary to distinguish between that state in which they were under no other dispensation than what is commonly called *natural religion*, entitled, upon their obedience, to the infinite rewards of piety and virtue, and their state in Paradise when they were put under a new law, and by the free grace of God promised, if they should be obedient, a supernatural and eternal reward. Into that state we must now attend them, and ascertain if we can, the precise terms of the first covenant.

Moses, who in this investigation is our only guide, tells us, that the Lord God, after he had formed the first pair, "planted a garden eastward in Eden, and took the man and put him into the garden to dress it and to keep it. And the Lord God (continues he) commanded the man, saying, of every tree of the garden thou mayest freely eat; but of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil thou shalt not eat of it; for in the day that thou eatest thereof, thou shalt surely die." The only law peculiar to his paradisaical state was the command not to eat of the fruit of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil. This was a positive precept, not founded in the nature of man, but very proper to be the test of his obedience to the will of his Creator. This was sanctioned by the penalty of *death* denounced against disobedience; and the subjects of that law must have understood

somewhat of the nature of this penalty; but Christian divines, have differed widely in opinion respecting the full import of the Hebrew words which our translators have rendered by the phrase *thou shalt surely die*. All, however, agree that they threatened death, in the common acceptation of the word, or the separation of the soul and body, as one part of the punishment to be incurred by eating the forbidden fruit; and hence we must infer, that had the forbidden fruit not been eaten, our first parents would never have died, because the penalty of death was denounced against no other transgression. What therefore is said respecting the fruit of the tree of knowledge, implies not only a *law* but also a *covenant* promising to man, upon the observance of one positive precept, *immortality* or *eternal life*; which is not essential to the nature of any created being, and cannot be claimed as the merited reward of the greatest virtue or the most fervent piety.

This obvious truth will enable us to dispose of the objections which have been sometimes brought by free-thinking divines against the wisdom and justice of punishing so severely as by death a breach of a mere positive precept; which, considered in itself, or as connected with the general principles of moral obligation, appears to be of little importance. We have only to reply, that as an exemption from death is not due either to the nature or to the virtue of man, it was wise and just to make it depend upon the observance of a positive precept, to impress upon the minds of our first parents a constant conviction that they were to be preserved *immortal*, not in the ordinary course of divine providence, but by the special grace and favour of God. The same consideration will show us the folly of those men who, because the terms of the first covenant, as stated in some systems of theology, agree not with certain philosophical maxims which they have adopted, are for turning all that is said of the trees of knowledge and of life into figure and *allegory*. But the other trees which Adam and Eve were permitted to eat were certainly *real trees*, or they must have perished for want of food. And what rules of interpretation will authorise us to interpret *eating* and *trees* literally in one part of the sentence and figuratively in the other? A garden in a delightful climate is the habitation, and the fruits produced in that garden the food, prepared for the progenitors of the human race; and though in the garden actually fitted up for this purpose two trees were remarkably distinguished from the rest, perhaps in situation and appearance as well as in use, the distinction was calculated to serve the best of purposes. The one, called the *tree of life*, of which, while they continued innocent, they were permitted to eat, served as a sacramental pledge or assurance on the part of God, that as long as they should observe the terms of the covenant their life should be preserved; the other, of which it was death to taste, was admirably adapted to impress upon their minds the necessity of implicit obedience to the Divine will, in whatever manner it might be made known to them.

It appears plain from the whole Mosaic account, that Adam and Eve were endued with such powers of body and mind as fitted them to exerce

life dominion over the other animals; that those powers constituted the image of God, in which they are said to have been formed; that they received by immediate revelation the first principles of all useful knowledge; that they lived for some time entitled to the natural rewards of piety; that they were afterwards translated into paradise, where they were placed under a new law, with the penalty of death threatened to the breach of it, and the promise of endless life if they should faithfully observe it; and that they were endued with the gifts of the Holy Ghost, to enable them to fulfil the terms of that covenant, which has been improperly termed the *covenant of works*, since it flowed from the mere *grace of God*, and conferred great and gratuitous privileges on man.

SECT. IV. *Of the FALL of ADAM, and its CONSEQUENCES.*

FROM the preceding account of the primeval state of man, it is evident that his continuance in the terrestrial paradise, together with all the privileges which he there enjoyed, were made to depend upon his observance of one positive precept. No other duty was incumbent on him, except, perhaps, to keep the *SABBATH*, then first instituted. The punishment was denounced only against eating the fruit of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil. To the word *death* in that passage divines have affixed many different meanings, which we need not enumerate, most of them being very absurd, and the meaning of the word is sufficiently obvious. In any acceptance of the word, it denoted something *new* to Adam, which he could not understand without an explanation of the term; and therefore, it was threatened as the punishment of the only transgression he could commit.

The abstaining from a particular fruit in the midst of a garden abounding with fruits of all kinds, was a precept which at first view appears of easy observation; and the penalty threatened against the breach of it was, in every sense, awful. The precept, however, was broken notwithstanding that penalty; and though we may thence infer that our first parents were not beings of such absolute perfection as by some divines they have been represented, we shall yet find, upon due consideration, that the temptation by which they were seduced, when taken with all its circumstances, were such as no wise and modest man will think himself able to have resisted. The short history of this important transaction is related in *Gen. iii.* which the reader may consult.

The covenant, which, on the introduction of our first parents into paradise, their Creator was graciously pleased to make with them, being broken by their violation of the condition on which they were advanced to that happy state, whereupon the historian tells us, that "lest they should put forth their hand and take also of the tree of life and eat, and live for ever, the Lord God sent them forth from the garden of Eden, to till the ground from whence they were taken." Their minds must now have been burdened with the inward sense of guilt, and they must have dreaded the threatened death; of which, however, they had probably no idea.

God, however, did not find them forth thus hopeless and forlorn from the paradise of delights which they had so recently forfeited. He determined to punish them for their transgression, but at the same time to give them hopes of recovering more than their lost inheritance. Calling therefore the various offenders before him, and inquiring into their different degrees of guilt, he began with pronouncing judgment on the serpent in terms which implied that there was still mercy for man. "And the Lord God said unto the serpent, Because thou hast done this, thou art cursed above all cattle, and above every beast of the field; upon thy belly shalt thou go, and dust shalt thou eat all the days of thy life; and I will put enmity between thee and the woman, and between thy seed and her seed; it shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt bruise his heel." That this sentence has been fully inflicted on the serpent, no reasoning can be necessary to prove.

But the serpent was only the *instrument* of the temptation. We are told, that when the foundations of the earth were laid, the morning stars sang together, and all the sons of God shouted for joy; and it is at least probable that there would be similar rejoicing when the six days work of creation was finished. If so, Adam and Eve, who were but a little lower than the angels, might be admitted into the chorus, and thus be made acquainted with the existence of good and evil spirits. At all events, their gracious and merciful Creator would inform them that they had a more powerful enemy than a brute; that he was a rebellious angel capable of deceiving them in many ways; and that they ought therefore to be constantly on their guard against his wiles. They must have known too that they were themselves animated by something different from matter; and when they found they were deceived by the serpent, they might surely, without any remarkable stretch of sagacity, infer, that their malignant enemy had actuated the organs of that creature in a manner somewhat similar to that in which their own souls actuated their own bodies. If this be admitted, the degradation of the serpent would convince them of the weakness of the tempter when compared with their Creator; and confirm their hopes, that since he was not able to preserve unhurt his own instrument of mischief, he should not be able finally to prevail against them; but that though he had bruised their heels, the promised seed of the woman should at last bruise his head, and recover the inheritance which they had lost. See *PROPHESY*, § 3.

Having thus punished the original instigator to evil, the Almighty Judge turned to the fallen pair, and said to the woman, "I will greatly multiply thy sorrow; in sorrow shalt thou bring forth children; and thy desire shall be to thy husband, and he shall rule over thee. And unto Adam he said, Because thou hast hearkened unto the voice of thy wife, and hast eaten of the tree of which I commanded thee, saying, Thou shalt not eat of it; cursed is the ground for thy sake; in sorrow shalt thou eat of it all the days of thy life. Thorns also and thistles shall it bring forth unto thee, and thou shalt eat the herb of the field. In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread till thou return unto

unto the ground; for out of it wast thou taken, for dust thou art, and unto dust shalt thou return."

Here is a terrible denunciation of toil and misery, and death, upon our first parents, which has since been continued in a greater or less degree upon all their posterity. But they were not left without hope of restoration to some better state. Had they been furnished with no ground of hope beyond the grave, we cannot believe that the Righteous Judge of all the earth would have added to the penalty originally threatened. That penalty they would doubtless have incurred the very day on which they fell; but as they were promised a deliverance from the consequences of their fall, it was proper to train them up by severe discipline for the happiness reserved for them in a future state.

After the passing of their sentence, the man and woman were turned out into the world, where they had formerly lived before they were placed in the garden of Eden; and all future access to the garden was for ever denied them. They were not, however, in the same state in which they were originally before their introduction into Paradise: They were now conscious of guilt; doomed to severe labour; liable to sorrow and sickness, disease and death; and all these miseries they had brought, not only upon themselves, but also, as we learn from different passages of the New Testament, upon their unborn posterity to the end of time. Such is the brief but melancholy account given by MOSES, the earliest and most authentic of historians, of that fatal event, which first

"Brought death into the world, and all our woe."

This, as well as the whole system of revelation in general, has been objected to by infidels, and represented as both ridiculous and unreasonable, that the great Creator should subject a whole race of rational beings to misery for such a silly offence as the *eating of an apple*. This objection has been answered by no writer more satisfactorily than by MR NICHOLLS, in his *Conference with a Theist*; wherein he argues, that the Creator had certainly a right to put his rational creatures upon a *test of obedience*; which was the only mark of gratitude they could give; and that *such a test* could only be made by such a command of *abstinence*. And he adds, that none of all the *duties* of the moral law, afterwards delivered to Moses, could have afforded such a test to our first parents; for Adam, having daily converse with his Creator, could be in no danger of worshipping any other god, or making images of his invisible Creator; neither was he under any temptation of profaning his name; natural *parents* he had none; *murder* he could not commit, nor *theft*, nor *adultery*; nor could a being who had received a whole *world* full of every enjoyment, *covet* any thing *more*. The prohibition of a particular *fruit* was therefore the only test, that could be prescribed as a trial of obedience to Adam.

That women would have had less sorrow in the bringing forth of children; that we should have been subjected to less toil, and exempted from death, had our first parents not fallen from their paradisaical state—are truths incontrovertible by

him who believes the inspiration of the Holy Scriptures.

Death was certainly introduced by their fall: for the inspired apostle assures us, that in *Adam all die*; and again, that *through the offence of one many are dead*. Many contend, that it includes death, *corporeal, spiritual or moral, and eternal*; and that all mankind are subjected to these three kinds of death, on account of their share in the guilt of the original transgression, which is usually denominated *original sin*, and considered as the source of all moral evil.

That all men are subjected to death corporeal in consequence of Adam's transgression, is universally admitted; but that they are in any sense partakers of his *guilt*, and on that account subjected to death spiritual and eternal, has been very strenuously denied. But it would extend this article beyond all due limits, to enter into this controversy, which it is impossible to decide.

Some few divines of this school are indeed of opinion, that the phrase, "By one man's disobedience many were made sinners," means nothing more than that the posterity of Adam, through his sin, derive from him a *corrupt nature*. But though this be admitted as an undoubted truth, the more zealous abettors of the system contend, that it is not the whole truth. "It is true (say they) that all men are made of one man's blood, and that blood is tainted with sin; and so a clean thing cannot be brought out of an unclean. What is born of the flesh is flesh, carnal and corrupt: every man is conceived in sin, and shapen in iniquity; but then there is a difference between being *made sinners* and becoming *sinful*. The one respects the *guilt*, the other the *pollution* of our nature; the one is previous to the other, and the foundation of it. Men receive a corrupt nature from their immediate parent; but they are made sinners, not by any act of their disobedience, but only by the *imputation* of the sin of Adam."

Such are the consequences of Adam's fall, and such the doctrine of *original sin*, as maintained by the more rigid followers of CALVIN. That great reformer, however, was not the *author* of this doctrine. It had been taught, so early as in the beginning of the 5th century, by St AUGUSTINE, the celebrated bishop of Hippo (see AUGUSTINE), and the authority of that father had made it more or less prevalent in both the Greek and Roman churches long before the Reformation. Calvin was indeed the most eminent modern divine by whom it has been held in all its rigour; and it constitutes one great part of that theological system, which, from being taught by him, is now known by the name of Calvinism. Those by whom it is embraced maintain it with zeal, as, in their opinion, forming, together with the other tenets of their master, the only pure system of evangelical truths; but it hath met with much opposition in some of the Lutheran churches, as well as from private divines in the church of England, and from the great body of Dutch remonstrants. (See CALVINISM, ARMINIANS, and SYNOD OF DORT.)

The ARMINIANS of the present day are agreed in opposing the doctrine of the rigid Calvinists, and in stating their own notions of the consequences

quences of Adam's fall; but from that event their adversaries deduce one consequence, which some of them admit, and others deny. It is said, that though we cannot possibly be partakers in Adam's guilt, we yet derive from him a moral taint and infection, by which we have a natural *propensity to sin*; that having lost the image of God, in which he was created, Adam begat sons in his own image; and, in one word, that the sensual appetites of human nature were inflamed, and its moral and intellectual powers greatly weakened, by the eating of the forbidden fruit. The heathens themselves acknowledged and lamented this depravity, though they were ignorant of the source from which it sprang. The Scriptures assert it, affirming that no man can be born pure and clean; that whatever is born of the flesh, or comes into the world by ordinary generation, is flesh, carnal and corrupt; that the imagination of the thoughts of man's heart is *only evil continually*; that the heart is deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked; and that out of it proceeds all that is vile and sinful: and the history of all ages confirms these melancholy truths.

SECT. V. HISTORICAL VIEW of THEOLOGY from the FALL of ADAM to the COMING of CHRIST.

The events treated of in the last section paved the way for the coming of Christ, and the preaching of the gospel; and unless we thoroughly understand the origin of the gospel, we cannot have an adequate conception of its design. By contrasting the first with the second Adam, St Paul gives us clearly to understand, that the great purpose for which Christ came into the world and suffered death upon the cross, was to restore to mankind that life which they had lost by the fall of their original progenitor. The preaching of the gospel, therefore, commenced with the first hint of such a restoration; and the promise given to Adam and Eve, that "the seed of the woman should bruise the head of the serpent," was as truly evangelical as these words of the apostle, by which we are taught, that "this is a faithful saying, and worthy of all acceptance, that Christ Jesus came into the world to save sinners." (1 Tim. 1. 15.) The former text, taken by itself, is indeed obscure, and the latter is explicit; but both belong to the same system, for the scriptures contain but two covenants or dispensations of God to man, in which the whole race is included.

CHRISTIANITY, therefore, is indeed *very near as old as the creation*; but its principles were at first obscurely revealed, and afterwards gradually developed under different forms, as mankind became able to receive them. (See PROPHECY, § 2. 3.) All that appears to have been at first revealed to Adam and Eve was, that by some means or other one of their posterity should in time redeem the whole race from the curse of the fall; or, if they had a distinct view of the means by which that redemption was to be wrought, it was probably communicated to them at the institution of sacrifices. (See SACRIFICE, § 2-4.) This promise of a future deliverer served to comfort them under their heavy sentence; and the institution of sacrifices, whilst it impressed upon their minds

lively ideas of the punishment due to their transgression, was admirably calculated to prepare both them and their posterity for the great atonement which, in due time, was to take away the sins of the world.

After the fall, God was graciously pleased to manifest himself to the senses of our first parents, and visibly to conduct them by the angel of his presence in all the rites and duties of religion. This is evident from the different discourses which he held with Cain, as well as from the complaint of that murderer of being hid from his face, and from its being said, that "he went out from the presence of the Lord, and dwelt on the east of Eden." Nor does it appear that God wholly withdrew his visible presence, and left mankind to their own inventions, till their wickedness became so very great, that his spirit could no longer strive with them. Adam continued 930 years a living monument of the justice and mercy of God; of his extreme hatred and abhorrence of sin, as well as of his love and *long-suffering* towards the sinner. He was very sensible how sin had entered into the world, and he could not but apprise his children of its author. He would at the same time inform them of the unity of God, and his dominion over the evil one; of the means by which he had appointed himself to be worshipped; and of his promise of future deliverance from the curse of the fall. Such information would produce a tolerable idea of the Divine Being, and afford sufficient motives to obey his will. The effects of it, accordingly, were apparent in the righteous family of SETH, who soon distinguished themselves from the posterity of Cain, and for their eminent piety were honoured with the appellation of *the sons of God*. Of this family sprang a person so remarkable for virtue and devotion, as to be exempted from Adam's sentence and the common lot of his sons; for after he had walked with God 300 years, and prophesied to his brethren, he was translated, that he should not see death. Of this miraculous event there can be no doubt but that his contemporaries had some visible demonstration; and as the fate of Abel was an argument to their reason, so the translation of Enoch was a proof to their senses of another state of life after the present. See ENOCH.

Notwithstanding this watchful care of God over his fallen creature man, vice, and probably idolatry, spread through the world with a rapid pace. The family of Seth married into that of Cain, and adopted the manners of their new relations. Rapine and violence, unbounded lust and impurity of every kind, prevailed universally: and when those giants in wickedness had filled the earth with tyranny, injustice, and oppression—when the whole race was become entirely carnal—God, after raising up another prophet to give them frequent warnings of their fate for the space of 120 years, was at length obliged, in mercy to themselves, as well as to the succeeding generations of men, to cut them off by a general deluge. See DELUGE.

Thus did God, by the spirit of prophecy, which is by some supposed to have been hereditary in the heads of families; by frequent manifestations

of his own presence; and by uninterrupted tradition, make ample provision for the instruction and improvement of the world for the first 1600 years. After the deluge, he was pleased to converse again with NOAH, and make in his person a new and extensive covenant with mankind. (See PROPHECY, § 3.) Of his power, justice, and goodness; of his supreme dominion over the earth and the heavens; of his abhorrence of sin, and his determination not to let it go unpunished—that patriarch and his family had been most awfully convinced; nor could they or their children, for some time, want any other argument to enforce obedience, fear, and worship. The sons of Noah were 100 years old when the deluge overwhelmed the earth. They had long conversed with their ancestors of the old world, had frequented the religious assemblies, observed every Sabbath-day, and been instructed by those who had seen Adam. It is therefore impossible that they could be ignorant of the creation of the world, of the fall of man, or of the promise of future deliverance from the consequences of that fall; or that they could offer their sacrifices, and perform the other rites of the instituted worship, without looking forward with the eye of faith to that deliverance seen, perhaps obscurely, through their typical oblations.

In this state of things, with the awful remembrance of the deluge continually present to their minds, religion might for some time be safely propagated by tradition. But when by degrees mankind corrupted that tradition in its most essential parts; when, instead of the one Supreme God, they set up several orders of inferior deities, and worshipped all the host of heaven; when, at the same time, they were uniting under one head, and forming a universal empire under the patronage of the sun, their chief divinity; (see BABEL)—God saw it necessary to disperse them into distinct colonies, by causing such discord among them as rendered it impossible for any one species of idolatry to be at once universally established.

After this dispersion, there is reason to believe that particular revelations were vouchsafed wherever men were disposed to regard them. PELEG had his name prophetically given him from the dispersion which was to happen in his days; and not only his father HEBER, but all the heads of families mentioned from Noah to ABRAHAM, are with much plausibility supposed to have had the spirit of prophecy on many occasions. Noah was undoubtedly both priest and prophet; and, living till within two years of the birth of Abraham, or, according to others, till that patriarch was near 60 years old, he would surely be able to keep up a tolerable sense of true religion among such of his descendants as sojourned within the influence of his doctrine and example. His religious son SHAM, who lived till after the birth of ISAAC, could not but preserve in tolerable purity the faith and worship of the true God among such of his own descendants as lived in his neighbourhood.

But though the remains of true religion were thus preserved among a few righteous men, idolatry, with its inseparable attendants, unnatural lusts and cruel superstition, had in a short time prevailed so far among the sons of Noah, that God,

in his infinite wisdom, saw it expedient not only to shorten the lives of men, but also to withdraw his presence from the generality, who had thus rendered themselves unworthy of such communications; and to select a particular family, in which his worship might be preserved pure amidst the various corruptions that were overspreading the world. With this view ABRAHAM was called; and after many remarkable trials of his faith and constancy, admitted to a particular intimacy and friendship with his Maker. God entered into a peculiar covenant with him, engaging to be his guide, protector, and defender; to bestow all temporal blessings upon him and his seed; and to make some of those seed the instruments of conveying blessings of a higher kind to all the nations of the earth.

It was doubtless for his great faith that Abraham was fixed upon to be the parent of that people who should preserve the knowledge of the unity of God in the midst of an idolatrous and polytheistic world; but we are not to imagine that it was for his sake only that all this was done, or that his less worthy descendants were, by the equal Lord of all, treated with partial fondness for the virtues of their ancestor; it was for the benefit of mankind in general that he was called from his father's house, that he might preserve the doctrine of the Divine unity in his own family, and be an instrument in the hand of Providence to convey the same faith to the nations around him. Accordingly, we find him distinguished among the neighbouring princes, and kings reproved for his sake; who being made acquainted with his prophetic character, desired his intercession with God. History tells us of his conversing on the subject of religion with the most learned Egyptians, who appear to have derived from him or some of his descendants the rite of circumcision, and to have been for a while stopt in their progress towards the last stage of that degrading idolatry which afterwards rendered their national worship the opprobrium of the whole earth. (See MYSTERIES, § 7, 13; MYTHOLOGY, § 10; and POLYTHEISM, p. 123. and 124.) We are informed that his name was held in the greatest veneration all over the East; that the Magians, Sabians, Persians, and Indians, all gloried in him as the great reformer of their respective religions: and it appears extremely probable, that not only the BRACHMANS, but likewise the Hindoo god BRAHMA, derive their names from the father of the faithful.

But if Abraham had manifestations of the Almighty more frequent and familiar, the rest of the world was by no means left without sufficient light. Lot professed the true religion in the midst of Sodom. In Canaan we meet with MELCHIZEDEC, king of Salem, and priest of the most high God, who blessed Abraham, and to whom that patriarch himself did homage. Abimelech, king of Gerar, receiving an admonition from the Lord, immediately paid a due regard to it; and the same sense of religion and virtue descended to his son. Laban and Bethuel acknowledged the Lord, and the former was even favoured with a vision. In Arabia we find Job and his three friends, all men of high rank, entering into the deepest disquisitions in theology; agreeing about the unity

omnipotence

omnipotence, and spirituality of God; the justice of his providence, with other fundamental articles of true religion; and mentioning divine inspiration or revelation as a thing not uncommon in their age or country. (See ELIHU and JOB.) BALAAM appears to have been a true prophet; but as he was unquestionably a man of bad morals, the natural inference is, that the gift of prophecy was then, as afterwards, bestowed on individuals, not for their own sakes, but for the sake of mankind in general; and that, as in "every nation, he who feareth God and worketh righteousness is accepted of him;" so in those early ages of the world, when mankind were but children in religious knowledge, they were blessed with the light of divine revelation wherever they were disposed to make a proper use of it.

This disposition, however, appears to have been found in few, and therefore God was pleased to adopt Abraham and part of his posterity as the race from which the great Redeemer was to spring; to train them up by degrees in suitable notions of their Creator; and gradually to open up to them, as they were able to receive it, the nature of that dispensation under which "all the nations of the earth were to be blessed in the patriarch's seed." (See PROPHECY, § 2, 3; and PROPHECY.) For this purpose he held frequent correspondence with them; and to strengthen and confirm their faith, he daily gave them new promises. He blessed Isaac, and miraculously increased his substance, to the envy of the neighbouring princes. He foretold the condition of his two sons, renewed the promise made to Abraham, and blessed Jacob, with whom he condescended to converse as he had conversed with Abraham and Isaac; and to whom he again renewed the great promise. But even at this highly favoured period, IDOLATRY had begun to gain some footing even among the relations of Abraham; witness LABAN's idols, which Rachel stole. See Gen. xxxi. 34. But at this period the great Author of all goodness repeated his revelations to Abraham and his descendants, ISAAC and JACOB, to prevent their relapsing into the savage state, and savage idolatry. See SAVAGISM.

The worship of the patriarchs at this period seems to have consisted chiefly of the three kinds of sacrifice (see SACRIFICE); to which were doubtless added prayers and praises. Such of them as looked forward to a future redemption, and had any tolerable notion of the means by which it was to be effected, as Abraham certainly had, must have been sensible that the blood of bulls and of goats could never take away sin, and that their sacrifices were therefore valuable only when they were offered in faith of that great promise, "which they, having seen it afar off, believed, and were persuaded of it; and confessed that they were strangers and pilgrims upon earth." That such persons looked for a "better country, even a heavenly one," in a future state, is highly probable; though the precise measure of their knowledge we can only conjecture. They believed in a future Redeemer according to the promise. The patriarchal worship had the same end in view with the Christian—the attainment of everlasting life in

heaven, although the generality of men appear not, in the early age of which we now write, to have extended their views beyond the present life.

But the world was ready to lose all knowledge of the true God and his worship, had he not taken effectual care to preserve that knowledge in one nation, from which it might be conveyed to the rest of mankind at different times, and in greater or less degree, as they should be capable of receiving it. To this purpose he made way for the removal of Jacob and his family to one of the most improved and polished countries of the world; and introduced them into it in a manner so advantageous as to give them an opportunity of imparting much religious knowledge to the natives. The natives, however, were gross idolaters; and that his chosen people might be as far as possible from the contagion of their example, he placed them upon the borders of Egypt, where, though they multiplied exceedingly, they were by their very occupation still kept a separate people, and must have been rendered, by a long and severe oppression, in a great degree averse from the manners and religion of their neighbours. This aversion, however, seems to have gradually become less and less; and before they were miraculously redeemed from their house of bondage, they had certainly lost all correct notions of the unity of God, and the nature of his worship, and had adopted the greater part of the superstitions of their task-masters. In such a state of things, to have suffered them to remain longer in Egypt could have served no good purpose; and therefore, to fulfil the promise which he had given to Abraham, God determined to deliver them out of the hands of the Egyptians, by means which should convince both them and their offspring of his own supremacy over heaven and earth.

Moses being appointed to demand of Pharaoh leave for the Israelites to go three days journey into the wilderness to serve the God of their fathers, it was necessary that he should be endowed with the power of working miracles, to evince the reality of his divine mission. For an account of the wonders by which the Almighty manifested himself, by means of his servant, on this occasion, we must refer to Exodus vii.—xii. We can only remark here, that no fewer than ten miraculous exertions of supernatural power were necessary to be made before the hardened monarch of Egypt would consent to let the Hebrews depart to serve the true God. But at last, in consequence of the dreadful effects of the last miracle, the death of the *first born*, Pharaoh at last consented to the departure of the Israelites; but soon repenting, he was drowned, with all his host, in pursuit of them, in the Red Sea.

It is a fact ascertained by profane history, as well as sacred, that the Israelites were once slaves in Egypt, and that they at last got free. Now it has been justly remarked, that considering the great power of the Egyptian monarch, their having obtained their liberty in any other way than in the manner recorded by Moses, would have been a *greater miracle* than all the ten he records.

Upon these ten miraculous exertions of the divine power it has also been justly remarked, that

most of them were such as to militate directly against the idolatry of Egypt. The two first of them were exerted upon their great god, the river NILE, whose waters were turned into blood, and made to produce noxious swarms of frogs. The murrain upon the cattle was also a visible judgement upon their absurd idolatry and *brute-worship*, (see POLYTHEISM, p. 123, 124) for these cattle were among their chief deities. (See APIS.) The *ſ*, which became a plague, was a god of the Phœnicians and the extraordinary thick *darkness*, effectually put to *defiance* the power of the chief god of Egypt, OSIRIS, whom they adored as the SUN, the fountain of LIGHT. But the swarm of lice struck even Pharaoh's magicians themselves with such astonishment, that they acknowledged it to be a work of the Almighty.

THE GOD OF ISRAEL having thus magnified himself over the Egyptians and their gods, and rescued his people from bondage by such means as must not only have struck terror and astonishment into the whole land, but also have spread his name through all the countries which had any communication with that far-famed nation, proceeded to instruct and exercise the Hebrews for many years in the wilderness. He inculcated upon them the unity of the Godhead; gave them statutes and judgments more righteous than those of any other nation; and, by every method consistent with the freedom of moral agency, guarded them against the contagion of idolatry and polytheism. He sent his angel before them to keep them in the way, took upon himself the office of their supreme civil governor, and by his presence directed them in all their undertakings. He led them with repeated signs and wonders through the neighbouring nations, continued to try and discipline them till they were tolerably attached to his government, and established in his worship, and introduced them into the Promised Land when its inhabitants by their crimes had become ripe for destruction. At their entrance into it, he gave them a summary repetition of their former laws, with more such ordinances, both of a ceremonial and moral kind, as were both suited to their temper and circumstances, as well as to prefigure, and by degrees to prepare them for a more perfect dispensation under the Messiah. See MOSAIC LAW, § I, 1—3; SABBATH and SACRIFICE.

The Jewish law had two great objects in view; of which the first was to preserve among them the knowledge of the true God, a rational worship springing from that knowledge, and the regular practice of moral virtue; and the 2d was to fit them for receiving the accomplishment of the great promise made to their ancestors. When the true God first tells them, by their leader Moses, that if they would obey his voice indeed, and keep his covenant, then they should be a PECULIAR TREASURE to him above all people: to prevent them from supposing that he shared the earth with the idols of the heathen, and had from partial fondness chosen them for his *portion*, he immediately adds, for ALL THE EARTH IS MINE. By this addition he gave them plainly to understand that they were chosen to be his *peculiar treasure* for some purpose of general import-

ance; and the very first article of the covenant which they were to keep was, that they should have *no other gods* but HIM. So inveterate, however, was the principle which led to an intercommunity of the objects of worship, that they could not have kept this article of the covenant but in a state of separation from the rest of mankind; and that separation could neither have been effected nor continued without the visible providence of the Almighty watching over them as his peculiar treasure. Upon this separation every thing depended; and therefore, to render it the more secure, JEHOVAH, who in compliance with their prejudices had already assumed the appellation of *their God*, was graciously pleased to become likewise their supreme Magistrate, making them a "kingdom of priests and a holy nation" and delivering to them a digest as well of their *civil* as of their *religious* laws.

The Almighty thus becoming their King, the government of the Israelites was properly a THEOCRACY, in which the two societies, civil and religious, were of course incorporated. They had indeed after their settlement in the Promised Land, at first, several temporary judges occasionally raised up; and afterwards permanent magistrates called *kings*, to lead their armies in war, and to give vigour to the administration of justice in peace; but neither those judges nor kings could abrogate a single law of the original code, or make the smallest addition to it but by the spirit of prophecy. They cannot therefore be considered as supreme magistrates, by whatever title they governed; for they were to go out and come in at the word of the priests, who were to ask counsel for them of the Lord, and with whom they were even associated in all judicial proceedings, as well of a civil as of a spiritual nature. Under any other than a theocratic government the Hebrews could not have been kept separate from the nations around them; or if they could, that separation would not have answered the great purpose for which it was established. "The people on their leaving Egypt were sunk into the grossest idolatry. To recover them by the discipline of a separation, it was necessary that the idea of God and his attributes should be impressed upon them in the most *sensible* manner. But this could not be commodiously done under his character of God of the universe: but under his character of *King of Israel* it might. Hence we find him in the Old Testament so frequently represented with *affections* analogous to human passions. The civil religion in which he stood to the Israelites made such a representation natural; the grossness of their conceptions made it *necessary*; and the guarded manner in which it was always qualified prevented it from becoming mischievous." Hence too it is, that under the Mosaic dispensation, idolatry was a crime of *state*, punishable by the civil magistrate. No mere *human* authority could have lawfully established it.

It was for the same purpose of guarding them against idolatry, and preventing all undue communications with their heathen neighbours, that the ritual law was given, after their presumptuous rebellions in the wilderness. After their repeated apostacies, and iniquitous wishes to mix with the surrounding

surrounding nations, it was necessary to subject them to a multifarious ritual, of which the ceremonial parts were solemn and splendid, fitted to engage and fix the attention of a people whose hearts were gross; to inspire them with awful reverence, and to withdraw their affections from the pomp and pageantry of those idle superstitions which they had so long witnessed in Egypt. To keep them warmly attached to their public worship, that worship was loaded with operose and magnificent rites, and so completely incorporated with their civil polity as to make the same things at once duties of religion and acts of state. The service of God was indeed so ordered as to be the constant business as well as entertainment of their lives, supplying the place of all other entertainments; and the sacrifices which they were commanded to offer on the most solemn occasions, were of such animals as the Egyptians and other Heathens deemed *sacred*.

But it was not against Egyptian idolatry only that the ritual law was framed: the nations of Syria, in the midst of whom the Israelites were to dwell, were addicted to many cruel and absurd superstitions, against which it was as necessary to guard the people of God as against the brute worship of Egypt. But the Phœnician sacrifices of their children to Moloch were shocking. (See *MOLoch, POLYTHEISM*, p. 123 and 124; and *SACRIFICE*, § 6.) The Phœnicians and the Canaanites entertained an opinion that every child came into the world with a *polluted nature*, and that this pollution could be removed only by a *lustral fire*. Hence they took their new born infants, and with particular ceremonies made them pass through the flame of a pile sacred to Baal or Moloch, the symbols of their great god the sun. Sometimes this purgation was delayed till the children had arrived at their 10th or 12th year, when they were made either to leap through the flame, or run several times backwards and forwards between two contiguous sacred fires; and this lustration was supposed to free them from every natural pollution, and to make them through life the peculiar care of the deity in whose honour it was performed. But besides this, thousands of infants were burnt in the cruellest manner. See *BEN HINNOM*, and *SACRIFICE*, § 6. The true God, however, who would have no fellowship with idols, forbade all such purgations among his people, whether done by fires consecrated to himself or to the bloody deities of the Syrian nations. "There shall not be found (says he) among you any one that maketh his son or his daughter to pass through the fire."

Few precepts in the Jewish law are more frequently repeated than that which prohibits the feeding of a kid in its mother's milk; among the nations round Judea, the feeding upon a kid boiled in its mother's milk, was an essential part of the impious and magical ceremonies celebrated in honour of one of their gods, who was supposed to have been suckled by a she-goat. Hence in the Samaritan Pentateuch, the text runs thus; "Thou shalt not feed a kid in its mother's milk; for whoever does so, is as one who sacrifices an abominable thing, which offends the God of Jacob." Another precept, apparently of very little

importance, is given in these words: "Ye shall not round the corners of your heads, neither shalt thou mar the corners of thy beard." But its wisdom is seen at once, when we know that at funerals it was the practice of many of the heathens, in that early period, to round the corners of their heads, and mar their beards, that by throwing the hairs they had cut off upon the dead body, or the funeral pile, they might propitiate the shade of the departed hero; and that in other nations particularly in Phœnicia, it was customary to cut off all the hair of their heads except what grew upon the crown, which, with great solemnity, was consecrated either to the sun or to Saturn. The unlearned Christian, if he be a man of reflection, must read with some degree of wonder such laws as these: "Thou shalt not sow thy vineyard with divers seeds, lest the fruit of thy seed which thou hast sown and the fruits of thy vineyard be defiled. Thou shalt not plow with an ox and an ass together. Thou shalt not wear a garment of divers sorts, or of woollen and linen together." But his wonder will cease when he knows that all these were superstitious practices from which the Sabian idolaters of the East expected the greatest advantages. Their belief in magic and judicial astrology led them to imagine, that by sowing different kinds of corn among their vines they should propitiate the gods which were afterwards known in Rome by the names of *Bacchus* and *Ceres*; that, by yoking animals so heterogenous as the ox and the ass in the same plough, they should by a charm secure the favour of the deities who presided over husbandry; and that a garment composed of linen and woollen, worn under certain conjunctions of the stars, would protect its owner, his flocks, his herds, and his field, from all malign influences, and render him in the highest degree prosperous through the whole course of his life. But *magical ceremonies*, of which the very essence seems to have consisted in uniting in one group, or jumble things never brought together by nature, were always performed to render propitious good or evil demons; (see *MAGIC*;) and therefore such ceremonies, however unimportant in themselves, were in that age most wisely prohibited in the Mosaic law, as they naturally led those who were addicted to them to the worship of idols and impure spirits.

If an accurate examination of the whole Jewish ritual be made in this manner, every precept of it will be found to be directed against some idolatrous practice of the age in which it was given. It was therefore admirably calculated to keep the Israelites a separate people, and to prevent too close an intercourse between them and their gentile neighbours. And their civil institutes, even those which appear the most trifling, were all contrived with the most consummate wisdom to promote the same end. The distinction between clean and unclean animals, prevented their eating and drinking with pagans.

That these laws might operate more powerfully on minds gross and carnal, they were all enforced by temporal sanctions. This was indeed the natural and even necessary consequence of the theocratic government established in Israel. Nor were temporal rewards and punishments held out only to the nation as a collective body; they were

promised

promised and threatened to every individual in his private capacity as the certain consequence of his obedience or disobedience. Every particular Hebrew was commanded to honour his father and mother, that it might go well with him, and that his days might be prolonged; whilst he who cursed his father or mother was sure to be put to death. Against every idolater, and even against the wilful transgressor of the ceremonial law, God repeatedly declared he would set his face, and would cut off that man from among his people.

From these peculiarities in the Jewish dispensation, some divines have rashly concluded, that the ancient Israelites had no hope whatever beyond the grave; and that in the whole Old Testament there is not a single intimation of a *future state*. In the earliest periods of their commonwealth, the Israelites could, indeed, only infer, from different passages of their sacred books, that there would be a general resurrection of the dead, and a future state of rewards and punishments; but from the writings of the prophets, it appears, that before the Babylonish captivity that doctrine must have been very generally received. (See *JON. xix. 25.*) In the *Psalms*, and in the prophecies of *Isaiah*, *Daniel*, and *Ezekiel*, there are several texts which seem to prove incontrovertibly, that, at the time when these inspired books were written, every Israelite who could read the scriptures must have had some hopes of a resurrection from the dead. For example, *Isaiah* has these remarkable words; "Thy dead men shall live; together with my dead body shall they arise. Awake and sing, ye that dwell in the dust; for thy dew is as the dew of herbs, and the earth shall cast out the dead." These words are undoubtedly figurative, and were uttered to give the Israelites consolation in very disastrous times. It was indeed a prophecy only of a temporal deliverance; but as it is expressed in terms relating to the death and resurrection of man, the doctrine of a resurrection must then have been well known, and generally received, or such language would have been altogether unintelligible. In the book of *Ezekiel*, ch. xxxvii. 3. there is also a particular description of the resurrection; which must have made the hope and belief of it very general among the Jews.

But notwithstanding the intelligent and righteous Israelites who "all died in faith, and not having received the promises, but having seen them afar off, were persuaded of them and embraced them, confessing that they were strangers and pilgrims on earth, who desired a better country, that is, a heavenly one," we are not to suppose that this heavenly desire arose from any thing taught in the law of Moses. That law, when taken by itself, as unconnected with prior and subsequent revelations, makes no mention whatever of a heavenly inheritance, which St Paul assures us was given 430 years before to Abraham by a promise which may be traced back to the first ray of comfort vouchsafed to fallen man in the sentence passed on the original deceiver. "Wherefore then served the law? It was added, (says the apostle,) because of transgressions, till the seed should come to whom the promise was made." The transgressions here alluded to were polytheism and idolatry, which with their never-

failing train of cruel and detestable vices, had overpread the whole world; and the primary intention of the law was to stem the torrent of these corruptions, for which we have seen it was admirably calculated.

Obvious as it is, that a future state of rewards and punishments made no part of the Mosaic dispensation, yet the law had certainly a spiritual meaning to be understood when the fulness of time should come. Every Christian sees a striking resemblance between the sacrifice of the paschal lamb, which delivered the Israelites from the destroying angel in Egypt, and the sacrifice of the Lamb of God, which taketh away the sin of the world. Indeed the whole ritual of sacrifice must have led the more intelligent of them to faith in a future sacrifice; by which, while the heel of the seed of the woman should be bruised, the head of the serpent should be completely crushed: (see *SACRIFICE. § 2—4.*) and as prophets were raised up from time to time, to prepare them for the coming of the Messiah, and to foretell the nature of his kingdom, there can be no doubt but that those inspired teachers would lay open to them, as far as was expedient, the temporary duration of the Mosaic law, and convince them that it was only the *shadow of better things to come*. From the nature of their ritual, and the different prophecies vouchsafed them, which became more and more explicit as the time approached for their accomplishment, they must surely have been led to expect redemption from the curse of the fall by the sufferings of their Messiah; but that any one of them knew precisely the manner in which they were to be redeemed, and the nature of that religion which was to supersede their own, is wholly incredible. Such knowledge would have made them impatient under the yoke of ordinances to which they were subjected; for after the Christian faith came into full splendour, mankind could be no longer under the tuition of such a schoolmaster as the law, which "had only a *shadow* of good things, but so far from their reality, not even the *very image* of them." Through these shadows, however, the Jews, aided by the clearer light of prophecy, might have seen enough of God's plan of redemption to have made them acknowledge Jesus, when he came among them working miracles of mercy, for the Messiah so long promised.

While the Israelites were thus gradually prepared for the coming of the Prince of Peace, we must not suppose that the rest of the world was totally neglected. The dispersion of the ten tribes certainly contributed to spread the knowledge of the true God among the eastern nations. The subsequent captivity of the tribes of Judah and Benjamin must have confirmed that knowledge in the great empires of Babylon and Persia; and that particular providence of God which afterwards led Ptolemy Philadelphus to get the Jewish scriptures translated into the Greek language, laid the divine oracles open to the study of every accomplished scholar. At last, when the arms of Rome had conquered the civilized world, and rendered Judea a province of the empire; when learning and philosophy were so universally diffused throughout the civilized world that the success of an impolite was impracticable and hopeless; when the

police

police of the Roman government was such that the intelligence of every thing important was quickly transmitted from the most distant provinces to the capital of the empire; "when that *fulness of time* was come, God sent forth his SON, made of a woman, made under the law, to redeem them that were under the law, that we might receive the adoption of sons."

SECT. VI. VIEW OF THEOLOGY, more PECULIARLY CHRISTIAN.

The time fixed by the Jewish prophets for the coming of the Messiah being arrived, "a messenger was sent before his face to prepare his way before him by preaching the baptism of repentance for the remission of sins." This messenger was JOHN the Baptist, a very extraordinary man, and the greatest of all the prophets. His birth was miraculous, the scene of his ministry the wilderness, his manners austere, and his preaching upright, without respect of persons. He frankly told his audience that he was *not* the MESSIAH, that the Messiah would soon appear among them, that "he was mightier than himself, and that he would baptise them with the Holy Ghost and with fire."

Mightier indeed he was; for though born of a woman the Messiah was not the son of a human father; and though living for the first 30 years of his life in obscurity and poverty, he was the lineal descendant of DAVID, and heir to the throne of Israel. But the dignity of his human descent, great as it was, vanishes from consideration when compared with the glory which he had with his Father before the world was. The Jewish dispensation was given by the ministry of Moses, and illustrated by subsequent revelations vouchsafed to the prophets; the immediate author of the Christian religion is the *Logos*; or second person of the blessed Trinity, of whom St John declares, that "he was in the beginning with God, and was God; that all things were made by him; and that without him was not any thing made that was made." We have already proved, that in the one Godhead there is a TRINITY of persons; and that the *Logos* is one of the three, is apparent from these words of the apostle, and from many other passages of sacred scripture. Thus he is called the LORD OF HOSTS *himself*; the *first and the last, besides whom there is no God*; the MOST HIGH GOD; God *blest for ever*; the MIGHTY GOD; the EVERLASTING FATHER, JEHOVAH *our righteousness*; and THE ONLY WISE GOD *our Saviour*. This great Being, as the same apostle assures us, was made flesh, and dwelt among men; not that the divine nature was or could be *changed* into humanity, for God is immutable, the same Almighty and incomprehensible Spirit yesterday, to day, and for ever; but the WORD or second person in the Godhead, assuming a human soul and body into a personal union with himself, dwelt upon earth as a man, veiling his divinity under mortal flesh. Hence he is said elsewhere to have been "manifested in the flesh," and "to have taken upon him the nature of man;" phrases of the same import with that which asserts "the WORD to have been made flesh."

This INCARNATION of the Son of God is per-

haps the greatest mystery of the Christian faith, and that to which ancient and modern heretics have urged the most plausible objections. The doctrine of the Trinity, though expressly scriptural, is equally incomprehensible; but the nature of God and his *mode of existence* must necessarily be incomprehensible by finite beings. And therefore it is a philosophical truth, that a revelation, which should contain nothing but comprehensible truths, would be equally incredible and useless. As well may we expect a river to contain the ocean, as a finite being to comprehend the INFINITE GOD. The difficulty is not how *two natures* so different as the *divine* and *human* can be so intimately united as to become one person; for this union in itself is not more inconceivable than that of the soul and body in one man: but that which at first is apt to stagger the faith of the reflecting Christian is the *infinite distance* between the two natures in Christ, and the comparatively small importance of the object, for the attainment of which the eternal Son of God is said to have taken upon him our nature.

Much of this difficulty however will vanish to him who considers the ways of Providence, and attends to the meaning of the words in which this mystery is taught. The importance of the object for which the WORD condescended to be made flesh, we cannot adequately know. The oracles of truth indeed inform us, that Christ Jesus came into the world to save sinners; but there are passages scattered through the New Testament (Eph. i. 10. Col. i. 19, 20.) which indicate not obscurely, that the influence of his sufferings extends to other worlds besides this; and if so, who can take upon him to say, that the quantity of good which they may have produced was not of sufficient importance to move even to this condescension a Being who is emphatically styled LOVE?

But although every thing he did and taught and suffered was intended only for the benefit of man, we shall, in the daily administration of providence, find other instances of the divine condescension; which, though they cannot be compared with the incarnation of the second person in the blessed Trinity, are yet sufficient to reconcile our understandings to that mystery when revealed to us by the Spirit of God. That in Christ there should have dwelt on earth "all the fulness of the Godhead bodily," is indeed a truth by which the devout mind is overwhelmed with astonishment; but it is little less astonishing that the omnipotent Creator should be intimately present at every instant of time to the meanest of his creatures, "upholding all things, the vilest reptile as well as the most glorious angel, by the word of his power." Yet it is a truth self-evident, that, without this constant presence of the Creator, nothing which had a beginning could continue one moment in being, but the whole visible universe would fall into annihilation. See METAPHYSICS, *SECT. XXXV*; MORAL PHILOSOPHY, *Part II. SECT. IV.* and PROVIDENCE, § 2.

The particular way in which God is present to his works, we cannot know. He is not diffused through the universe like the *anima mundi* of the PLATONISTS; but that he is in power as intimately

ly present now to every atom of matter, as when he first brought into existence, is equally the dictate of sound philosophy and of divine revelation; for "in him we live, and move, and have our being." If then the divine nature be not debased, if it cannot be debased by being constantly present with the vilest reptile on which we tread, why should our minds recoil from the idea of a still closer union between the second person of the ever blessed Trinity and the body and soul of Jesus Christ? The one union is indeed different from the other, but we are in truth equally ignorant of the nature of both. Reason and revelation assure us that God must be present to his works to preserve them in existence; and revelation informs us farther, that one of the persons in the Godhead assumed human nature into a personal union with himself, to redeem myriads of rational creatures from the miserable consequences of their own folly and wickedness. The importance of this object is such, that, for the attainment of it, we may easily conceive, that he who condescends to be potentially present with the worms of the earth and the grass of the field, would condescend still farther to be personally present with the spotless soul and body of a man. Jesus Christ lived indeed a life of poverty and suffering upon earth, but his divine nature was not affected by his sufferings. At the very time when, as a man, he had not a place where to lay his head; as God, he was in heaven as well as upon earth, dwelling in light inaccessible; and while, as a man, he was increasing in wisdom and stature, his divinity was the fulness of him who filleth all in all, and from whom nothing can be hid.

Perhaps the very improper appellation of *mother of God*, which at an early period of the church was given to the Virgin Mary, may have been one cause of the reluctance with which the incarnation has been admitted; for as we have elsewhere observed (see MARY, N^o 1. and NESTORIUS), such language, in the proper sense of the words, implies what those by whom it is used cannot possibly believe to be true; but it is not the language of scripture. We are there taught, that "Christ being in the form of God, thought it no robbery to be equal with God; but made himself of no reputation, and took upon him the form of a servant, and was made in the likeness of man;" that "God sent forth his Son made of a woman, made under the law, to redeem them that were under the law, that we might receive the adoption of sons," (Phil. ii. 6, 7. Gal. iv. 4, 5.) and that "the word who was in the beginning with God, and was God, by whom all things were made, was made flesh, and dwelt among men (who beheld his glory, the glory as of the only begotten of the Father), full of grace and truth;" but we are nowhere taught that, as God, he had a *mother*! It was indeed the doctrine of the primitive church, that the very principle of personality and individual existence in Mary's son, was union with the uncreated Word; and this doctrine is thought to imply the miraculous conception, which is recorded in the plainest terms by two of the evangelists; for he was conceived by the Holy Ghost and born of a virgin; but, as God, he had been begotten from

all eternity of the Father, and in order of nature was prior to the Holy Ghost. This is evident from the appellation of *λογος* given to him by St. John; for the term being used in that age, both by the Jewish Rabbies and the heathen philosophers, to denote the second divine subsistence, which they considered as an eternal and necessary emanation from the first, sometimes called *λογος* and sometimes *θεος*; and the apostle giving no intimation of his using the word in any uncommon sense, we must necessarily conclude, that he meant to inform us that the divinity of Christ is of eternal generation. That the term *λογος* was used in this sense by the later Platonists, we have sufficiently shewn in another place. (See PLATONISM.)

We may therefore justly conclude, that the Nicene fathers expressed themselves properly, when they declared that the only begotten Son of God was begotten of his Father before all worlds, and is *God of God*; for if St. John had believed the *λογος* or word to be unbegotten, contrary to the belief of all who made use of the phrase at the time when he wrote, he would surely have expressed his dissent from the generally received opinion. This however he is so far from doing, that he gives the amplest confirmation of that opinion, by declaring, that "he beheld the glory of the word incarnate as the glory of the only begotten of the Father;" for this declaration is true only of the divinity of Christ, his human nature not being begotten of the Father, but conceived by the Holy Ghost of the Virgin Mary. Hence our blessed Lord assures us, that "as the Father HATH life in HIMSELF, so hath he given the Son to have life in himself; that "the Son can do nothing of himself, but what he seeth the Father do;" and that "he knew the Father, because he was from him and sent by him." (John v. 26; vii. 29.) We must therefore agree with bishop Pearson, that "though the Father and Son are both truly God; and therefore equal in respect of nature, yet the one is greater than the other, as being the fountain of the Godhead. The Father is God; but not of God; Light, but not of Light. Christ is God, but of God; Light, but of Light. There is no difference or inequality in the nature or essence, because the same in both; but the Father of our Lord Jesus Christ hath that essence of himself, from none; Christ hath the same essence, not of himself, but from him."

The great object of this divine person's being sent into the world, and born of a woman, was to bruise the head of the serpent, and restore mankind to the inheritance which had been forfeited by Adam's transgression. Every dispensation of Providence from the fall had been preparatory to this restoration. Prophets had been raised from time to time to preserve in the early ages of the world the knowledge and worship of the true God; the children of Abraham had been separated from the surrounding nations for the same purpose; and by the dispersion of the ten tribes, the captivity of the other two in Babylon, and the translation of the Hebrew scriptures into the Greek language, much of the knowledge which had been revealed to the Israelites

racites was gradually diffused over the eastern world.

While the Jews were thus the instruments of enlightening the heathen nations of antiquity, their intercourse with those nations made them almost unavoidably acquainted with the philosophy which was cultivated among the Chaldeans, the Persians, and the Egyptian Greeks; and ingrafting many of the opinions derived from those schools upon the doctrines of Moses and the prophets, they corrupted their own religion while they improved that of their neighbours. Hence, by the time that Christ came among them, they had made the word of God of none effect through a number of idle fancies which they inculcated on the people as the traditions of the elders; and as they had attached themselves to different masters in philosophy, their unauthorized opinions were of course different according to the different sources whence they were drawn. The peculiar tenets of the *ESSENES* seem to have been a species of mystic Platonism. The *PHARISEES* are thought to have derived their origin from a Jewish philosopher of the Peripatetic school; and the resemblance between the doctrines of the *SADDUCEES* and the philosophy of *EPICURUS* has escaped no man's observation.

Most of these sects however, though they opposed each other, agreed in the expectation of the *MESSIAH* promised to their fathers; but, unhappily for themselves, expected him to be a great and temporal prince. To this mistake several circumstances contributed; some of their prophets had foretold his coming in lofty terms, borrowed from the ritual law, and the splendour of earthly monarchs. The necessity of casting this veil over those living oracles is evident from the very nature of PROPHECY. At the time when the predictions were made, the Mosaic system had not run out half its course, and was therefore not to be exposed to popular contempt by an information that it was only the harsh rudiment of one more perfect. To prevent, however, all mistakes in the candid and impartial, when the Messiah should arrive with the credentials of miraculous powers, other prophets had described him in the clearest terms as having no form nor comeliness, as a sheep dumb before his shearers, and as a lamb brought to the slaughter; but the Jews had suffered so much from the Chaldeans, the Greeks, and other nations by whom they had been conquered, and were then suffering so much from their masters the Romans, that their carnal minds could think of no deliverance greater than that which should rescue their nation from every foreign yoke. What men earnestly wish they are very ready to believe.

As our Saviour came for a very different purpose, the first object of his mission was to rectify the notions of his erring countrymen, to fit them for the deliverance which they were to obtain through him. Accordingly, he embraced every opportunity of inveighing against the false doctrines taught as traditions of the elders; and by his knowledge of the secrets of all hearts, he exposed the vile hypocrisy of those who made a gain of godliness. The Jews had been led, by their separation from the rest of the world, to consider

themselves as the peculiar favourites of Jehovah; and the consequence was, that, contrary to the spirit of their own law, and the explicit doctrines of some of their prophets, they looked upon all other nations with abhorrence, as upon people physically impure. These prejudices the blessed Jesus laboured to eradicate. Having desired a lawyer, by whom he was tempted, to read that part of the law of Moses which commanded the Israelites to love their neighbours as themselves, he compelled him, by means of a parabolical account of a compassionate Samaritan, to acknowledge, that, under the denomination of *neighbour* the divine lawgiver had comprehended all mankind as the objects of love. The importance in which Moses held the ritual law, and to which, as the means of preserving its votaries from the contagion of idolatry, it was justly entitled, had led the Jews to consider every ceremony of it as of intrinsic value and perpetual obligation; but Jesus brought to their recollection God's declared preference of *mercy* to *sacrifice*; shewed them that the weightier matters of the law, judgment, mercy, and faith, claimed their regard in the first place, and its ceremonial observances only in the second; and taught them, in conformity with the predictions of their own prophets, that the hour was about to come when the worship of God should not be confined to Jerusalem, but that "true worshippers should everywhere worship the Father in spirit and in truth."

CHRIST having come into the world, to break down the middle wall of partition between the Jews and Gentiles, and to introduce a new dispensation of religion which should unite all mankind as brethren in the worship of the true God, he did not merely restore the moral part of the Mosaic law to its primitive purity, but added many new and refined precepts, which, had never occurred either to Jew or Gentile. The Hebrew lawgiver had prohibited murder under the penalty of death; but Christ extended the prohibition to causeless anger, and to contemptuous treatment of our brethren, commanding his followers, to forgive their enemies, and to love all mankind. Adultery was forbidden by the law of Moses but Jesus said to his disciples, whosoever looketh on a woman to lust after her, hath committed adultery with her already in his heart." The *lex talionis* was in force among the Jews, so that the man who had deprived his neighbour of an eye or a tooth, was to suffer the loss of an eye or a tooth himself; but this mode of punishment, being inconsistent with the mild spirit of Christianity, was abolished by our blessed Lord, who severely prohibited the indulgence of revenge, and commanded his followers to love even their enemies. Perjury has in every civilized nation been justly considered a crime of the highest atrocity, and the Mosaic law doomed the false witness to bear the punishment, whatever it might be, which he intended by swearing falsely to bring upon his brother; but the author of the Christian religion forbade not only false swearing, but swearing *at all*, except on solemn occasions, and when an oath should be required by legal authority. See OATH.

By thus restoring the law to its original purity, O o and

and in many cases extending its sense, the blessed Jesus executed the office of a PROPHET to the lost sheep of the house of Israel; but had he not been more than an ordinary prophet, he could not have abrogated the most trivial ceremony of it, nor even extended the sense of any of its moral precepts; for their great lawgiver had told them, (Deut. xviii. 15.) that "the Lord their God would raise up unto them but one Prophet, like unto him, to whom they should hearken." That Prophet was by themselves understood to be the Messiah, whom they expected to tell them all things. It was necessary therefore that Jesus, as he taught ~~some~~ new doctrines, and plainly indicated that greater changes would soon be introduced, should vindicate his claim to that exalted character which alone could authorise him to propose innovations. This he did in the amplest manner, by fulfilling prophecies and working miracles; (see MIRACLES, § 3, and PROPHECY, § 3.) so that the unprejudiced part of the people readily acknowledged him to be of a truth "that prophet who should come into the world—the Son of God, and the King of Israel." He did not, however, make any change in the national worship, or assume to himself the smallest civil authority. He had submitted to the rite of circumcision, and strictly performed every duty, ceremonial as well as moral, which that covenant made incumbent upon other Jews; thus fulfilling all righteousness. Though the religion which he came to propagate was in many respects contrary to the ritual law, it could not be established, or that law abrogated, but in consequence of his death, which the system of sacrifices was appointed to prefigure; and as his kingdom, which was not of this world, could not commence till after his resurrection, he yielded, during the whole course of his life, a cheerful obedience to the civil magistrate, and wrought a miracle to obtain money to pay the tribute that was exacted of him. Being thus circumstanced, he chose from the lowest and least corrupted of the people certain followers, whom he treated with the most endearing familiarity for 3 years, and commissioned at his departure to promulgate such doctrines as, consistently with the order of the divine dispensations, he could not personally preach himself. With these men, during the course of his ministry on earth, he went about continually doing good, healing the sick, casting out devils, raising the dead, reproving vice, preaching righteousness, and instructing his countrymen, by the most perfect example which was ever exhibited in the world, of whatsoever things are true, or honest, or just, or pure, or lovely, or of good report. The Scribes and Pharisees, however, finding him not that conqueror whom they vainly expected, becoming envious of his reputation among the people, and being filled with rancour against him for detecting their hypocritical arts, delivered him up to the Roman governor, who, though convinced of his innocence, yielded to the popular clamour, and crucified him between two thieves, as an enemy to Cæsar. (See PILATE.)

In yielding up his dying breath he said, *It is finished*—thus intimating that the great purpose was now fulfilled, for which he had come into the

world, and which, as he formerly told his disciples, "was not to be ministered unto but to minister, and to give his life a ransom for many;" for his blood, as he assured them at the institution of the Eucharist, "was to be shed for the remission of sins." That Christ died *voluntarily* for us, the *just* for the *unjust*, and that "there is none other name under heaven given among men whereby we must be saved;" is the uniform doctrine of the prophets who foretold his coming, of John the Baptist, who was his immediate harbinger, and of the apostles and evangelists who preached the gospel after his ascension into heaven. Thus Isaiah says of the Messiah, that "he was wounded for our transgressions, and bruised for our iniquities; that the chastisement of our peace was upon him, and that with his stripes we are healed; that we had all like sheep gone astray, turning every one to his own way, and that the Lord laid on him the iniquity of us all; that he was cut out of the land of the living, and stricken for the transgression of God's people; that his soul or life was made an offering for sin; and that he bore the sin of many, and made intercession for the transgressors." The Baptist, "when he saw Jesus coming unto him, said to the people, Behold the Lamb of God, which taketh away the sin of the world;" plainly intimating that his death was to be a sacrifice, since it was only as a sacrifice that the Jews could form any conception of a lamb taking away sin. The epistles of St Paul are so full of the doctrine of Christ's satisfaction, and these texts are so well known to all Christians; that it is needless to quote particular texts in proof of it. See Paul's epistles in general; also, John, x. 7, 8. 1 John, i. 7, ii. 2. 1 Peter, ii. 21, &c. That Christ died for the benefit of the human race, is a truth so apparent from these and numberless other texts, that no man professing Christianity has hitherto called it in question. Very different opinions have been formed indeed concerning the nature and extent of that benefit, and the means by which it is applied; but that the passion and death of the blessed Jesus were essential parts of his ministry on earth, has never been controverted, unless perhaps by those modern UNITARIANS who have presumed to correct the supposed errors of the apostles and evangelists. That on the cross he made satisfaction to his Father for the sins of the world, is the general belief of Christians; but presumptuous men, aiming at being wise beyond what is written, have started a thousand idle questions concerning the necessity of such satisfaction, and the manner in which it was made. We enter not into these impious debates. The Scriptures have nowhere said what God *could* or *could not* do; and on this subject we can know nothing but what they have taught us. That "we are reconciled to God by the death of his Son," is the principal doctrine of the New Testament; and, without presuming to limit the power, the mercy, or the wisdom, of him who created and sustains the universe, we shall endeavour to show that it is a doctrine worthy of all acceptance." In doing this, we shall state impartially the opinions which men of various pious have held respecting the form or manner in which Christ by his death made satisfaction to God

God for the sins of the world; and leave our readers to embrace that opinion which shall appear to them most consonant to the general sense of sacred Scripture.

The strictest CALVINISTS interpreting literally such texts of Scripture as speak of his being made sin for us, of his *bearing our sins in his own body on the tree*, and of the Lord's *laying on him the iniquity of us all*, contend, that the sins of the elect were lifted off from them and laid upon Christ by *imputation*, much in the same way as they think the sin of Adam is imputed to his posterity. "By bearing the sins of his people (says Dr Gill), he took them off from them, and took them upon himself, bearing or carrying them as a man bears or carries a burden on his shoulders. There was no sin in him inherently, but sin was put upon him by his Divine Father, as the sins of the Israelites were put upon the scape-goat by Aaron. (See Gill's *Body of Divinity*, vol. ii. B. iii. Ch. v.)

To the ARMINIANS or REMONSTRANTS, this doctrine of the *imputation* of the sins of men to the Son of God appears as absurd as the similar doctrine of the imputation of the sin of Adam to his unborn posterity; and it is certainly attended with consequences which have alarmed serious Christians of other denominations. For if it were possible in the nature of things, says the Arminian, to transfer the guilt of one person to another, and to lay it upon him as a burden, it could not be done without violating those laws of *equity* which are established in the scripture and engraven on the human heart. But this is not possible. To remove guilt from the *sinner* and lay it upon the *innocent* may therefore be safely pronounced impossible even for Omnipotence itself, for it implies that a thing may be and *not* be at the same instant of time; and the doctrine which teaches that this removal was made from the elect to Christ, is an imagination of yesterday, which has no countenance from scripture, and is contrary to the established constitution of things. "Christ's being made sin for us," and "bearing our sins in his own body on the tree," therefore, can only mean that by his sufferings we are freed from the punishment of our sins; it being in scripture a common figure of speech, as even Dr Gill acknowledges, to denote by the word *sin* the consequences of sin. That this figure is used in those texts from which he infers that Christ took the sins of the elect upon himself, is evident from the verse which he quotes from the gospel of St Matthew; in which it is said, that "himself took our infirmities and bore our sicknesses." But that he actually took upon himself the sins of mankind, or that those sins were imputed to him by God, who punished him as a person whom he considered as *guilty*, is a doctrine equally injurious to the *justice* of the Father and to the *immaculate purity* of the Son.

The zeal with which this doctrine was taught by some of the earliest reformers, and the impossibility of admitting it, which every reflecting and unprejudiced mind must feel, was probably one of the causes which drove Socinus and his followers to the other extreme of denying Christ's satisfaction altogether, and considering his death as

nothing more than that of an ordinary martyr, permitted for the purpose of attesting the truth of his doctrine, and paving the way for his resurrection, to confirm the great promise of immortality. According to these men, forgiveness is freely dispensed to those who repent, by the essential goodness of God, without regard to the merit or sufferings of any other being; and the gospel is laid to save from sin, because it is the most perfect lesson of righteousness. The great objection of CRELLIUS to the doctrine of the satisfaction is, that it is a hindrance to piety; for if Christ has paid the whole debt, he thinks that we must have *nothing to do*, as nothing more can be required of us. And if it were indeed true that our sins are imputed to Christ, and his righteousness imputed to us, this objection would be insurmountable; for God could not justly exact a double punishment for the same sin, or inflict misery upon those to whom he imputes perfect righteousness. But as to this imaginary transferring of virtues and vices from one person to another, the Christian scriptures give no countenance; so they nowhere call the death of Christ a *satisfaction* for the sins of men. The term has indeed been long in use among divines, and when properly explained it may be retained without danger; but in treating of this subject, it would perhaps be more prudent to restrict ourselves to the use of scripture language, as the word *satisfaction* carries in it the idea of a debt paid and accepted; whereas Paul says, that "eternal life is the *gift* of God through Jesus Christ our Lord; and that we are *justified freely by his grace* through the redemption that is in Jesus Christ, whom God has set forth to be a propitiation through faith in his blood."

To attain adequate notions of redemption and justification, it will be necessary to look back to the fall; for the great purpose for which Christ was promised, and for which he came into the world, was, by bruising the head of the serpent, to restore mankind to the inheritance which they had lost through the transgression of Adam. This is apparent not only from the original promise made to the woman, but also from different passages in the epistles of St Paul, who expressly calls Christ the second Adam, and says, that, "as by the offence of one, judgment came upon all men to condemnation; even so by the righteousness of one, the *free gift* came upon all men unto justification of life;" that, "as by one man's disobedience many were made sinners, so by the obedience of one shall many be made righteous;" and that, "as in Adam all die, even so in Christ shall all be made alive." Hence it was that John the Baptist, when he saw Jesus coming to him, said to his disciples, "Behold the Lamb of God which taketh away, not the *sins*, but the *sin* of the world," evidently alluding to Adam's sin and its consequences; since no other sin was ever committed of which the consequences extend to the whole world.

It is therefore undeniable, that whatever we lost in the first Adam is restored to us by the second; and so they who believe that the punishment denounced against eating the forbidden fruit was death *corporal*, *spiritual*, and *eternal*, must believe

believe that we are redeemed from all these by Christ; who having "appeared once in the end of the world to put away sin by the sacrifice of himself, died for us, that whether we wake or sleep we should live together with him." If the image of God in which man was created was lost by the breach of the first covenant, it is more than restored to us "by the Mediator of a better covenant, which is established upon better promises;" if by the sin of Adam we were utterly indisposed, disabled, and made opposite to all that is spiritually good, and wholly inclined to all evil, and that continually, we are freed from that dreadful curse by "our Saviour Jesus Christ, who gave himself for us, that he might redeem us from all iniquity, and purify to himself a peculiar people zealous of good works;" and if for our share in the first transgression we be justly liable to all punishments in this world and in that which is to come, the apostle assures us, that "when we were enemies we were reconciled to God by the death of his Son, because that God was in Christ reconciling the world to himself, not imputing their trespasses unto them." As Jesus is "the Lamb slain in the divine decree from the foundation of the world," these beneficial consequences of his death have been extended, by a retrospective view, to all in every age whose names are written in the book of life, though it is absurd to suppose that he literally took their sins upon him, and impious to imagine that he suffered under the imputation of sin.

Such is the general doctrine of redemption, as it is taught by the more moderate Calvinists and the more moderate Remonstrants; for moderate Christians of all denominations, though they express themselves differently, have nearly the same views of the fundamental articles of their common faith. It must not, however, be concealed, that many divines of great learning and piety, though removed to an infinite distance from the school of Socinus, contend strenuously against the doctrine of vicarious atonement for actual transgressions of the moral law. These are the more zealous Arminians, who deny that we inherit any moral taint or intellectual weakness from our first parents, whom they believe never to have been in a state of greater perfection than many of their posterity who are called *degenerate*. According to them, we lost nothing by the fall of Adam but our title to eternal life or perpetual existence, together with those graces of the Holy Spirit which were bestowed under the first covenant to train mankind for the society of heaven; and as eternal life and supernatural grace constituted one free gift, they might, when forfeited, be restored by any means or upon any condition which should seem expedient to the all-wise Donor. Moral virtue, comprehending piety, was the condition of that favour and protection which the creature man, in his original state, could claim from his Maker; but obedience to a positive command was the condition of the free gift of immortality conferred upon Adam on his introduction into paradise. The claim arising from the relation between the creature and the Creator is indissoluble; so that the man who, by a transgression of the moral law, has forfeited the favour of God, may reasonably

hope to recover it by sincere repentance and a return to his duty: and nothing but such repentance and reformation can recover it; because, in a moral agent, nothing can be agreeable to God but moral dispositions, which cannot be transferred from one person to another, and for the want of which nothing can atone. Our virtues are not required, nor our vices prohibited, as if the one could profit and the other injure him who created us. He commands us to be virtuous, and forbids us to be vicious, only because virtue is necessary to our own *happiness*, and vice productive of *miser*y. Were an immoral man to be introduced into the society of angels and just men made perfect, he would not experience in that society what we are taught to expect from the joys of heaven; because to such joys his acquired habits would be wholly repugnant. Nor could the sufferings of any person whatever, or the *imputation* of any extrinsic righteousness, make that mind which had long been immersed in the grossest sensuality relish the intellectual and refined enjoyments of heaven; or the man who had been the habitual slave of envy, malice, and duplicity, a fit inhabitant of that place where all are actuated by *MUTUAL LOVE*. On the other hand, say the divines whose doctrine we are now detailing, it is impossible to suppose that the Father of mercies, who knows whereof we are made, should have doomed to eternal misery any moral agent who had laboured through life to serve him in sincerity and in truth; or that any atonement could be necessary to redeem from the pains of hell the man whose pious and virtuous dispositions have, through penitence and prayer, become suited to the society of heaven. Unsinning perfection never was, nor ever could be, expected in man. He is brought into the world free indeed from vice, but equally destitute of virtue; and the great business of his life is to guard his mind from being polluted by the former, and to acquire dispositions habitually leading to the practice of the latter. Till these habits be fairly formed, it seems impossible that he should not sometimes deviate from the paths of rectitude, and thereby incur a temporary forfeiture of the divine favour; but the very constitution of his mind, and the purpose for which he is placed in a state of probation, show that the divine favour thus forfeited can be recovered only by repentance and reformation.

Widely different, however, is the case with respect to the forfeiture and recovery of a free gift, to which man has no natural claim. When the condition is broken on which such a gift was bestowed, repentance can be of no avail; it must be either irrecoverably lost, or restored by the mere good pleasure of the giver. *IMMORTALITY* or *perpetual existence* is a gift which, upon certain terms, was freely bestowed upon the human race, and forfeited by the transgression of their first parents violating those terms. It was restored by the free grace of God, who was pleased to ordain, that "since by man came death, by man should also come the resurrection of the dead: for as in Adam *all* die, even so in Christ shall *all* be made alive." Hence the apostle, writing to the Romans of the benefits of being the children of God, and joint heirs with Christ, summeth up
those

those benefits with the resurrection from the dead. "For the creature, *i. e.* mankind, was made subject (says he) to vanity or death, not willingly, but by reason of him who hath subjected the same in *hope*: because the creature itself also shall be delivered from the bondage of corruption into the glorious liberty of the children of God. For we know that the whole creation groaneth, and travaileth in pain together until now: and not only *they*, but *ourselves* also, who have the first fruits of the spirit, even we ourselves, groan within ourselves, waiting for the adoption, *viz. the redemption of our body.*" That this redemption of our body is the consequence of the sacrifice of Christ, is taught in the most explicit terms in the epistle to the Hebrews; of which the inspired author informs us, that "forasmuch as the children are partakers of flesh and blood, he also himself likewise took part of the same; that through *death* he might destroy him that had the power of death, that is the devil; and deliver them, who through fear of death were all their life-time subject to bondage." A vicarious atonement made with this view, the divines, whose theory we are now considering, insist to be perfectly irrational and inconsistent with the strictest justice. "The law of nature (say they) allows not of vicarious atonement; but ordains that the man who transgresseth shall himself bear the punishment of his iniquity; a punishment which no man deserves for the faults of another, unless he be partaker of the guilt by joining in the transgression." And in proof of this their opinion, they appeal to the words of God himself, declaring to Moses, (Ex. xxx. 33.) "Whoever hath sinned against me, him will I blot out of my book." But when the free gift of immortality was lost, it was with great wisdom, say they, that God restored it through a Mediator who should make atonement by his blood for the breach of the first covenant; since such a mediation implies that the gift restored is merely of *grace*, to the attainment of which man could no further co-operate than by his hopes and wishes.

To this view of redemption, and indeed to every view of it which we have yet taken, an objection forces itself upon the mind. Throughout the New Testament LIFE and IMMORTALITY are considered as a FREE GIFT, and called so in express words by St Paul. To the scheme under consideration it is essential to consider them as such; and yet we know that a large price was paid for them, as St Paul likewise acknowledges, when he twice tells the Corinthians that they were bought with a price. Hence the sacred writers seeing, in this case, the perfect agreement between a FREE GIFT and a PURCHASED POSSESSION, call it sometimes by the one and sometimes by the other name.

A restoration to life and immortality from that state of unconsciousness or extinction as living agents, to which all mankind were doomed in consequence of the fall of Adam, is that great salvation which we have obtained through the blood of our Redeemer; and, according to the theologians whose theory we are now considering, it was the only thing in the divine intention when the promise was given to the first mother that the

seed of the woman should bruise the head of the serpent. But though they contend thus earnestly that the death of Christ does not operate *directly* as an atonement for the *actual* sins of men, they admit that it does so *indirectly* and by necessary consequence, since it gives opportunities for repentance and newness of life, which under the first covenant they did not enjoy. The new covenant by the death of Christ secures immortality to man, and gives him opportunities, as long as he shall be in a state of probation, of recovering the divine favour when forfeited, whether by a moral transgression or a temporary violation of the peculiar condition of the covenant. Hence they admit the truth of the apostle's doctrine, that we are gainers by the fall of Adam and the redemption wrought by Christ; which will appear when we come to consider their notions of Christian justification. But they consider it as no small confirmation of their opinion, that it tends to put an end to the long agitated disputes concerning the *extent* of redemption, and to reconcile passages of scripture which, on the commonly received theories both of Calvinists and Arminians, seem to be at variance with each other.

It is one of the fundamental doctrines of the CALVINISTIC school, that "none are redeemed by Christ, effectually called, justified, adopted, sanctified, and saved, but the ELECT only." (*Confession of Faith*, ch. iii. § 6.); and if the notions of redemption which, in the end of the 17th century, were very generally embraced, be admitted as just, it will not be easy to overturn the arguments by which that doctrine is supported. Such of them as are connected with the great question of election and reprobation, and enter into the decision of it, we have stated in another place, (see PREDESTINATION, § 2.); but it is farther argued, that the doctrine of *universal redemption* reflects on the wisdom, the justice, and the power of God, and robs him of his *glory*.

The scriptures assure us that all men shall not be saved; but how can this be, if Christ died for *all*, and the scheme of salvation by his death was formed by infinite wisdom? The Arminians indeed say, that those who fail of salvation fail through their own fault in not performing the conditions required of them; but God either *knew* or *knew not* that such men would not perform such conditions. If he knew it not, his knowledge is limited; if he did know it, where was his wisdom in providing a scheme of redemption for men to whom he was aware that it would be of no benefit? This notion of a *limited redemption*, as they think it more worthy of the sovereignty of God, they believe to be taught by our Saviour himself, in John vi. 37—40.

But the ARMINIANS, on the other hand, contend, that it is impious to limit the effects of Christ's death to a *chosen few*, since it appears from scripture, that by the decree and intention of his Father he tasted death for *every man*, that *all*, without exception, might through him obtain remission of their sins. For God so loved the *world*, that he gave his only begotten Son, that *whosoever* believeth in him should *not perish*, but have *everlasting life*. In perfect conformity with the doctrine of his divine Master, St Paul teaches, that

that "Christ died for *all* ; that God was in Christ reconciling the *world* to himself, not imputing their trespasses unto them ;" that "he will have *all* men to be saved, and to come unto the knowledge of the truth ;" that "Christ gave himself a ransom for *all* ;" and that "Jesus was made a little lower than the angels, that by the grace of God he should taste death for *every man*." The very same thing is taught by St Peter, and St John. The former says that "the Lord is not willing that *any* should perish, but that *all* should come to repentance ;" and the latter, that "Jesus Christ the righteous is the propitiation for our sins ; and not for our's only, but for *the whole world*."

Upon these texts, the Arminians are willing to rest their doctrine of UNIVERSAL REDEMPTION ; though they think that a very strong additional argument for its truth arises from the numberless absurdities which flow from the contrary opinion. Thus, say they, the apostles were commanded by our Saviour to "go into *all* the world and preach the gospel to *every creature*," and all who hear it preached are required to believe it. Lastly, if Christ died not for *all*, then is it certain that he cannot claim dominion *over all* in consequence of his death and resurrection ; but St Paul says expressly, that "to *this end* Christ both died, and rose and revived, that he might be the Lord both of the *dead and living*." The Arminians, however, acknowledge, that though Christ died for *all*, there are many who will not be saved ; for, say they, the death of Christ did not literally pay the debts incurred by sinners, but only obtained for them the gracious covenant of the gospel, by which all who believe in him, and sincerely endeavour to work out their own salvation with fear and trembling, are *entitled* to forgiveness of sins and eternal life.

Such is the state of this controversy as it was agitated between the Calvinists and Arminians of the 17th century ; but the present leaders of this latter school are of opinion, that it never could have been started, had not both parties mistaken the purpose for which Christ died. It is not conceivable, say they, that any thing for which the eternal Son of God took upon him human nature, and in that nature suffered a cruel and ignominious death, shall not be fully accomplished ; and therefore, if in the divine intention he died to make atonement for the sins of men actual as well as original, we must of necessity conclude that those for whom he died shall certainly be saved. Yet we learn from scripture that *many* shall go away into everlasting punishment, though the same scripture repeatedly assures us, that Christ gave his life a ransom for *ALL*, and that he is the propitiation for *the whole world*. To reconcile these different passages of scripture is impossible, if we suppose that he laid down his life to atone for the *actual* transgressions of men ; but if the direct purpose of the Godhead in forming this stupendous plan of redemption was, that the death of Christ should be the ransom of all from the *grave or utter extinction*, every difficulty is removed ; for we know that all, the wicked as well as the righteous, shall through him be raised to life at the last day. But this is evidently a mere *quibble*, and is only an *evason* of the difficulty ; for

eternal existence in misery would be worse than *ANNIHILATION*. But against all such mean and impious quibbles, two texts are decisive of the whole controversy.—"God is LOVE," and his "TENDER MERCIES are over *ALL* his WORKS." These texts are plain and intelligible, and perfectly consistent with the PERFECT WORK OF REDEMPTION accomplished by Jesus Christ. To argue in opposition to them, as the rigid Calvinists and even some Arminians do, that the *justice* of God is still unsatisfied, is derogatory from the infinite merits of Christ ; and to plead as others have often done, that the *glory* of God requires and consists in the *eternal punishment* of sinners, is a kind of *blasphemy* against the *Holy Ghost*, for it represents the Deity as an inexorable tyrant, instead of a God of *infinite mercy* ; and it is evidently founded upon the false ideas of *human glory* entertained by conquerors in all ages, who thought they could not be great or glorious, but in proportion as they massacred their fellow mortals, and spread ruin, devastation, and destruction throughout the globe. Let not that single text, "our God is a *consuming Fire*," be urged in opposition to all this : the meaning of that text is evidently, (when taken in consilience with the rest of revelation,) neither more nor less, than this, that as Fire is the most powerful of all chemical agents, and consumes and purifies the precious metals, gold, silver, and platinum, from all dross and alloy ; so God will finally *purify* all the dross and corruption introduced into the present state of things by sin, and create a *New Heaven* and a *New Earth* wherein dwelleth RIGHTEOUSNESS. Any other view of the final consummation of all things is contrary to the general tenor of Scripture ; and is more derogatory from the DIVINE GLORY than even the *Brute-worship* of Egypt.—The still smaller voices of reason and revelation equally agree in this *eternal truth*, that the only GLORY of an infinitely good Being can consist only in the extension and expansion of his GOODNESS through and upon all animated and sensitive beings, among myriads of worlds throughout the infinity of space. Readers who are prejudiced in favour of particular systems may think we have here used too much freedom with long established *opinions* ; But, consistent of the eternal rectitude of those sentiments, we are persuaded, that

—We, with truths like these,
"Will none offend, whom 'tis a praise to please."

Young.

Among these various opinions respecting the complete object of the death of Christ. The serious reader, divesting himself of prejudice, must search the scriptures, and adopt the theory which he shall find most explicitly taught in that sacred volume ; but as in every system it is admitted, that *one purpose* for which Christ died was to redeem mankind from the everlasting power of the grave, and bring to light, life, and immortality, it is of the utmost importance to know whether that purpose has been *fully attained*. And as the scriptures give us no hopes of being rescued from the dominion of death but by a resurrection, some evidence seems necessary to evince that a general resurrection shall actually take place. This we are promised as one great benefit purchased for us by the

the sufferings of Christ on the cross. And since the price has been *paid*, and paid thus *visibly*, the nature of the covenant requires that the benefit should be as *visibly enjoyed* by the person whose sufferings obtained it for his brethren. "If the Redeemer himself had not been seen to enjoy the fruits of the redemption procured, no hopes could have remained for mankind. This is the conclusion which St Paul himself draws: "If Christ be not risen (says he), then is our preaching vain, and your faith is also *vain*; ye are yet in your sins. (1 Cor. xv. 15, 23.) Then they also, who are fallen asleep in Christ, are perished—*απολωτες*—are lost, as if they had never existed. But now (adds he) is Christ risen from the dead, and become the first fruits of them that *sleep*. For since by man came *death*, by man came also the *resurrection* of the dead: For as in Adam *all die*, even so in Christ shall *ALL be made alive*."—So necessarily connected, is the resurrection of Christ with the very essence of Christianity.

We have in another place (see RESURRECTION, § 2.) stated some arguments for the truth of this fundamental article of our common faith. But as attempts are daily made, sometimes openly and sometimes with the most insidious art, to propagate in this nation the French doctrine of death being only *eternal sleep*, we shall here resume the subject, and endeavour to show that it was absolutely impossible for the apostles to persuade the world, or to *think* of persuading the world, that their Master rose from the dead, if his resurrection had not been real.

Under the article MIRACLE, § 3, we have said, that "the very *refutation* of the apostles to propagate the belief of *false* miracles in support of such a religion as that which is taught in the New Testament, is itself as great a miracle as human imagination can easily conceive." We might illustrate this position by the resurrection of Jesus, which in such a case we must suppose the apostles resolving to publish as an unquestionable fact, whilst they were *conscious* that they themselves *stole the body* from the sepulchre, and saw it in their custody under the dominion of death. But surely the bare supposition of such a proposal is sufficient to show the *impossibility* of carrying into effect so absurd, so horrible, and so impious a measure—a measure diametrically opposite to all the principles and motives of human actions.

Abp. King has supposed, that the human WILL is a faculty distinct from the understanding and the appetites; that activity is essential to it; and that previous to an election formed, it is equally *indifferent* to all objects. But neither his Grace, nor any other assertor of human liberty, has ever affirmed or supposed, that any man or body of men could deliberately choose *evil* for its *own sake*, or enter zealously upon a tedious and difficult enterprise, from which *no good* could *possibly arise*, and from which *unmixed misery* was clearly *foreseen* as the *necessary result of every step of the progress*. Such, however, must have been the choice and the conduct of the apostles, when they resolved to preach a new religion founded on the resurrection of Jesus, if they did not certainly know that Jesus had risen from the dead. And this conduct must have been adopted, in opposition to every

motive which can influence the human mind; must have been persevered in by a great number of men and women, without the smallest contradiction having ever appeared in the various testimonies, which at different times, and under the cruellest tortures, they all gave to a variety of circumstances, of which not one had its foundation in *truth*. He who can admit this supposition, will not surely object to the incredibility of *miracles*. The resurrection of a man from the dead is an event so different indeed from the common course of things, that nothing but the most complete evidence can make it an object of rational belief; but as the resurrection of Jesus has always been said to have had God for its Author, it is an effect which does not exceed the power of the cause assigned, and is therefore an event possible in itself and capable of proof. It is a deviation from the laws of nature, but it is not contradictory to any one of those laws.

But that a great number of men and women should deliberately form a plan of ruin and misery to themselves, without a prospect of the smallest advantage either in this world or in the next, is as different from the common course of things as the resurrection from the dead; and therefore in itself at least as great a miracle: but that they should persist in prosecuting this plan in the midst of torments; that they should spread themselves over the whole world, and everywhere publish a number of falsehoods, without any one of them contradicting the rest; that truth should never escape them either in an unguarded moment, or when lingering on the rack, and yet that all their *lies* should be in perfect agreement with each other; that they should every one of them court sufferings for a person whom they knew to be an *impostor*; that not one of the number—not even a single *woman*—should have had so much compassion for a fellow-creature, as to rescue him from the flames, by confessing a truth which could injure nobody—not even the suffering deceivers themselves;—all this is not only different from the common course of things, but directly contrary to the most known laws of nature, and is therefore not miraculous, but may be pronounced *impossible*. Yet this impossibility we must admit, or acknowledge, that as "Christ died for our sins, according to the Scriptures, and was buried; so he rose again the third day, according to the Scriptures; that he was seen of Cephas, then of the twelve; after that of above 500 brethren at once; after that of James; then of all the apostles; and that he was last of all seen of St Paul," who was converted by the vision, to preach the faith which till then he had persecuted. See PAUL, N° 1.

Thus are we assured, that "those who have fallen asleep in Christ are not lost, since he is risen from the dead, and become the first fruits of them that *sleep*. For since by man came death, by man came also the resurrection of the dead. For as in Adam all die, even so in Christ shall all be made alive. But every man in his own order: Christ the first-fruits, afterwards they that are Christ's at his coming;" &c, 1 Cor. xv. 20—24.

JESUS, having conversed familiarly with the eleven apostles for 40 days after his resurrection, instructing them in the things pertaining to the kingdom

dom of God; having extended their authority as his ministers, by giving them a commission to teach all nations, and make them his disciples, by baptizing them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost; and having promised them power from on high to enable them to discharge the duties of so laborious an office—led them out as far as Bethany, that they might be witnesses of his ascension into heaven. On this occasion, he told them all, “Ye shall receive power, after the Holy Ghost is come upon you; and ye shall be witnesses unto me, in Jerusalem, Judea, Samaria, and unto the uttermost parts of the earth; but tarry ye in Jerusalem, until ye be endued with power from on high. And he lift up his hands, and while he blessed them, it came to pass, that he was parted from them, and a cloud received him out of their sight. And while they looked stedfastly towards heaven, two men stood by them in white apparel, who said, Ye men of Galilee, why stand ye gazing up into heaven? This same Jesus, who is taken up from you into heaven, shall so come, in like manner as ye have seen him go into heaven. And they worshipped him and returned to Jerusalem with great joy.” Luke, xxiv. 49—53. Acts. i. 6—12.

That our blessed Lord ascended into heaven, will hardly be denied by any one who admits that he rose from the dead. The ascension was indeed the natural consequence of the resurrection. The purpose for which he died was to recover for the descendants of Adam every privilege which they had forfeited through his transgression; and if mankind were by the terms of the first covenant to enjoy eternal life in heaven, some proof was necessary that Christ by his death and resurrection had opened heaven to all faithful observers of the terms of the second. Hence it was prophesied (Ps. lxxviii. 18. cx. 1.) of the Messiah, in whom all nations of the earth were to be blessed, that “he should ascend on high, lead captivity captive, and sit on the right hand of God until his enemies should be made his footstool.” It was therefore of the greatest importance to the apostles to have sufficient proof of their Master’s exaltation to the right hand of the Majesty on high; for otherwise they could neither have looked for an entrance into heaven themselves, by a new and living way, as the author of the epistle to the Hebrews expresses it, nor have preached Jesus as the Messiah promised to their fathers, in whom these prophecies were fulfilled. But the proof vouchsafed them was the most complete that the nature of the thing would bear. The spectators of the ascension were many; for, according to St. Luke, those who returned from the Mount of Olives to Jerusalem, and prepared themselves for the coming of the Holy Ghost, were in number about six score; and to such a cloud of witnesses the evangelist would not have appealed, had not the fact he was recording been very generally known. Yet these were perhaps but part of the witnesses; for since Christ had told his disciples that he was to ascend to his Father and their Father, to his God and their God, and that he was going to prepare a place for them, that where he is there they might be likewise; we can hardly doubt but that all who believed in him

as the Redeemer of the world would take care to be present, not only to view their Master’s triumph over all his enemies, but also to have a sight of that glory of which a share awaited themselves. It was on this occasion probably that he was seen after his resurrection by above 500 brethren at once, of whom the greater part were alive at the writing of St. Paul’s first epistle to the Corinthians.

Notwithstanding the multitudes of people that saw Jesus lifted up from the mount, and gradually vanish out of their sight, some other evidence seemed necessary to certify them of the place to which he had gone. Two angels therefore appear, and attest what human eyes could not see, but what was indeed the consequence of what they had seen. They attest that Christ had ascended to heaven, not to descend again till the last day; and surely, with respect to this point, the citizens of heaven were the most unexceptionable witnesses. We must therefore acknowledge and confess, against all the wild heresies of old, that Jesus Christ the Son of God, who died and rose again, did with the same body and soul with which he had lived upon earth ascend up “into heaven, there to appear in the presence of God for us.” “Seeing then that we have a great high priest, who is passed into the heavens, Jesus the Son of God, we may through him come boldly unto the throne of grace, that we may obtain mercy, and find grace to help in time of need.”

But it is not the office of a priest only that our Lord discharges in heaven; he is represented as sitting on the right hand of God, to denote that *regal* authority with which he is now vested; “angels, and authorities, and powers, being made subject to him.” (1 Peter, iii. 22.) Hence it is, that after his resurrection, he said of himself, “all power is given unto me in heaven and in earth;” for, as St. Paul informs us (Phil. ii. 8—10.) “because he humbled himself and became obedient unto death, even the death of the cross, therefore God hath highly exalted him, and given him a name which is above every name; that at the name of Jesus every knee should bow, of things in heaven, and things on earth, and things under the earth.” And this submission is due to him, because “God raised him from the dead, and set him at his own right hand in the heavenly places, far above all principalities and powers, and might, and dominion, and every name that is named, not only in this world, but also in that which is to come; and hath put all things under his feet, and gave him to be head over all things to the church.” (Eph. i. 20, &c.) As God, Christ possessed a kingdom, which, as it had no beginning, can never have an end; but the dominion, of which the apostle is here treating, was conferred upon him as the MEDIATOR of the new covenant, and will no longer continue than till his enemies shall be subdued; for we are told that “he must reign till he hath put all enemies under his feet; and that the last enemy which shall be destroyed is death.” “He will ransom his subjects from the power of the grave; he will redeem them from death. O death, he will be thy plague; O grave, he will be thy destruction.” (Hos. xiii. 14.) The trumpet shall sound, the graves shall be opened, all the sons and daughters of Adam, shall return

to life, and death shall be swallowed up in victory. "Then cometh the end, when the office of mediator ceasing, he shall have delivered up the kingdom to God, even the Father, when he shall have put down all rule and all authority and power. For when all things shall be subdued unto him, then shall the Son also be subject unto him that put all things under him, that God may be ALL IN ALL."

The first conspicuous proof which our blessed Lord gave of being vested with supreme power, and made head over all things to the church, was on the day of Pentecost. He had told the apostles that he would pray the Father to give them another comforter, who should abide with them for ever, even the Spirit of truth, who should teach them all things, and bring all things to their remembrance which he had said unto them. He had assured them, that it was expedient for them that he himself should go away; "for if I go not away (said he, John xvi. 17.) the COMFORTER will not come unto you; but if I depart, I will send him unto you." At his last interview with them, just before his ascension, he had desired them to tarry at Jerusalem till they should be endued with power from on high, before they entered upon their great work of converting the nations. These promises were amply fulfilled; by the gift of tongues as related in Acts ii. 1-13. That those who heard the apostles speak so many different languages were amazed, is what we should naturally suppose; but that a single individual among them remained unconvinced, is astonishing: for the gift of tongues is one of the most palpable miracles that ever was wrought. It is likewise one of the best authenticated miracles; for the *Acts of the Apostles* was written not more than thirty years after the event took place (see *SCRIPTURE*, Sect V.); and it is not conceivable that, within so short a period, St Luke, or any man of common sense, would have appealed for the truth of what he recorded to so many inveterate enemies of the Christian name, had he not been aware that the miraculous gift of tongues was a fact incontrovertible. We all know how desirous the Jewish rulers were to stop the progress of the faith, by whatever means, whether of fraud or force; but if this miracle was not really performed, they had now an opportunity of doing it effectually by means to which truth and honour would give their approbation. Thousands must have been alive in the city of Jerusalem who were men and women at this time when the apostles were said to have been thus suddenly inspired with the tongues of the Parthians, Medes, Elamites, Cappadocians, Cretes, Arabians, Libyans, Cyrenians, Romans, and natives of Pontus, Asia, Pamphylia, Egypt, Mesopotamia, &c.; and as these foreigners were themselves either Jews by descent, or at least proselytes to the Jewish religion, surely the chief priests would have found multitudes ready, both at home and abroad, to contradict this confident appeal of St Luke's, if contradiction had been possible. We read however of no objection whatever being made to the miracle. Some of the audience, indeed, when the apostles addressed people of so many nations in all their respective languages, not understanding what was

said, and taking it for jargon which had no meaning, concluded, not unnaturally, that the speakers were full of new wine, and mocked them for being drunk so early in the day; but this is a circumstance which, so far from rendering the miracle doubtful, adds much to the credit of the historian, as it would hardly have occurred to the writer of a narrative wholly false, and would certainly not have been mentioned, had he known that the apostles really attempted to impose upon the multitude unmeaning sounds for foreign languages.

The immediate author of this gift, so necessary to the propagation of the gospel, was the *Spirit of truth*, or the *Comforter*, who is the *HOLY GHOST*, and the third person in the blessed Trinity. That there are three persons in the one God-head, has been already shewn at large in this article; and that the Holy Ghost is one of these three, is evident from the form of baptism instituted by Christ himself. But as more plausible objections have been urged against his divinity than any that we have met with against that of Christ, it is proper to consider these before we proceed to give an account of the graces which he imparted to the infant church, and of the apostles preaching under his influence. By the Arians the Holy Ghost is considered as a creature; by the Socinians and modern Unitarians, as they call themselves, the words *Holy Ghost* are supposed to express, not a person or Spiritual subsistence, but merely an *energy or operation*, a *quality or power* of the Father, whom alone they acknowledge to be God. If this doctrine can be confuted, the Arian hypothesis will fall to the ground.

The SOCINIANS admit that in the Scriptures many things are spoken of the Holy Ghost which can be properly predicated only of a person; but the inference drawn from this concession they endeavour to invalidate by observing, that in scripture there are likewise expressions in which things are predicated of abstract virtues, which can be literally true only of such persons as practise these virtues: as in 1 Cor. xiii. 4, 6, of *Charity*. In like manner, say they, personal actions are attributed to the Holy Ghost, which itself is no person, but only the virtue, power, or efficacy, of God the Father; because God the Father, who is a person, performs such actions by that power, virtue, or efficacy in himself, which is denominated *the Holy Ghost*. Thus when we read, Acts x. 9, 20, that "the Spirit said unto Peter, Behold three men seek thee;" we must understand that God the Father was the person who spoke these words and sent the three men; but because he did so by that virtue in him which is called the *Spirit*, therefore the *Spirit* is said to have spoken the words and sent the men. Again, when "the Holy Ghost said to those at Antioch, Separate me Barnabas and Saul for the work whereunto I have called them;" (Acts xiii. 2.) we are to conceive that it was God the Father who commanded the two apostles to be separated for the work to which he had called them; but because he had done all this by that power within him which is called the Holy Ghost, therefore his words and actions are attributed to the Holy Ghost, just as long suffering in men is attributed to charity.

This is plausible, and would have some more force were *all* the actions which in scripture are attributed to the Holy Ghost of such a nature as that they could be supposed to have proceeded from the person of God the Father in consequence of any particular power or virtue in him; but this is far from being the case. Thus "the Spirit is said to make intercession for us:" (Rom. viii. 26, 27.) but with whom can we suppose God the Father, the fountain of divinity, to intercede? Our Saviour assured his disciples, that the Father would, in his name, send to them the Holy Ghost, who is the *Comforter*: (John xiv. 26. xv. 26. &c.) that he would himself send the Comforter unto them from the Father; that the Comforter should not speak of himself, but speak only of what he should hear; and that he should receive of Christ's, and shew it unto them. But we cannot, without blasphemy and absurdity, suppose that the Father would in the name of Christ, *send himself*; that the Son would send the Father from the Father; that the Father would not speak of himself, but speak only what he *heard*; or that either the Father in person, or a *quality* of the Father, should receive any thing of Christ to shew unto the apostles.

The sagacity of SOCRINUS, perceived the force of such objections as these to his notion of the Holy Ghost being nothing more than the power of the Father personified; and therefore he invented another *prosopopeia* to serve his purpose in the interpretation of those texts to which this one cannot be applied. "The Spirit of God (says he) may be considered either as a *property* or *power* in God, or as the things on which that power is working. When taken in the former sense, the Spirit, where any personal attribute is given to it, means God the Father; when taken in the latter sense, it means the *man* on whom the power of the Father is working; who as long as he is affected by that power, is therefore called the Spirit of God;" and he quotes, we think most absurdly, the 10th verse of the 2d ch. of 1 Cor. as a text in which by the Spirit is meant an inspired man who could search all things, yea, even *THE DEEP THINGS OF GOD*.

How his followers, who deny the plenary inspiration even of Christ, will relish such a degree of inspiration as this, which raises mere men to a temporary *equality* with God, we know not; but leaving them to settle the dispute with their master as they best can, we shall produce one or two passages in which personal attributes are given to the Spirit of God, where it is impossible to conceive that Spirit either as a *power* inherent in the Divine Father, or as the person on whom that power is operating. We need not bring new texts into view, as some of those already quoted will serve our purpose. When our Saviour promises that the HOLY GHOST, the COMFORTER, the SPIRIT OF TRUTH, should be sent by the Father and the Son to the apostles, we have seen, that by the Spirit he could not mean the Father, or a property of the Father; neither could he possibly mean the apostles themselves, unless we are to suppose that the Father and the Son *sent St Peter to St Peter*, and that St Peter, so sent, came to St Peter! Again, when Jesus Christ

faith of the Holy Ghost, "he shall receive of mine and shall shew it unto you," he could not, for the reason already assigned, mean by the Holy Ghost the Father or the power of the Father; and surely his meaning was not, that the apostles, under the influence of the power of the Father, should receive something and shew it each to himself! The Holy Ghost therefore is unquestionably a person; for though there are many passages of scripture in which the *gifts* of the Holy Ghost are called the *Holy Ghost*, they are so called by a very common figure of speech, in which the effect receives the name of its cause: and since this person is joined with the Father and the Son in the formula of Christian baptism; since they who lied to the Holy Ghost are said to have lied unto God; (Acts v. 4.) since blasphemy against him is a more heinous offence than the same sin against even the Father or the Son; and since it was by the operation of the Holy Ghost that Jesus Christ was conceived of the Virgin Mary, and even on that account called the *Son of God*—it follows undeniably, that the Holy Ghost is God, of the same substance with the Father and Son.

It was this DIVINE SPIRIT, who on the day of Pentecost, inspired the apostles with the knowledge of different languages; and as these were given only to enable them to preach the gospel to every creature, it can admit of no doubt but that he, who so amply provided the means of preaching, would take care that the gospel should be preached in purity. Our Saviour had told his apostles that the COMFORTER would guide them into all the truth (*ὅτι πάντα τὰ ἀληθινὰ*), and bring all things to their remembrance, whatsoever he had said unto them; but if they had not comprehended the meaning of what he said, the bare remembrance of his sayings would have been of little importance. That before this miraculous shedding abroad of the Spirit they had but a very imperfect knowledge of his doctrines, and of the purpose for which he had come into the world, is apparent from that unseasonable question which they put to him when assembled to witness his glorious ascension; "Lord, wilt thou at this time restore again the kingdom to Israel?" Their minds still cherished with fondness the vain prospect of *temporal* power; but after the day of Pentecost they were directed to nobler objects. From the same Spirit they received diversities of gifts besides that of language; for we are assured by St Paul, when speaking of the early converts to Christianity in general, that "to one was given by the Holy Spirit the word of *WISDOM*; to another the word of *KNOWLEDGE* by the same Spirit; to another *FAITH*, by the same Spirit; to another the gifts of *HEALING* by the same Spirit; to another the working of *MIRACLES*; to another *PROPHECY*; to another *DISCERNING OF SPIRITS*; to another *DIVERS KINDS OF TONGUES*; to another the *INTERPRETATION* of tongues:" (1 Cor. xii. 8—12.) and these gifts, which were severally divided, either among private Christians or among the inferior orders of ministers in the church, we have reason to believe were all bestowed in a greater or less degree upon each of the apostles.

Men thus qualified were well fitted to declare all the counsel of God. By the word of *wisdom*, they commu-

communicated to the Gentile nations a pure system of religion; turning them from the vanity of idols to the worship of the living God: by the word of knowledge, they preached the great doctrines of revelation both to Jews and Gentiles, shewing them that there is none other name under heaven given unto men whereby they may be saved than the name of JESUS CHRIST, and by their gifts of healing and of miracles, &c. they were enabled to prove unanswerably that their doctrines were divine. They taught everywhere the unity of God, the creation of the world, the fall of man, the necessity of redemption, the divinity of the Redeemer, his sacrifice on the cross to restore mankind to their forfeited immortality, and the terms of the new covenant into which they had through him been graciously admitted by God.

Such a view as our limits would admit of, we have given of all these doctrines, except that which respects the terms of the gospel covenant; but these being explicitly stated only by St Paul and St James we could not till now investigate them, without violating the historical order into which, for the sake of perspicuity, we have digested the several parts of this short system. Our Saviour himself has indeed taught with great plainness the necessity of faith and baptism to the salvation of those who have an opportunity of hearing the gospel preached with power; (see BAPTISM;) and in his sermon on the mount, which is such a lecture of ETHICS founded on religion, as the Son of God only could have delivered, we learn, that "unless our righteousness shall exceed the righteousness of the Scribes and Pharisees, we shall in no case enter into the kingdom of heaven; and that even the very first thoughts of vice are highly criminal. St Paul, however, attributes our justification to the bare act of believing; for he repeatedly assures us, "that a man is justified by FAITH without the deeds of the law;" while St James, on the other hand, affirms, "that by WORKS a man is justified, and not by faith only."

This apparent difference in the language of these two apostles, for we hope to show that it is only *apparent*, has produced among divines opinions really different respecting the justification of Christians; and the principal of these opinions we shall endeavour to state. But previous to this, it is proper to ascertain the meaning of the word JUSTIFICATION; for we must say, that for want of accurate definitions, many theological controversies are nothing better than empty logomachies; and perhaps no controversy merits this charge more than that which, in the end of the 17th century and in the beginning of the 18th, was so violently agitated concerning the *causes*, the *instruments*, and *conditions* of justification.

Between *pardon* of sin and *justification* there is so close a connection, that many writers consider the terms as synonymous, and infer, that he who is pardoned is *ipso facto* justified. That every Christian who shall be pardoned at the judgment of the great day, will likewise be justified, is indeed true; but, in propriety of speech, *justification* is a word of a very different import from *pardon*, and will entitle the Christian to what mere pardon could not lead him to expect. An innocent per-

son, when falsely accused and acquitted, is *justified* but not *pardoned*; and a criminal may be *pardoned*, though he cannot be *justified* or declared *innocent*. A man whose sins are pardoned is free from punishment; but the justified Christian is entitled to everlasting life, happiness, and glory. If we were only pardoned through Christ, we should indeed escape the pains of hell, but could have no claim to the enjoyments of heaven; for these, being more than the most perfect human virtue can merit, must be, what in the Scriptures they are always said to be, "the gift of God through Jesus Christ our Lord." Hence it is, that St Paul, distinguishing between mere remission of sins and justification, declares that Jesus our Lord was *delivered* for our offences, and *raised* again for our *justification*." Rom. iv. 25.

The word *justification*, as used both by St Paul and St James, has been very generally considered as a *forensic* term, expressing the sentence of a judge. The most eminent reformed divines of all denominations, (Limborch, Bull, Waterland, Warburton, Beveridge, Gill, &c.) and even many of the Romanists themselves, have strenuously contended, that this is its genuine sense, when it is distinguished from mere remission of sins, regeneration, and sanctification; and if so, it will signify God's pronouncing a person *just*, either as being perfectly blameless, or as having fulfilled certain conditions required of him in the Christian covenant. But that "there is not a just man upon earth, who doth good, and sinneth not," we are assured, by the most complete evidence possible, the joint dictates of our own consciences and of divine revelation; and therefore whosoever is pronounced just by the Judge of all the earth, must be so, either because, though not absolutely blameless, he has performed the conditions required of him in the covenant of grace, or because Christ has fulfilled all righteousness in his stead.

If this be the Scripture doctrine of justification, it must be wholly the act of God, and cannot be the effect either of our faith or of our virtue. Accordingly, we are said by the apostle to be justified *freely* by his grace through the redemption that is in Jesus Christ: whom *God hath set forth* to be a propitiation through faith in his blood, (Rom. iii. 24, 25.) The act of justification therefore, proceeds from the divine philanthropy, and cannot be performed by the instrumentality of faith; for it is not God but man, who believes; and man is not the justifier of himself. To talk of any kind of *instrument* of justification besides the propitiation set forth by God, is indeed to make use of very improper language.

In this sentiment of the illustrious Bp. Bull of St David's, that justification is solely an act of God's grace, some of the most eminent divines both among the Calvinists and Arminians agree; and indeed it is not easy to conceive how any man can entertain a different sentiment, when considering justification in its proper sense. Many, however, treat of justification not only in the active sense, as it is the act of God, for all admit that it is he who justifies; but likewise in a passive sense, as it means our *privilege* or *possession* holden of him, when we are said to be justified by his grace.

In this view of the subject they may talk, with sufficient propriety, of an *instrument* of justification, not as the mean by which it is conveyed, but as the medium through which it is *received* by the true Christian. And hence Drs Waterland and Warburton, of whom the former was not a thorough Calvinist, and the latter was a professed Arminian, strenuously maintain the doctrine of the Westminster Confession, that "faith receiving and resting on Christ is the *alone* instrument of justification: though it cannot be alone in the person justified, but must ever be accompanied with all other saving graces, and be a faith which worketh by love."

But notwithstanding this agreement between the leaders of the rival sects, they have found abundant matter of controversy respecting faith and works, in deciding the great question, "Whether, when God justifies man, he considers him as absolutely *righteous* on account of Christ's righteousness performed in his stead; or only as *just*, because he has fulfilled the conditions of the covenant of grace, which does not require of him perfect righteousness?" The former is the doctrine of the more rigid Calvinists, the latter that of the Arminians or Remonstrants.

"A notion (says Dr Gill) obtained some years ago, that a relaxation of the law and the severities of it has been obtained by Christ; and a new law, a *remedial* law, a law of milder terms, has been introduced by him, which is the gospel; the terms of which are, faith, repentance, and new obedience: and though these be imperfect, yet, being sincere, they are accepted by God in the room of a perfect righteousness. But *every article of this scheme* (continues he) *is wrong*; for the law is not relaxed, nor any of its severities abated; Christ came not to destroy, but to fulfil it; and therefore it requires the same holy, just, and good things, as ever. Nor is the gospel a new law. There is nothing in it (says he) which looks like a law; for it has no commands in it, but all promises, being a pure declaration of grace and salvation by Christ; nor are faith, repentance, and new obedience, required by it as *conditions* of men's acceptance with God. Faith and repentance are gospel doctrines and parts of the gospel ministry; they are *graces*, and not *terms* required to be performed by men of themselves. Faith is the gift of God, and repentance is a grant from him. It is not true (continues our author) that God will accept of an imperfect righteousness in the room of a perfect one; nor can any thing more highly reflect upon the justice and truth of God, who is the judge of all the earth, than to suppose that he can ever account that as a righteousness which is not one."

Having thus proved, by arguments which were almost in the same words stated long before by Bishop Beveridge, that the gospel is no relaxation of the law, he proceeds to lay down his own notions of justification, of which (he says) "the sole matter, or that for the sake of which a sinner is justified before God, is the *righteousness of Christ*—that which he did and suffered on earth, in our nature, in our stead, and as our representative. That is commonly called his active and passive obedience; and when the purity and holiness of

his own nature was added to it, the whole made up the *δικαιοσύνη του Θεού*, the *righteousness of the law*, which was fulfilled by him as the head and representative of his people: for whatever the law required is necessary to a sinner's justification before God, and it required of sinners more than it did of man in innocence. Man was created with a pure and holy nature, conformable to the pure and holy law of God, and it was incumbent on him to continue so, and to yield in it perfect and sinless obedience; in the failure whereof he was threatened with death. Man did fail; by which his nature was vitiated and corrupted, and his obedience became faulty and imperfect. He therefore became liable to the penalty of the law, and still perfect obedience was required of him. To the justification of a sinner therefore is required the most complete obedience, active and passive; or, in other words, purity of nature, perfect obedience, and the sufferings of death; all which meet in Christ, the representative of his people, in whom they are justified. There are indeed some divines (continues our author) who exclude the active obedience of Christ from being any part of the righteousness by which men are justified. They allow it to have been a condition requisite in him as a Mediator, qualifying him for his office; but deny that it is the *matter* of justification, or reckoned for righteousness to man. But without the active obedience of Christ the law would not be satisfied; the language of which is, *Do and live*; and unless its precepts be obeyed, as well as its penalty endured, it cannot be satisfied; and unless it be satisfied, there can be no justification. If therefore men are justified by the righteousness of Christ, it must be by his active obedience imputed and made over to them, so as to become theirs, *even as David describeth the blessedness of the man unto whom God imputeth righteousness without works*. That this is really the way in which men are justified, our author thinks evident, because they must be justified either by an inherent or by an imputed righteousness; but they cannot be justified by their inherent righteousness, for that is imperfect, and therefore not justifying. Hence the apostle 'counts all things but dung, that he may win Christ and be found in him; not having his own righteousness, which is of the law, but that which is *through the faith of Christ*, the righteousness which is of God by faith.' But by such a righteousness as this a man cannot be justified in any other way than by an imputation of it to him. Whence it follows, that 'by one man's disobedience many were made sinners by imputation, so by the obedience of one shall many be made righteous,' by having that obedience placed to their account."

As this author properly considers justification as the act of God, he does not approve of the language in which faith is called the *instrument* either of *conferring* or *receiving* it.—"Faith (says he) is merely the evidence of justification to the person justified; for 'faith is the evidence of things not seen.' The righteousness of God, or the God-man and Mediator Jesus Christ, is revealed from faith to faith in the everlasting gospel; and therefore must be *before* it is revealed, and *before* the faith to which it is revealed.

vealed. Faith is that grace whereby a soul, having seen its guilt and its want of righteousness, beholds in the light of the Divine Spirit a complete righteousness in Christ, renounces its own, lays hold on that, puts it on as a garment, rejoices in it, and glories of it; the Spirit of God witnessing to his spirit that he is a justified person; and so he is evidently and declaratively 'justified in the name of the Lord Jesus, and by the Spirit of our God.' Faith adds nothing to the *esse*, only to the *bene esse* of justification; which is a complete act in the eternal mind of God, without the being or consideration of faith, or any foresight of it. In the account of God, a man is as much justified before his faith as after it; and after he does believe, his justification depends not on his acts of faith, for though *we believe not, yet God abides faithful* to his covenant engagements with his Son, by whose suretyship-righteousness the elect are justified; but by faith men have a comfortable sense, perception, and apprehension of their justification, and enjoy that peace of soul which results from it. It is by that only, under the testimony of the Divine Spirit, that they know their interest in it, and can claim it, and so have the comfort of it."

Though this language differs from that of the *Westminster Confession*, the author seems not to teach a different doctrine; for if faith be that grace by which a soul renounces its own righteousness, and lays hold of Christ's, which it puts on as a garment, it must be that very thing which the compilers of the Confession meant by their definition of faith receiving and resting on Christ and his righteousness, when they called it "the *alone instrument* of justification." Accordingly our author elsewhere teaches, that "true faith in sensible sinners assents to Christ and embraces him, not merely as a Saviour of man in general, but as a special suitable Saviour for them in particular. It proceeds upon Christ's being revealed in them as *as to* them, by the spirit of wisdom and revelation, in the knowledge of him as a Saviour that becomes them. It comes not merely through external teachings, by the hearing of the word from men; for no man, faith our blessed Lord can come to me except the Father draw him; but such souls as are thus drawn, having heard and learned of the Father, believe not only in the *doctrine* of Christ, but also in *himself*, trusting in him alone for everlasting life and salvation."

Were it not that this author, in every thing that he writes, has an eye to the doctrine of ELECTION and REPROBATION, which he screws up to a greater height than almost any other divine with whose works we are acquainted, he would differ little in his notions of justification from the more moderate Arminians. "Justification (says LIMBORCH) is the merciful and gracious act of God, whereby he fully absolves from all guilt the truly penitent and believing soul, thro' and for the sake of Christ apprehended by a true faith: or gratuitously remits sins upon the account of faith in Jesus Christ, and graciously imputes that faith for righteousness." Here indeed the *imputation* of Christ's righteousness is expressly denied; but Dr WATERLAND, who can hard-

ly be considered as a Calvinist, seems to contend for the imputation of that righteousness to the sinner, as well as for faith being the instrument by which it is received.

"It cannot be for nothing (says that writer in his *Summary Views*) that St Paul so often and so emphatically speaks of man's being justified by faith in Christ's blood; and that he particularly notes it of Abraham, that he *believed*, and that his faith was counted to him for justification, when he might as easily have said that Abraham, to whom the gospel was preached, was justified by gospel faith and obedience, had he thought faith and obedience equally instruments of justification. Besides, it is on all hands allowed, that though St Paul did not directly oppose faith to *evangelical works*, yet he comprehended the works of the *moral law* under those which he excluded from the office of *justifying*, in his sense of the word justification. He even used such arguments as extended to all kinds of works; for Abraham's works were excluded, though they were undoubtedly evangelical. To prove that he interprets the apostle's doctrine fairly, our author quotes from the genuine epistle of Clemens of Rome a passage, in which it appears beyond a doubt, that this fellow-labourer of St Paul so understood the doctrine of justifying faith as to oppose it even to *evangelical works*, however exalted. It is true (continues our author,) Clemens elsewhere, and St Paul almost everywhere, insists upon true holiness of heart and obedience of life as indispensable conditions of salvation and justification. But the question about *conditions* is very distinct from the other about *instruments*; and therefore both parts may be true, viz. that faith and obedience are equally conditions, and equally indispensable, and yet faith over and above is emphatically the instrument both of receiving and holding justification."

But though our author contends that faith is the *instrument* of justification, he does not, like the ANTINOMIANS, teach that it will save men *without works*. "The covenant of grace (says he) has conditions annexed to it of great importance, for without them no instruments can avail. These are faith and obedience, as St JAMES hath particularly maintained. St PAUL had before determined the general and previous question respecting the plea by which we ought to abide; and when some libertines had perverted his doctrine of faith and grace, St James showed that the very faith which rests in a covenant of grace implies a cordial submission to the conditions of that covenant. The perfect agreement between St Paul and St James in the article of *justification*, appears very clear and certain. St Paul declares, that in order to come at justification, it is necessary to stand upon grace, not upon merit; which St James does not deny, but rather confirms, in what he says of the perfect law of liberty. (James i. 25. ii. 12.) St Paul makes faith the instrument of receiving that grace; which St James does not dispute, but approves by what he says of Abraham (ii. 23.); only he maintains also, that justification depends equally upon faith and good works; which St Paul also teaches and inculcates in effect through all his writings. If St Paul had

had precisely the same question before him which St James happened to have, he would have decided just as St James did. Their principles were exactly the same, but the questions were diverse; and they had different adversaries to deal with, and opposite extremes to encounter.

"That faith, which is here called a *condition*, is of much wider compass than that faith which is precisely the instrument of justification. For faith as a *condition* means the whole complex of Christian belief, as expressed in the creeds; while faith as an *instrument* means only the laying hold on grace, and resting in Christ's merits in opposition to our own deservings; though this also, if it is a vital and operative principle, must of course draw after it an hearty submission to, and observance of, all the necessary conditions of that covenant of grace whereon we repose our whole trust and confidence. So that St Paul might well say, "Do we then make void the law through faith? God forbid: Yea, we establish the law." We exempt no man from religious duties; which are duties still, though they do not *merit*, nor are practicable to such a degree as to be above the need of pardon; they are necessary conditions in their measure of justification, though not sufficient in themselves to *justify*, nor perfect enough to stand before God, or to abide trial; and so our resting in Christ's atonement by an humble self-denying faith is our last resort, our anchor of salvation both sure and steadfast.

"That good works, internal and external, are *conditions* properly so called, is clear from the whole tenor of Scripture, as hath been often proved by our own divines, and by the most judicious among the foreign Reformed. Yet some have been very scrupulous as to this innocent *name* even while they allow the absolute necessity of good works as indispensable qualifications for future blessedness. Why not *conditions* therefore as well as *qualifications*? Perhaps because that name might appear to strike at absolute predestination, or unconditional election; and there may lie the scruple; otherwise the difference appears to lie rather in *words* than *things*.

"Some will have them called not conditions, but *fruits* or *consequents* of justification. If they mean by justification the same as the grace of the Holy Spirit, and the first grace of faith springing from it, they say true."

Such is the doctrine of Christian justification as it has been taught by the followers of Calvin, and by some of the most eminent Arminians who flourished in the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century. They appear not, from this view of their opinions, to differ so widely as some of them have wished the world to believe. It is evident that Dr Waterland, though he rejects some of the distinguishing tenets of Calvinism; lays greater stress upon *faith* in his scheme of justification than Dr Gill himself; and that they both consider it as the *instrument* by which the adult Christian must receive the imputed righteousness of Christ. The greater part of modern Arminians, however, exclaim against the *imputation* of Christ's righteousness, as a doctrine false in itself, and fraught with the most pernicious con-

sequences; and they would be ready to tell Dr Gill, in his own words, that "of his scheme every *article* is *wrong*." It is not true (say they) that God exacts of man, or ever did exact of him an obedience absolutely perfect; for under every dispensation man was in a state of discipline; and had habits of virtue and piety to acquire. Most of them, after Bp. Bull, dislike the use of such unscriptural phrases as the *instrument of justification*, applied either to faith or to works; and think, that by considering God as the sole justifier of man, upon certain conditions, they can more precisely ascertain the distinct provinces of faith and obedience in the scheme of justification, than either their brethren of the old school of Arminius, or their rivals of the school of Calvin. But, to those whom the foregoing remarks on the infinite goodness of God may *please*, both parties have multiplied words to no purpose. See p. 194.

By the very constitution of man, piety and virtue are duties, which if he do not sincerely perform, he must of course forfeit the favour of his Maker; but the most perfect performance of his natural duties would not entitle him to a supernatural and eternal reward. Eternal life is the *gift* of God through Jesus Christ; and it is surely reasonable that we should acknowledge it to be so, and not claim it as a *debt* due to our merits. The pious and virtuous man has a natural claim to more happiness than misery during the period of his existence, a claim founded on the attributes of that God who called him into being; but he has no natural claim to a future life, and still less to a *perpetuity of existence*. This is a truth not more clearly taught in the holy scripture than consonant to the soundest philosophy; and yet, by not attending to it, have St Paul and St James been set at variance, and the most opposite doctrines taught respecting the justification of Christians.

That piety and virtue are, through the divine justice and benevolence, entitled to reward, is a truth incontrovertible; but that man who is of yesterday is *naturally immortal*—that a being who began to exist by the mere good will of his Maker, has in himself a principle of perpetual existence, independent of that will—is a direct contradiction. Whatever began to be, can be continued in being only by the power, and according to the pleasure, of the infinite Creator; but it pleased the Creator, of his free grace, at first to promise mankind eternal life, on the single condition of their first father's observing one positive precept. That precept was violated, and the free gift lost: but the covenant was renewed in Christ, who "by his death hath abolished death, and by his resurrection hath brought to light life and immortality." The condition annexed to the gift thus restored was *faith*; for "being justified by faith, we have peace with God through our Lord Jesus Christ; by whom also we have access by faith into this grace wherein we stand, and rejoice in the hope of the GLORY OF GOD." Faith therefore in the Son of God and Saviour of the world, is not only a condition, but the *sole* condition, of that justification which is peculiarly Christian; for since Christ, without any co-operation of ours, hath purchased for us the free gift of

of eternal life, we shall be guilty of the grossest ingratitude to our Divine Benefactor, and impiously claim an independence on God, if we look upon that gift either as a *right* inherent in our nature, or as a *debt* due to our meritorious deeds. By the grace of the Christian covenant, all mankind are rendered immortal in consequence of the death and resurrection of Christ, who is the Lamb slain, in the divine decree, from the foundation of the world; but to obtain immortal *happiness*, they must observe the conditions, which are repentance from dead works and faith in Christ the Redeemer, by which alone we can obtain the divine favour, and enjoy either present or future happiness; which is merely the *gift* of God through Jesus Christ our Lord.

Upon the whole, the sum of Christianity, as we are taught by the beloved disciple, is comprehended in this commandment of God, "that we should *believe* on the name of his Son Jesus Christ, and *love one another* as he gave us commandment." In perfect harmony with him, the great apostle of the Gentiles, from mistaking whose words much empty noise has been raised about this question, assures us, that "in Christ Jesus nothing can avail to our eternal happiness, but faith, which *WORKETH BY LOVE*;" and he informs Titus, that it "is a true saying, and what he wills to be constantly affirmed, that they who have believed in God be careful to maintain good works."

Indeed no man can have complete faith in Christ, who believes not the promises of the gospel; but all those promises, except the single one of a resurrection from the dead, are made to us upon the express condition that we obey the law of the gospel.

Such are the notions of justification entertained by those who in the present age have been considered as the leaders of the sect of ARMINIANS. How far they are just, the reader must decide for himself, as our business is chiefly to collect into one point of view the scattered opinions of others; but under every view of this doctrine which we have taken, the Christian covenant appears much more gracious than that into which Adam was admitted in paradise; since it affords room for repentance, even to that man who may be so unhappy as to be withdrawn for a time into apostacy from the terms of the covenant. Whether the death of Christ, therefore, was a *direct* atonement for the actual sins of men, or only operated as such *indirectly*, by procuring for them repeated opportunities of repentance, it is an undoubted truth, that, "if through the offence of one man be dead, much more the grace of God, and the gift by grace, which is by one man, Jesus Christ, hath abounded unto many. And not as it was by one that sinned, so is the gift: for the judgment was by one offence to *condemnation*, but the free gift is of many offences unto *justification*." (Rom. v. 16.)

Thus graciously has the divine goodness displayed itself in the restoration of our lost inheritance. But it stopp not here. The same bountiful Lord of life, for its further security, imparts to every true believer the strength and light of his Holy Spirit to support faith in working out

our salvation. Our blessed Saviour, "who gave himself for us, that he might redeem us not only from death, but likewise from all iniquity, and purify to himself a peculiar people zealous of good works," promised, before he left this world, to send to his followers the Holy Ghost or Comforter to abide with them for ever, to guide them into all truth, to bring all things to their remembrance whatsoever he had said unto them, and, as we learn from other passages of scripture, to "work in them both to will and to do of his good pleasure." How amply this promise was fulfilled to the apostles, we have already seen; but we are not to suppose that it was restricted to them. As man is designed for a supernatural state in heaven, he stands in need of supernatural direction to guide him to that state. "No man (says our Saviour) can come to me except the Father draw him: for as no man knoweth the things of a man save the spirit of a man which is in him, even so none knoweth the things of God but the Spirit of God." This omniscient Spirit indeed "searcheth all things, yea, even the deep things of God," and revealeth them to the sons of men, to enlighten their understandings and purify their hearts. The grace which he sheds abroad is either external and general, or internal and particular. The former has been extended to the whole church of God under the patriarchal, Mosiac, and Christian dispensations, in such a revelation of the divine will as was sufficient to instruct men unto eternal life, whether they had a clear view or not of that stupendous plan of redemption, by which the kingdom of heaven was opened to them after the forfeiture of the terrestrial paradise; for there have been "holy prophets ever since the world began; and prophecy came not at any time by the will of man, but holy men of God spake as they were moved by the Holy Ghost." Hence it is that all scripture was given by inspiration of God, to teach us every thing which is necessary for us to know and believe; and the scripture is that work of the spirit which is extended to the universal church.

The same Holy Spirit which thus generally reveals the objects of faith to the church, doth likewise particularly illuminate the minds of individual believers, working in them an assent to that which is taught them from the written word. It was thus that "the Lord opened the heart of Lydia, that she attended to the things which were spoken by Paul;" it is thus that "the word preached doth not profit, if it be not mixed with faith in them who hear it;" and it is thus that "God deals to every man the measure of faith;" for "by grace we are saved, through faith, which is not of ourselves; it is the gift of God." This illumination of the Spirit was conveyed to the apostles "in a sound from heaven as of a rushing mighty wind," because it was meant to testify to the world that they were chosen ministers of the gospel; but the ordinary Christian receives it in the "still small voice," because it is conveyed to him only to open his understanding that he may understand the scriptures.

Another operation of the Spirit on the minds of believers is that which in scripture is called REGENERATION; for "according to his mercy
God

God saveth us by the washing of regeneration and renewing of the Holy Ghost, which he sheds on us abundantly through Jesus Christ our Lord." To those who believe that we derive from Adam a corrupted nature, this particular grace must appear so absolutely necessary, that without it we could have no relish for heaven or heavenly things. "The natural man (we are told) receiveth not the things of the Spirit of God; for they are foolishness to him: neither can he know them, because they are spiritually discerned." Indeed, whatever be the powers of our moral faculties, when compared with those of our first father, it is so long before they be completely developed, that we should infallibly be lost, if we were not blessed by a supernatural guide, when reason is incapable of directing our conduct. Our passions and appetites are in their full strength before experience has furnished the mind with materials, by means of which motives may be weighed; and therefore it would be impossible, during the giddy period of youth, to keep them in due subjection, were we not influenced by divine grace. So true is it, that "except a man be born again of water and of the Holy Ghost, he cannot enter into the kingdom of God." This change in our dispositions, from an immoderate attachment to earth to a relish for the things of heaven, is in scripture called "a renewing of our minds, a new creation, a new man;" in opposition to our natural disposition, which is called "the old man, corrupted according to the deceitful lusts." The ancient fathers of the church, as well as some very eminent modern divines, generally speak of *Baptism* as the instrument in God's hand of man's regeneration; and for the truth of their opinion they appeal to John iii. 3, 5. Ephes. v. 25, 26. and 1 Cor. vi. 11. in which great stress is certainly laid upon the washing of water, as well as upon sanctification by the word. See BAPTISM.

A third office of the Holy Spirit is to lead, direct, and govern us through all the periods of our lives. Without such a leader and guide, the temptations with which we are surrounded would certainly overcome us, and we should faint long before we arrive at the end of our journey. By the very constitution of our nature we are subjected to the influence of sense, of which the objects are present, whilst the enjoyments of heaven are future, and seen, as at a distance, only by the eye of faith; but "the law of the Spirit of life, in Christ Jesus, hath made us free from the law of sin and death; for God worketh in us both to will and to do of his good pleasure; and as many as are thus led by the Spirit of God, they are the sons of God; and while they walk in the Spirit, they do not fulfil the lusts of the flesh." Without the aid of the same Spirit, we could not even make our prayers acceptable; for since "our confidence in God is, that he heareth us only when we ask any thing according to his will; and since we know not what we should pray for as we ought, the Spirit itself maketh intercession for us with groanings that cannot be uttered."

A fourth operation of the HOLY GHOST, as he is the sanctifier of Christians, is to join them to Christ, and make them members of that one body of which he is the head. "For by one Spirit

are we all baptized into one body; and as the body is one and hath many members, and all the members of that one body, being many, are one body, so also is Christ." "Hereby we know that God abideth in us, by the Spirit which he hath given us;" and as, in the ordinary course of his dealings with Christians, this Spirit is first given in baptism, so is it continued to the faithful by the instrumentality of the Lord's supper. That ordinance we have elsewhere (see SUPPER OF THE LORD) proved to be a federal rite; and surely no time can be supposed so highly sanctified for the reception of the graces of the Holy Spirit, as that in which we renew our federal union with our Lord and Master in the communion of his body and blood.

It is likewise the office of the Holy Ghost to give us an earnest of our everlasting inheritance, to create in us a sense of the paternal love of God, and thereby to assure us of the adoption of sons. "As many as are led by the Spirit of God, they are the sons of God; and because we are sons, God hath sent forth the spirit of his Son into our hearts. For we have not received the spirit of bondage again to fear; but we have received the Spirit of adoption, whereby we cry *Abba* Father; the Spirit itself bearing witness with our spirits, that we are the children of God."

As the gifts of grace are generally annexed to means, to the proper use of the word and sacraments, it is a sixth office of the same Spirit to sanctify such persons as are regularly set apart for the work of the ministry, and ordained to offer up the public prayers of the people; to bless them in the name of God; to teach the doctrines of the gospel; to administer the sacraments instituted by Christ; and to perform all things necessary "for the perfecting of the saints, for the work of the ministry, for the edifying of the body of Christ." The same spirit which illuminated the apostles, and endowed them with power from above to perform personally their apostolic function, fitted them also for sending others, as they were sent by their Divine Master; and for establishing such a constitution of the church as was best adapted for preserving Christians in the unity of the Spirit and bond of peace. They committed a standing power to a successive ministry, to be conveyed down to the end of the world; and those who are vested with that power are obliged to "take heed unto themselves, and to all the flock over which the HOLY GHOST hath made them overseers, to feed the church of God, and to contend earnestly for the faith which was once delivered unto the saints." See EPISCOPACY, INDEPENDENTS, PRESBYTERIANS, POPE, SCOTLAND, § 96, QUAKERS, and SANDEMANIANS.

By these and the like means doth the Spirit of God sanctify the sons of men; and in consequence of this sanctification proceeding immediately from his office, he is called the HOLY SPIRIT and the COMFORTER. That this is such a provision "for renewing us in the spirit of our minds, and enabling us to put on the new man, which, after God, is created in righteousness and true holiness," as, when made known by revelation, appears to have been expedient, may be conceived to have been

been even necessary, and though reason could hardly have hoped for it, is contradicted by none of our natural notions either of God or of man. Many, however, are the controversies to which it has given rise in the church of God; some contending that it is given only unto the elect, upon whom it operates with resistless efficacy; others affirming that it is offered to all, but in such a manner as that, by the abuse of their free will, it may be "resisted, grieved, and quenched;" and some few, still intoxicated with the pride of Pelagius, think it is not necessary, and of course is not bestowed.

The questions concerning ELECTION, the efficacy of grace, and the final perseverance of the saints, we have stated elsewhere, and given a summary view of the arguments by which the contending parties maintain their respective opinions (see PREDESTINATION, § 2); and the texts of Scripture which we have just quoted, under the different heads of sanctification, show sufficiently that the opinion of Pelagius is directly contrary to the doctrine of the apostles. It may not be improper to inquire whether it be as agreeable to reason and experience as its proud patrons seem to imagine.

If it be unreasonable to expect any assistance from the Spirit of God in carrying on the work of our own salvation, how came so many of the wisest and best of men in all ages to believe, that he who sincerely endeavours to discharge his duty is supported in that endeavour by assistance from heaven? SOCRATES, it is well known, professed to believe that his own conduct was under the direction of a superior spirit, which he called a demon; and Plutarch, as quoted by Wollaston, speaks of the gods assisting men, by "exciting the powers or faculties of the soul: by suggesting secret principles, imaginations, or thoughts; or, on the contrary, by diverting or stopping them." Of the same opinion Cicero seems to have been. (See *Cic. de Div. lib. i. § 8. 51.*) That the poets and philosophers of the heathen world derived these notions from primeval tradition, cannot, we think, be questioned; but if they had been absurd they would not have been so universally embraced; Socrates and Cicero were men of as great natural sagacity as Pelagius or any of his followers. It is indeed far from being incredible that the Father of spirits should occasionally direct the thoughts and actions of men.

Socrates, Plutarch, and Cicero, and all the virtuous and wise men of antiquity, admitted this in

effect, upon no better evidence than that of oral tradition, supported by their own meditations, and the principles of their own conduct. But let us, who enjoy the light of divine revelation, study the practical precepts of the GOSPEL, consider the consequences which they have had on the peace and happiness of society, and compare the general conduct of Christians with that of the Jews, Pagans, and Mahometans. See RELIGION.

From this short view of the several dispensations of revealed religion, it is evident that the gospel is not only the best but the last gift of the kind which man has to expect from his Maker; that the scheme of revelation is completed; and that the pretences of Mahomet and of other modern enthusiasts to divine inspiration are not only false, but fraught with contradictions. All these men admit the divine origin of the Mosaic and Christian religions; but it appears from the scriptures, in which those religions are taught, that the system of revealed truths which constitute the Patriarchal, Mosaic, and Christian revelations, commenced with the fall of man, and was completed by the restoration to life and immortality by the sacrifice of Christ upon the cross. A new revelation therefore like that of Mahomet cannot be admitted without rejecting the whole Bible, though the impostor himself every where acknowledges the inspiration of Abraham, of Moses, and of Christ. Nor is greater regard due to the claims of Christian enthusiasts. Such of these men as pretend to have been in heaven (See BOEHMEN), and thence to have brought spiritual discoveries to the earth, have either forgotten, or never understood, that in the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments the great scheme of Providence appears to be closed, in full completion of its one regular, entire, and eternal purpose; that St Paul has pronounced a curse upon any man or angel from heaven who should preach another gospel, than what has been already preached by the apostles and evangelists; that in their writings we are taught every thing which it is our duty to believe or to practise in order to our own salvation; and that we have the promise of our blessed Lord himself, that the Spirit of truth shall remain with us to guide us into all necessary truth, till the great day when he shall come again to judge the world in righteousness, and render to every man according to his works. (See THEOSOPHISTS.)

T H E

T H E

*THEOMACHIST. *n. f.* He who fights against the gods. *Bailey.*

*THEOMACHY. *n. f.* [θεομαχία and μάχη.] The fight against the gods by the giants. *Bailey.*

THEOMAGI. [from θεοι, and μαγος, wife.] persons endued with divine wisdom.

THEOMAGIC. *n. f.* Divine wisdom.

THEOMANCY. *n. f.* [from θεοι, and μαντια, prophecy.] The gift of PROPHECY.

(1.) THEON, an ancient Greek Sophist, who wrote a Treatise on Oratory, entitled *Prognusuf*.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

meta. It is still extant, and is written with elegance. It was printed at Leyden in 1726; with a Latin translation.

(2.) THEON, an eminent philosopher and mathematician of Alexandria, who flourished in the reign of Theodosius the Great, and taught mathematics in a school at Alexandria, which was afterwards kept up by his unparalleled daughter, the learned lady Hypatia, who, in spite of her beauty, learning, and other accomplishments, died a martyr to Christianity, in a barbarous pagan mob.

Q q

mob.

enob. (See HYPATIA.) Theon wrote several works; particularly, *A Commentary on Euclid*, which was printed in Greek, at Basil, in 1588, fol. and a *Commentary on Aratus*; Oxford, 1672, in 4to.

THEOPASCHATITES, a sect of Christian heretics, who flourished in the 5th century, and taught that all the three persons in the Godhead suffered on the Cross. They were the followers of Peter Fullo Bp. of Antioch. See FULLO.

THEOPHANE, in fabulous history, the daughter of Bifalus, whom Neptune metamorphosed into a sheep, to free her from her numerous suitors, and conveyed her to the island of *Crumissa* where, assuming to himself the form of a ram, he begot on her the celebrated ram with the golden fleece, which carried PHRYXUS across the Hellespont, and afterwards gave rise to the expedition of the Argonauts. See ARGONAUTS and NEPTUNE.

(1.) **THEOPHANES**, an ancient Greek historian, born at Mitylene, and an intimate friend of Pompey the Great, who on his account bestowed many favours on the Mitylenians. After the battle of Pharsalia, he gave Pompey the well-meant but fatal advice to fly to the ungrateful tyrant of Egypt, Ptolemy Auletes, who murdered him. See POMPEY. Theophanes wrote a *History of Byzantium*, which was printed at Paris, in fol. in 1649.

(2.) **THEOPHANES**, M. Pompeius, the son of the preceding, was made governor of Asia, and was otherwise highly favoured by Tiberius.

(3.) **THEOPHANES**, George, another Greek historian, born at Constantinople, in the 7th century, of a noble family. He entered into the monastic order, and was received with great respect at the 7th general Council; but the emperor Leo the Armenian, banished him to Samothrace: where he died in 828. He wrote a Chronicle of the Greek empire, beginning where SYCELLUS ends, and continued down to the reign of Michael Curopalatus. It was printed at the Louvre, in fol. in 1655.

(4.) **THEOPHANES PROKOPOVITCH**, a celebrated Russian historian, born in 1681. He entered into orders, and was promoted to be Archbishop of Novogorod. He wrote the *Life of Peter the Great*, and several *Treats on Theology*. He died in 1756. In this arrangement we have followed Dr Watkins in the last Edit. of his *Biog. Hist. and Chron. Dict.* 8vo, 1806. But we suspect that the Dr has misplaced the article, which certainly should have been inserted under P at PROKOPOVITCH; *Theophanes* being evidently the Archbishop's Christian name.

THEOPHANIA *plur.* festivals anciently held at Delphi, in honour of Apollo.

THEOPHILANTHROPISTS, [from *Θεός*, God, *φίλος*, to love, and *άνθρωπος*, a man]; a sect of deists, who, in September 1796, published at Paris a sort of catechism or directory for social worship. The sect found a considerable number of adherents during the ferment of the Revolution; but we believe is not now in existence.

(1.) **THEOPHILUS**, [Gr. *Θεός* and *φίλος*, i. e. a lover of God], an eminent primitive Christian, who seems to have been very well named, as well as of a superior rank, from the polite manner in which St Luke addresses him, and whom St Luke has honoured to eternity, by dedicating his

Gospel, and his history of the *Acts of the Apostles* to him. It is surprising, that no other memoir remains of him.

(2.) **THEOPHILUS**, a writer and bishop of the primitive church, was educated a Heathen, and afterwards converted to Christianity. He was ordained bishop of Antioch A. D. 170; and he governed this church 12 or 13 years. He was a vigorous opposer of certain heretics of his time, and composed a great number of works; all of which are lost, except three books to Autolycus, a learned Heathen of his acquaintance, who had undertaken to vindicate his own religion against that of the Christians. It is remarkable, that this patriarch of Antioch was the first who applied the term *Trinity* to express the Three Persons in the Godhead.

THEOPHRASTA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria* and order of *monogynia*. The corolla is campanulate, with divisions and segments obtuse; the capsule unilocular, globular, very large, and many-seeded. There is only one species.

THEOPHRASTA AMERICANA.

THEOPHRASTUS, a celebrated Greek philosopher, the son of Melanthus, was born at Ereus in Lesbos. He was first the disciple of Leucippus in his own country; next of the celebrated PLATO at Athens; and last of ARISTOTLE. He succeeded Aristotle in the Peripatetic school, and conducted the charge with such high reputation that he had about 2000 scholars. He is highly celebrated for his industry, learning and eloquence, and for his generosity and public spirit. He is said to have twice freed his country from the oppression of tyrants. He contributed liberally towards defraying the expence attending the public meetings of philosophers; which were held, not for the sake of show; but for learned and ingenious conversation. In the public schools he commonly appeared, as Aristotle had done, in an elegant dress, and was very attentive to the graces of elocution. He lived to the advanced age of 105: Some say of 107. Towards the close of his life, he grew exceedingly infirm, and was carried to the school on a couch. He expressed great regret on account of the shortness of life; and complained that nature had given long life to fags and crows, to whom it is of little value, and had denied it to man, who, in a longer duration, might have been able to attain the summit of science; but now, as soon as he arrives within sight of it, it is taken away. His last advice to his disciples was, that, since it is the lot of man to die as soon as he begins to live, they should take more pains to enjoy life as it passes, than to acquire posthumous fame. His funeral was attended by a large body of Athenians. He wrote many valuable works, of which all that remain are, several treatises on the *Natural History of Plants and Fossils*; *Of Winds*, *Of Fire*, &c. an excellent moral treatise, entitled *Characters*; which, he says in his preface, he composed when he was 99 years of age. It has been repeatedly translated into French, English, &c. To Theophrastus we are indebted for preserving the works of Aristotle. See ARISTOTLE.

THEOPHYLACT, } a learned Greek father,
THEOPHYLACTUS, } born at Constantinople, about

about A. D. 1070, or earlier. He became Abp. of Achrida, and metropolitan of all Bulgaria. He wrote *Commentaries on the Gospels*, the *Acts*, several of the *Epistles*, and of the *minor Prophets*; also *Institutio Regia*; *Letters*; and some *bisporical treatises*. His whole works were printed at Paris in fol. 1647; also at Venice, in 4 vols. 1754—1763.

THEOPOLIS, [Θεός, and πόλις, a city,] *q. d.* the city of God, a name given to ANTIOCH.

(1.) **THEOPOMPUS**, a celebrated Greek orator and historian, was born in the island of Chios, and flourished in the reign of Alexander the Great. He was one of the most famous of all the disciples of Isocrates, and won the prize from all the panegyrist who Artemisia invited to praise Mausolus. He wrote several works, which are lost.

(2.) **THEOPOMPUS**, king of Sparta, a binarch of the family of Proclidæ. (See SPARTA, § 3.) He succeeded his father Nicander, and distinguished himself, by introducing many new regulations; among these, the most remarkable was his institution of the EPHORIA, an aristocratic court, who afterwards assumed or acquired so much power, as to impeach, try, and execute some of the best of the Spartan kings. See AGES III. He died after a long and successful reign, during which the Messenian war was carried on; about A. A. C. 723.

* **THEORBO**. *n. f.* [tiórba, Italian; tuorbe, Fr.] A large lute for playing a thorough bass, used by the Italians. *Bailey*.—

He wanted nothing but a song,
And a well tun'd theorbo hung. *Builer*.

(1.) * **THEOREM**. *n. f.* [theoreme, Fr. θεωρημα.] A position laid down as an acknowledged truth.—Having found this the head theorem of all their discourses. *Hooker*.—Nor is the subtilty greater in moral theorems than in mathematical. *Mare*.—Many observations go to the making up of one theorem. *Graunt*.—Here are three theorems. *Dryden*.

(2.) A **THEOREM** is a proposition which terminates in theory, and which considers the properties of things already made or done; or it is a speculative proposition deduced from comparing together several definitions. A theorem is something to be proved, and a PROBLEM something to be done.

* **THEOREMATICAL**. } *adj.* [from theorem.]
* **THEOREMATICK**. } Comprised in theo-
* **THEOREMICK**. } rems; consisting in
theorems.—*Theoremick* truth, or that which lies in the conceptions we have of things, is negative or positive. *Grew*.

* **THEORETICAL**. **THEORETICK**. **THEORICAL**. **THEORICK**. *adj.* [theoretique, French; from θεωρητικός;] [theorique, Fr. from θεωρημα.] Speculative; depending on theory or speculation; terminating in theory or speculation; not practical.—

The act and practice part of life
Must be the mistress to this theoricque. *Shak*.

—The *theoretical* part of the inquiry being interwoven with the historical conjectures. *Boyle*.—For *theoretical* learning, there is nothing yet complete. *Burnet*.

* **THEORETICALLY**. **THEORICALLY**. *adv.* [from theoretick] [from theorick.] Speculatively; not practically.

(1.) * **THEORICK**. *adj.* See **THEORETICAL**.
(2.) * **THEORICK**. *n. f.* [from the adjective.] Speculation, not practice.—

The bookish theorick. *Shak*.
* **THEORIST**. *n. f.* [from theory.] A speculatist; one given to speculation.—The greatest theorists have given the preference to such a government as that which obtains in this kingdom. *Addison*.

THEORIUS, [Gr. θεωρητής, i. e. clear-sighted.] A surname of Apollo, at Trozene. *Lempr*.

(1.) * **THEORY**. *n. f.* [theorie, Fr. θεωρημα.] Speculation; not practice; scheme; plan or system yet subsisting only in the mind.—If they had been themselves to execute their own theory in this church, they would have seen. *Hooker*.—In making gold, the means hitherto propounded to effect it are in the practice full of error, and in the theory full of unfound imagination. *Bacon*.—As to the theory and speculation of virtue and vice, mankind are much the same. *South*.—

Religion is not theory, but act. *Harte*.
(2.) **THEORY**, in general, denotes any doctrine which terminates in speculation, without considering the practical uses or application thereof.

THEOSOPHISTS, [from Θεός, God and σοφία, wisdom,] a fanatical sect of philosophers, who rose about the end of the 16th century, and made a figure in almost every country in Europe. They pretended to derive all their knowledge from divine illumination. They boasted that, by means of this celestial light, they were not only admitted to the intimate knowledge of God, and of all divine truth, but had access to the most sublime secrets of nature. They ascribed it to the singular manifestation of divine benevolence, that they were able to make such a use of the element of fire, in the chemical art, as enabled them to discover the essential principles of bodies, and to disclose stupendous mysteries in the physical world. Hence they were also called FIRE-PHILOSOPHERS. They even pretended to an acquaintance with those celestial beings, who form the medium of intercourse between God and man, and to a power of obtaining from them, by the aid of magic, astrology, and other similar arts, various kinds of information and assistance. One of their chief leaders and ornaments, was the celebrated Paracelsus, from whom they were also called PARACELSISTS. To this class also belonged Daniel HOFFMAN, Robert Fludd, or Flood, an English physician, Jacob Boehmen, VAN HELMONT, Peter Poirer, and the ROSICRUCIANS. In France the doctrine was zealously propagated by RIVIER. In Denmark, by SEVERINUS, and in Germany, by KUNZWARTH. See BOEHMEN, &c.

THEOTIMUS, an ancient Grecian historian, who wrote a history of Italy.

THEOXENTA, a festival held annually in all the cities of Greece, but chiefly at Athens, in honour of all the Gods.

THEOXENIUS, a surname of Apollo.

(1.) **THERA**, one of the SPORADES islands in the Ægean Sea, called also CALLISTA, and now SANTORIN. It was first inhabited by a colony of Phœnicians, who were left there by CADMUS, under Memliarès. *Herodotus*, 4. *Strabo*, 8.

(2.) **THERA**, an ancient town of Caria.

THERAMBUS, a town of Macedon, near Pellenae.

THERAMENES, a celebrated Athenian general, patriot, and philosopher. He defeated the Megareans, and suppressed a tumult in Athens; (See *ATTICA*, § 13.) but the Athenians being at last completely subjugated by the Spartans, who demolished their walls, and subjected them to 30 tyrants, all under Spartan influence, except Theramenes, who was the only one of the 30 that stood up for the interest of his country. The rest abused their power in the most cruel and arbitrary manner. But Theramenes's patriotic opposition to these tyrants only ended in his own death. (See *ATTICA*, § 14.) It is said that when he drank the bowl of poison, he drank to the health of *Critias*, his accuser, but along with that compliment he imprecated a curse on the tyrant, which was soon after fulfilled.

THERAPEUTÆ, a term applied to those that are wholly in the service of religion. This general term has been applied to particular sects of men, concerning whom there have been great disputes among the learned. A Jewish sect were so called, from the extraordinary purity of their religious worship. With a kind of religious phrenzy, they placed their whole felicity in the contemplation of the Divine nature. Detaching themselves wholly from secular affairs, they transferred their property to their relations or friends, and withdrew into solitary places, where they devoted themselves to a holy life. How long this sect continued is uncertain; but it is not improbable that, after the appearance of Christianity in Egypt, it soon became extinct.

(1.) * **THERAPEUTICK**. *adj.* [*θεραπευτικος*.] Curative; teaching or endeavouring the cure of diseases.—*Therapeutick* or curative physic restores the patient into sanity. *Brown*.—The practice and *therapeutick* is distributed into the conservative, preservative, and curative. *Harvey*.—Medicine is justly distributed into prophylactic, or the art of preserving health; and *therapeutick*, or the art of restoring it. *Watts*.

(2.) **THERAPEUTICS**, that part of medicine which acquaints us with the rules that are to be observed, and the medicines to be employed, in the cure of diseases.

(1.) **THERAPNE**, an ancient town of Laconia, on the W. bank of the Eurotas, where Apollo had a temple, called *Phæbeum*; near Lacedæmon. Castor and Pollux were born in it, and hence called *Therapnai*.

(2.) **THERAPNE**, a daughter of Lelex, king of Sparta, who gave name to the above town.

THERAS, a son of Autelson, a Spartan, who colonized **THERA**.

* **THERE**. *adv.* [*thar*, Gothic; *ther*, Saxon; *daer*, Dutch; *der*, Danish.] 1. In that place.—

I'll not be *there*. *Shak.*

Mad ambition shall attend her *there*. *Pope.*

2. It is opposed to *here*.—To see thee *here*, to see thee *there*. *Shak.*—Could their relishes be as different as they are *here*. *Locke.*

Darkness *there* might well seem twilight *here*. *Milton.*

3. An exclamation directing something at a distance.—

A guard *there*; seize her. *Dryden.*

4. It is used at the beginning of a sentence with the appearance of a nominative case, but serves only to throw the nominative behind the verb: as, *a man came*, or, *there came a man*. It adds however some emphasis, which, like many other idioms in every language, must be learned by custom, and can hardly be explained. It cannot always be omitted without harshness: as, *in old times there was a great king*. For reformation of error *there* were that thought it a part of Christian charity to instruct them. *Hooker*.—*There* are delivered in holy Scripture many weighty arguments for this doctrine. *White*.—*There* cannot in nature be a strength so great, as to make the least moveable to pass in an instant, or all together, through the least place. *Digby*.—*There* have been that have delivered themselves from their ill. *Suckling*.—In human actions *there* are no degrees described. *Taylor*.—Wherever *there* is sense or perception, there some idea is actually produced. *Locke*. 5. In composition it means that: as *thereby*, *by that*.

* **THEREABOUT**. } *adv.* [*there* and *about*, *thereabouts*.] } *abouts* is therefore less proper. 1. Near that place.—One speech I loved; 'twas *Aeneas's* tale to Dido; and *thereabout* of it especially, where he speaks of Priam's slaughter. *Shak.* 2. Nearly; near that number, quantity, or state.—Between the 14th of king John and 50th of king Edward III. containing 150 years or *thereabouts*, there was a continual bordering war. *Davies*.—Find a house to lodge 150 persons, whereof 20 or *thereabouts* may be attendants. *Milton*.—

Some three months since, or *thereabout*. *Suckling*.—Water is 13 times rarer, and its resistance less than that of quicksilver *thereabouts*. *Newton*. 3. Concerning that matter.—They were much perplexed *thereabout*. *Luke*, xxiv. 4.

* **THEREAFTER**. *adv.* [*there* and *after*.] According to that; accordingly.—Proportion the body *thereafter*. *Peachment*.—Would'st thou not eat? *thereafter* as I like The giver. *Milton*.

* **THEREAT**. *adj.* [*there* and *at*.] 1. At that; on that account.—It blusheth *thereat*, but glorieth in the contrary. *Hooker*. 2. At that place.—Broad is the way that leadeth to destruction, and many go in *thereat*. *Mat.* vii. 13.

* **THEREBY**. *adv.* [*there* and *by*.] By that; by means of that; in consequence of that.—The people may *thereby* learn what their duties are. *Hooker*.—

Him to defend *thereby*. *Spenser*.—Being come to the height, they were *thereby* brought to an absolute necessity. *Davies*.—

Nothing can need a lie; A fault, which needs it most, grows two *thereby*. *Herbert*.

—The violet on the paper will not suffer any change *thereby*. *Newton*.

* **THEREFORE**. *adv.* [*there* and *for*.] 1. For that; for this; for this reason.—

Therefore to our best mercy give yourselves. *Shak.*
Falstaff is dead,
And we must yern *therefore*. *Shak.*

—Therefore I compose myself to meet a storm.
Lucas. 2. Consequently.—He blushes; *therefore* he is guilty. *Spektor.*—The glory *therefore* was greater to conquer without powder. *West.* 3. In return for this; in recompence for this or for that.
 —What shall we have *therefore*? *Mat* xix. 27.

* *THEREFROM.* *adv.* [*there and from*] From that; from this.—Do all that is written in the law, that ye turn not aside *therefrom*. *Jos* xxiii. 6.—The leaves that spring *therefrom* grow white. *Mortimer.*

* *THEREIN.* *adv.* [*there and in*] In that; in this.—

Therein our letters do not well agree. *Shak.*
 —I find myself unable to serve you *therein* as you desire. *Bacon.*
 Possess it, and all things that *therein* live.

Milton.
 —We shall *therein* find many charms. *Dryden.*

* *THEREINTO.* *adv.* [*there and into*] Into that.—Let not them that are in the countries enter *thereinto*. *Luke.*—We will now make some entrance *thereinto*. *Bacon.*

* *THEREOF.* *adv.* [*there and of*] Of that; of this.—We yield to the stream *thereof*. *Hooker.*—

When 'tis past, not any part remains
Thereof, but the reward which virtue gains.
Denham.

—Several instances might be brought from other states *thereof*. *Swift.*

* *THEREON.* *adv.* [*there and on*] On that.—If *thereon* you rely. *Shak.*

—When he thought *thereon* he wept. *Mark* xiv. 72.—Its foundation is laid *thereon*. *Woodward.*

* *THEREOUT.* *adv.* [*there and out*] Out of that.—

Thereout a strange beast with seven heads arose. *Spenser.*

* *THERETO.* *THEREUNTO.* *adv.* [*there and to, or unto*] To that.—We yield *thereunto* our ungrudging assent. *Hooker.*—This sort of base people doth not for the most part rebel of themselves, having no heart *thereunto*. *Spenser.*

Next *thereunto* did grow a goodly tree. *Spenser.*
 That whereby we reason, live and be
 Within ourselves we strangers are *thereto*.

Davies.
 —A larger form of speech were safer than that which punctually prefixeth a constant day *thereto*. *Brown.*—What might his force have done, being brought *thereto*. *Daniel.*—That it is the appointment of God, might be argument enough to persuade us *thereunto*. *Tillotson.*

* *THEREUNDER.* *adv.* [*there and under*] Under that.—Those which come nearer unto reason, find paradise under the equinoctial line, judging that *thereunder* might be found most pleasure and the greatest fertility. *Raleigh.*

* *THEREUNTO.* See *THERETO*.

* *THEREUPON.* *adv.* [*there and upon*] 1. Upon that; in consequence of that.—What can we less *thereupon* conclude. *Hooker.*—

He hopes to find you forward;
 And *thereupon* he sends you this good news. *Shak.*

Thereupon give me your daughter. *Shak.*
 —Many times inconveniences do arise *thereupon*.

Davies.—Children are chid for having failed in good manners, and have *thereupon* reproofs and precepts heaped upon them. *Locke.*—Solon finding the people engaged in two violent factions, of the poor and the rich, and in great confusion *thereupon*, made due provisions for settling the balance of power. *Swift.* 2. Immediately.

THEREUS. See *TEREUS*, and *PHILOMELA*, N° 2.

* *THEREWITH.* *adv.* [*there and with*] 1. With that.—Germany had stricken off that which appeared corrupt in the doctrine of the church of Rome, but seemed in discipline still to retain *therewith* very great conformity. *Hooker.*—

All things without, which round about we see,
 We seek to know, and have *therewith* to do.

Davies.
Therewith at last he forc'd him to unite
 One of his grasping feet, him to defend *therewith*.

Spenser.

2. Immediately.

* *THEREWITHAL.* *adv.* [*there and withal*] 1. Over and above.—

Therewithal the execrable act
 On their late murder'd king they aggravate. *Daniel.*

2. At the same time.—

Well, give her that ring, and give *therewithal* That letter. *Shak.*

3. With that.—

His hideous tail then hurled he about,
 And *therewithal* enwrapt the nimble thighs
 Of his froth-foamy steed. *Spenser.*

4. The compounds of *there* meaning *that*, and of *bere* meaning *this*, have been for some time passing out of use, and are no longer found in elegant writings, or in any other than formulaary pieces.

THERIACA ANDROMACHI, a compound medicine made in the form of an electuary. See *PHARMACY*, *Index*.

* *THERIACAL.* *adj.* [*θηριακα*; from *theriaca*, Latin.] Medicinal; physical.—The virtuous bezoar is taken from the beast that feedeth upon the mountains, where there are *theriacal* herbs. *Bacon.*

THERITAS, a surname of Mars, in Laconia.

(1.) *THERMA*, an ancient town of Africa.
 (2.) *THERMA*, a town of Macedonia, afterwards called *THESSALONICA*, in honour of the sister of Alexander the Great.

(1.) *THERMÆ*, hot baths or bagnios. Luxury and extravagance were in nothing carried to such heights as in the thermæ of the Roman emperors. Ammian complains, that they were built to such an extent as to equal whole provinces; from which Valerius would abate, by reading *piscine* instead of *provincie*. And yet after all, the remains of some still standing are sufficient testimonies for Ammian's censure; and the accounts transmitted of their ornaments and furniture, such as being laid with precious stones (*Seneca*), set round with seats of solid silver (*Pliny*), with pipes and cisterns of the same metal (*Statius*), add to, rather than take from, the censure. The most remarkable bagnios were those of Dioclesian and Caracalla at Rome, great part of which remain at this

this day; the lofty arches, stately pillars, variety of foreign marble, curious vaulting of the roofs, great number of spacious apartments, all attract the curiosity of the traveller. They had also their summer and winter baths.

(2.) *THERMÆ SELINUNTÆ*, an ancient town of Sicily, near Selinus, famous for its hot baths; now called *Sciacta*. See *SCIACCA*.

THERMÆUS SINUS, a bay of Macedon, on the coast of *THERMA* of Thessalonica, afterwards called *Sinus Macedonicus*. *Strabo*.

THERMI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in *Natalia*; 24 miles N. of Bursa.

(1.) *THERMIA*, an island in the Grecian Archipelago, so called from its abounding with hot springs; S. of the isle of *Zia*, and N. of *Serfanto*, near the Gulf of *Engia*. It is 12 miles long, and 5 broad. The soil is fertile and well cultivated; producing vines, (of which good wine is made,) barley, figs, cotton trees, and mulberry trees, on which are bred great numbers of silk-worms, which produce a great deal of silk. Bees, honey and wax, also abound; and partridges are so numerous, that they may be got almost gratis. The people, who are Greek Christians, are about 16,000.

(2.) *THERMIA*, an ancient city, capital of the above island, anciently very extensive and splendid; and still pretty large, abounding with many beautiful relics of its former grandeur. It is a bishop's see; and has a great trade in silk, wax, honey, &c. It is seated on the S. coast. Lon. 24. 50. E. Lat. 17. 31. N.

THERMIDOR, the 11th month in the new French Calendar. It begins on the 19th July, and ends on the 17th August. See *CALENDAR*, § 3.

(1.) *THERMODON*, a river of ancient *Bœotia*, near *Tanagra*, called also *Hæmon*. *Strabo* II.

(2.) *THERMODON*, or } a river of Cappadocia,
THERMODON, } in the country of the
Amazons; running into the *Euxine* Sea, near *Thermicyra*. It is now called *TERMEH*.

THERMO-LAMP, *n. s.* a late French invention for affording a brilliant light at a small expense, of which we gave a hint under the article *HYDROGENE GAS*. It has since been much improved by a Mr *Murdoch*, and by Messrs *Bolton* and *Watt*, and has been found to succeed completely after repeated trials, by different persons in *Glasgow*, *Port-Glasgow*, *Greenock*, &c. The principle is, that in submitting coals, wood, &c. to what is called *distillation*, a certain inflammable gas comes over, which readily burns, when a lighted match is applied to it. The instrument is thus used. An iron vessel, (if of a conical shape, with the base of the cone uppermost, so much the better), capable of containing one gallon and a half, has a lid adapted to an opening in the top of it, above five inches diameter. The lid must fit it closely, so as to allow no air to escape; and in order to keep it from being blown off, a neck should be attached to the vessel which I shall call the pot, and a cross beam should be connected to this neck at the one side, and by a joint at the other. From one corner of this pot a ground iron tube must issue at least one foot; and joined to this is another tube, made of iron, brass, lead, tin,

or white iron, which terminates in a small caulk, having one end out, and inverted in a vessel of water. From the end of the inverted vessel fix a tube, which you may convey where you please, either to a window, counter, or table; and let this last tube terminate in a number of small holes. The instrument is now fit for use. Place the pot on a common fire, and put into it about six pound weight of coals. Allow the lid to remain open till all the watery moisture is exhaled from the coals; then shut down the lid, and fix it. The air now rushes through the tube, and is washed from all impurities by the water, and then passing through the water, escapes by the window or counter tube. Set fire to it as it issues from the small holes, and it will burn with great splendor. The number of lights will be determined by the number of holes; and there is no danger from this apparatus whatever—By turning a stop-cock attached to the tubes, or by withdrawing the fire, it can be put out in an instant—It has not yet been accurately determined how long such a quantity of coals will afford a sufficiency of light for an ordinary sized shop; but it is probable, from the trials that have been made, that eight or ten pounds of coals will serve for six hours.

(1.) * *THERMOMETER*, *n. s.* [*thermometre*, Fr. *thermomètre* and *mesure*.] An instrument for measuring the heat of the air, or of any matter.—The greatest heat is about two in the afternoon, when the sun is past the meridian, as is evident from the thermometer. *Brown*.

(2.) *THERMOMETER*, ACCOUNT OF THE DISCOVERY OF THE. The thermometer was invented about the beginning of the 17th century; but, like many other useful inventions, it has been found impossible to ascertain to whom the honour of it belongs. *Boerhaave* ascribes it to *Cornelius Drebbel* of *Alcmaer*, his own countryman. *Fulgenzio* attributes it to his master *Paul Sarpi*, the great oracle of the Venetian republic; and *Viviani* gives the honour of it to *Galileo*. But all these are posthumous claims. *Sanctorio* claims this honour to himself; and his assertion is corroborated by *Borelli* and *Malpighi*, of the *Florentine* academy, whose partiality is not to be suspected in favour of a member of the *Patavina* school. Perhaps the best way to reconcile these different claims would be, to suppose that the thermometer was really invented by different persons about the same time.

(3.) *THERMOMETER*, AIR. The first form of this instrument for measuring the degrees of heat and cold, was the *air* thermometer. It is a well known fact, that air expands with heat so as to occupy more space than it does when cold, and that it is condensed by cold so as to occupy less space than when warmed, and that this expansion and condensation is greater or less according to the degree of heat or cold applied. The principle then on which the air thermometer was constructed is very simple. The air was confined in a tube by means of some coloured liquor; the liquor rose or fell according as the air became expanded or condensed. What the first form of the tube was, cannot now perhaps be well known, but the following description of the air thermometer will fully explain its nature. The air thermometer

mometer consists of a glass tube BE, *Plate 333. Fig. 1.* connected at one end with a large glass ball A, and at the other end immersed in an open vessel, or terminating in a ball DE, with a narrow orifice at D; which vessel, or ball, contains any coloured liquor that will not easily freeze. Aquafortis tinged of a fine blue colour with a solution of vitriol or copper, or spirit of wine tinged with cochineal, will answer this purpose. But the ball A must be first moderately warmed, so that a part of the air contained in it may be expelled through the orifice D; and then the liquor pressed by the weight of the atmosphere will enter the ball DE, and rise, for example, to the middle of the tube at C, at a mean temperature of the weather; and in this state the liquor by its weight, and the air included in the ball A, &c. by its elasticity, will counterbalance the weight of the atmosphere. As the surrounding air becomes warmer, the air in the ball and upper part of the tube, expanding by heat, will drive the liquor into the lower ball, and consequently its surface will descend; on the contrary, as the ambient air becomes colder, that in the ball is condensed, and the liquor pressed by the weight of the atmosphere will ascend: so that the liquor in the tube will ascend or descend more or less according to the state of the air contiguous to the instrument. To the tube is affixed a scale of the same length, divided upwards and downwards from the middle C into 100 equal parts, by means of which the ascent and descent of the liquor in the tube, and consequently the variations in the cold or heat of the atmosphere, may be observed. This instrument was extremely defective; for the air in the tube was not only affected by the heat and cold of the atmosphere, but also by its weight.

(4.) THERMOMETER, ALCOHOL. The air being found improper for measuring with accuracy the variations of heat and cold according to the form of the thermometer which was first adopted, another fluid was proposed about the middle of the 17th century, by the Florentine academy. This fluid was *spirit of wine*, or ALCOHOL, as it is now generally named. The alcohol being coloured, was inclosed in a very fine cylindrical glass tube previously exhausted of its air, having a hollow ball at one end A, and hermetically sealed at the other end D. The ball and tube are filled with rectified spirit of wine to a convenient height, as to C, when the weather is of a mean temperature, which may be done by inverting the tube into a vessel of stagnant coloured spirit, under a receiver of the air-pump, or in any other way. When the thermometer is properly filled, the end D is heated red hot with a lamp, and then hermetically sealed, leaving the included air of about one third of its natural density, to prevent the air which is in the spirit from dividing it in its expansion. To the tube is applied a scale, divided from the middle, into 100 equal parts, upwards and downwards. As spirit of wine is capable of a very considerable degree of rarefaction and condensation by heat and cold, when the heat of the atmosphere increases, the spirit dilates, and consequently rises in the tube; and when the heat decreases, the spirit descends, and the degree or quantity of the motion is shown by a scale. The

alcohol thermometer was not subject to some of the inconveniences which attended the air thermometer. In particular, it was not affected by variations in the weight of the atmosphere: accordingly it soon came into general use among philosophers. It was, at an early period, introduced into Britain by Mr Boyle. To this instrument, as then used, there are, however, many objections. The liquor was of different degrees of strength, and therefore different tubes filled with it, when exposed to the same degree of heat, would not correspond. There was also another defect: The scale which was adjusted to the thermometer did not commence at any fixed point. The highest term was adjusted to the great sunshine heats of Florence, which are too variable and undetermined; and frequently the workman formed the scale according to his own fancy. While the thermometer laboured under such disadvantages, it could not be of general use.

(5.) THERMOMETER, ATTEMPTS TO IMPROVE THE. To obtain some fixed unalterable point by which a determined scale might be discovered, to which all thermometers might be accurately adjusted, was the subject which next drew the attention of philosophers. Mr BOYLE, who seems at an early period to have studied this subject with much anxiety, proposed the freezing of the essential oil of anniseeds as a convenient point for graduating thermometers; but this opinion he soon laid aside. Dr HALLEY next proposed that thermometers should be graduated in a deep pit under ground, where the temperature both in winter and summer is pretty uniform; and that the point to which the spirit of wine should rise in such a subterraneous place should be the point from which the scale should commence. But this proposal was evidently attended with such inconveniences, that it was soon abandoned. He made experiments on the boiling point of water, of mercury, and of spirit of wine: and he seems rather to give a preference to the spirit of wine. (See *Phil. Trans. Abr. II. 34.*) He objected to the freezing of water as a fixed point, because he thought that it admitted of considerable latitude.

(6.) THERMOMETER, DISCOVERY OF SIR ISAAC NEWTON RESPECTING THE. It seems to have been referred to the all-conquering genius of Sir Isaac Newton to determine this important point, on which the accuracy and value of the thermometer depends. He chose, as fixed, those points at which water freezes and boils; the very points which the experiments of succeeding philosophers have determined to be the most fixed and convenient. Sensible of the disadvantages of spirit of wine, he tried another liquor which was homogeneous enough, capable of a considerable rarefaction about 15 times greater than spirit of wine. This was linseed oil. It has not been observed to freeze even in very great colds, and it bears a heat about four times that of water before it boils. With these advantages it was made use of by Sir Isaac Newton, who discovered by it the comparative degree of heat for boiling water, melting wax, boiling spirit of wine, and melting tin; beyond which it does not appear that this thermometer was applied. The method he used for adjusting the scale of this oil thermometer was as follows:

Supporting

Supposing the bulb, when immersed in thawing snow, to contain 10,000 parts, he found the oil expand by the heat of the human body so as to take up one 39th more space, or 10'356 such parts; and by the heat of water boiling strongly, 10'725; and by the heat of melting tin, 11'516. So that reckoning the freezing point as a common limit between heat and cold, he began his scale there, marking it 0, and the heat of the human body he made 12°; and consequently, the degrees of heat being proportional to the degrees of rarefaction, or 256 : 725 :: 12 : 34, this number 34 will express the heat of boiling water; and by the same rule, 72 that of melting tin. This thermometer was constructed in 1701. But to the application of oil as a measure of heat and cold, there are insuperable objections. It is so *viscid*, that it adheres too strongly to the sides of the tube. On this account it ascends and descends too slowly in case of a sudden heat or cold. In a sudden cold, so great a portion remains adhering to the sides of the tube after the rest has subsided, that the surface appears lower than the corresponding temperature of the air requires. An oil thermometer is therefore not a proper measure of heat and cold.

(7.) THERMOMETER, FARTHER IMPROVEMENTS OF THE. All the thermometers hitherto proposed were liable to many inconveniences, and could not be considered as exact standards for pointing out the various degrees of temperature. This led Reaumur to attempt a new one, an account of which was published in 1730 in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences. This thermometer was made with spirit of wine. He took a large ball and tube, the dimensions and capacities of which were known; he then graduated the tube, so that the space from one division to another might contain 1000th part of the liquor; the liquor containing 1000 parts when it stood at the freezing point. He adjusted the thermometer to the freezing point by an artificial congelation of water; then putting the ball of his thermometer and part of the tube into boiling water, he observed whether it rose 80 divisions: if it exceeded these, he changed his liquor, and by adding water lowered it, till upon trial it should just rise 80 divisions; or if the liquor, being too low, fell short of 80 divisions, he raised it by adding rectified spirit to it. The liquor thus prepared suited his purpose, and served for making a thermometer of any size, whose scale would agree with his standard. This thermometer was far from being perfect. As the bulbs were three or four inches in diameter, the surrounding ice would be melted before its temperature could be propagated to the whole spirits in the bulb, and consequently the

freezing point would be marked higher than it should be. Dr Martine accordingly found, that instead of coinciding with the 32d degree of Fahrenheit, it corresponded with the 34th, or a point a little above it. Reaumur committed a mistake also respecting the boiling point; for he thought that the spirit of wine, whether weak or strong, when immersed in boiling water, received the same degree of heat with the boiling water. But it is well known that highly rectified spirit of wine cannot be heated much beyond the 175th degree of Fahrenheit, while boiling water raises the quicksilver 37 degrees higher. There is another thermometer that goes by the name of *Reaumur's*, which shall be afterwards described. At length a different fluid was proposed, by which thermometers could be made free from most of the defects hitherto mentioned. This fluid was mercury, and seems first to have occurred to Dr HALLEY in the 17th century; but was not adopted by him on account of its having a smaller degree of expansibility than the other fluids used at that time. Boerhaave says that the mercurial thermometer was first constructed by Olaus ROEMER; but the honour of this invention is generally given to FAHRENHEIT of Amsterdam, who presented an account of it to the Royal Society of London in 1724. That we may judge the more accurately of the propriety of employing mercury, we will compare its qualities with those of the fluids already mentioned, air, alcohol, and oil. Air is the most expansible fluid, but it does not receive nor part with its heat so quickly as mercury. Alcohol does not expand much by heat. In its ordinary state it does not bear a much greater heat than 175° of Fahrenheit; but when highly rectified it can bear a greater degree of cold than any other liquor hitherto employed as a measure of temperature. At Hudson's Bay, Mr Macnab, by a mixture of vitriolic acid and snow, made it to descend to 69 below 0 of Fahrenheit. There is an inconvenience, however, attending the use of this liquor; it is not possible to get it always of the same degree of strength. As to oil, its expansion is about 15 times greater than that of alcohol; it sustains a heat of 600°, and its freezing point is so low that it has not been determined; but its viscosity renders it useless. Mercury is far superior to alcohol and oil, and is much more manageable than air. 1. As far as the experiments already made can determine, it is of all the fluids hitherto employed in the construction of thermometers, that which measures most exactly equal differences of heat by equal differences of its bulk: its dilations are in fact very nearly proportional to the augmentations of heat applied to it†. 2. Of all liquids it is the most easily freed from air.

† We have affirmed that the expansions of the bulk of quicksilver by heat are nearly (for they are not strictly so) in a regular arithmetical progression, according to the quantity of heat it is exposed to; and such seems to be the case according to the Table published by M. de Luc, at page 309. of his first volume on the Modifications of the Atmosphere. The following extract of this table shows these variations; and the first and second differences are added, in order to render these irregularities more sensible. They are such as can hardly be conceived from the nature of any substance, without the influence of extraneous and accidental causes, which may have escaped the attention of the observer; neither have they been found exactly true by Dr Crawford. M. de Luc supposes the whole heat from melting ice to that of boiling water to be divided into 80 parts; by the fractional subdivisions of which he expresses the absolute quantities of heat, answering to each 5, or 10 degrees of.

3. It is fitted to measure high degrees of heat and cold. It sustains a heat of 600° of Fahrenheit's scale, and does not congeal till it fall 39 or 40 degrees below 0. 4. It is the most sensible of any fluid to heat and cold, even air not excepted. Sir Benjamin Thompson, now Count Rumford, found that mercury was heated from the freezing to the boiling point in 58 seconds, while water took two minutes 13 seconds, and common air 10 minutes and 27 seconds. 5. Mercury is a homogeneous fluid, and every portion of it is equally dilated or contracted by equal variations of heat. Any one thermometer made of pure mercury is, *ceteris paribus*, possessed of the same properties with every other thermometer made of pure mercury. Its power of expansion is indeed about six times less than that of spirit of wine, but it is great enough to answer most of the purposes for which a thermometer is wanted.

(8.) THERMOMETER, FIXED POINTS, RULES, AND TABLES, FOR ADJUSTING THE. The fixed points which are now universally chosen for adjusting thermometers to a scale, and to one another, are the boiling and freezing water points. The boiling water point, it is well known, is not an invariable point, but varies some degrees according to the weight and temperature of the atmosphere. In an exhausted receiver, water will boil with a heat of 98° or 100°; whereas in Papin's digester it will acquire a heat of 412. Hence it appears that water will boil at a lower point, according to its height in the atmosphere, or to the weight of the column of air which presses upon it. In order to insure uniformity, therefore, in the construction of thermometers, it is now agreed that the bulb of the tube be plunged in the water when it boils violently, the barometer standing at 30 English inches (which is its mean height round London), and the temperature of the atmosphere 55°. A thermometer made in this way, with its boiling point at 212°, is called by Dr Horsley *Bird's Fahrenheit*, because Mr Bird was the first person who attended to the state of the barometer in constructing thermometers. As artists may be often obliged to adjust thermometers under very different pressures of the atmosphere, philosophers have been at pains to discover a general rule which might be applied on all occasions. M. de Luc, in his *Recherches sur les Mod. de l'Atmosphere* from a serie of experiments, has given an equation for the allowance on account of this difference, in Paris measure, which has been verified by Sir George Schuckburgh; also Dr Horsley,

Dr Maskelyne, and Sir George Schuckburgh, have adapted the equation and rules to English measures, and have reduced the allowances into tables for the use of the artist. Dr Horsley's rule, deduced from De Luc's is this:

$$\frac{99}{8990000} \text{ logs. } x - 92.804 = h.$$

where h denotes the height of a thermometer plunged in boiling water, above the point of melting ice, in degrees of Bird's Fahrenheit, and x the height of the barometer in 10ths of an inch. From this rule he has computed the following table, for finding the heights, to which a good Bird's Fahrenheit will rise when plunged in boiling water, in all states of the barometer, from 27 to 31 English inches; which will serve, among other uses, to direct instrument-makers in making a true allowance for the effect of the variation of the barometer, if they should be obliged to finish a thermometer at a time when the barometer is above or below 30 inches; though it is best to fix the boiling point when the barometer is at that height.

Equation of the Boiling Point.

Barometer.	Equation.	Difference.
31.0	+ 1.56	0.78
30.5	+ 0.79	0.79
30.0	0.00	0.80
29.5	— 0.80	0.81
29.0	— 1.62	0.82
28.5	— 2.45	0.83
28.0	— 3.31	0.85
27.5	— 4.16	0.86
27.0	— 5.04	0.88

The numbers in the first column of this table express heights of the quicksilver in the barometer in English inches and decimal parts: the second column shows the equation to be applied, according to the sign prefixed, to 212° of Bird's Fahrenheit, to find the true boiling point for every such state of the barometer. The boiling point for all intermediate states of the barometer may be had with sufficient accuracy, by taking proportional parts, by means of the third column of differences of the equations. See *Phil. Trans.* lxiv. art. 30; also Dr Maskelyne's *Paper*, vol. lxiv. art. 20.— In the following table we have the result of 15 different observations made by Sir George Schuckburgh compared with the result of M. de Luc's rules.

R r

Height

of Reaumur's thermometer (= 21.5 of Fahrenheit's scale); so that the whole sum of these fractions amounts exactly to the assumed number 80. They are as follow:

Reaumur's Thermometer.	Fahrenheit's Thermometer.	Quantities of heat.	First differences.	Second differences.
Degrees 80	212			
70	189.5	9.44	.16	
60	167	9.60	.10	+ .06
50	144.5	9.70	.16	— .06
40	122	9.86	.22	— .06
30	99.5	10.08	.12	+ .10
20	77	10.20	.18	— .06
10	54.5	10.38	.56	— .18
0	32	10.74		

Height of Barometer reduced to the same temperature of 30°.	Mean boiling Point by Observation.	Boiling Point by De Luc's Rules.	Height of Barometer.	Boiling Point by Observation.	Boiling Point by De Luc's Rules.
Inch.	°	°	Inch.	°	°
26.498	107.07	108.54	30.008	213.22	213.47
27.141	108.64	108.84	30.207	213.58	213.79
27.954	109.87	110.03	30.489	214.15	214.23
28.377	110.50	110.81	30.761	214.37	214.65
28.699	111.27	111.34	30.847	214.83	214.79
28.898	111.50	111.67	30.957	214.96	214.96
28.999	111.60	111.85			
29.447	112.55	112.74			
29.895	112.95	113.15			

Sir George Shuckburgh has also subjoined the following general table for the use of artists in constructing the thermometer, both according to his own observations and those of M. de Luc.

Height of the Barometer.	Correct. of the boiling point.	Difference.	Correct. according to M. de Luc.	Difference.
	°		°	
26.0	— 7.09	.91	— 6.83	.90
26.5	— 6.18	.91	— 5.93	.89
27.0	— 5.27	.90	— 5.04	.88
27.5	— 4.37	.89	— 4.16	.87
28.0	— 3.48	.89	— 3.31	.86
28.5	— 2.59	.87	— 2.45	.83
29.0	— 1.72	.87	— 1.52	.84
29.5	— 0.85	.85	— 0.80	.80
30.0	0.00	.85	0.00	.79
30.5	+ 0.85	.84	+ 0.79	.78
31.0	+ 1.69		+ 1.57	

(9.) THERMOMETER, IMPROVEMENTS ON THE, PROPOSED BY THE ROYAL SOCIETY. The Royal Society, fully apprised of the importance of adjusting the fixed point of thermometers, appointed a committee of seven gentlemen to consider of the best method for this purpose; and their report is published in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxvii. part ii. art. 37. They observed, that though the boiling point be placed so much higher on some of the thermometers now made than on others, yet this does not produce any considerable error in the observations of the weather, at least in this climate; for an error of $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ in the position of the boiling point, will make an error only of half a degree in the position of 92° and of not more than a quarter of a degree in the point of 62° . It is only in nice experiments, or in trying the heat of hot liquors, that this error in the boiling point can be of much importance. In adjusting the freezing as well as the boiling point, the quicksilver in the tube ought to be kept of the same heat as that in the ball. When the freezing point is placed at a considerable distance from the ball, the pounded ice should be piled to such a height above the ball, that the error which can arise from the quicksilver in the remaining part of the

tube, not being heated equally with that in the ball, shall be very small, or the observed point must be corrected on that account according to the following table:

Heat of Air.	Correction.
42°	.00087
52	.00174
62	.00261
72	.00348
82	.00435

The correction in this table is expressed in 1000th parts of the distance between the freezing point and the surface of the ice: e.g. if the freezing point stands seven inches above the surface of the ice, and the heat of the room is 62, the point of 32° should be placed $7 \times .00261$, or .018 of an inch lower than the observed point. A diagonal scale will facilitate this correction. The committee observe, that in trying the heat of liquors, care should be taken that the quicksilver in the tube of the thermometer be heated to the same degree as that in the ball; or if this cannot be done conveniently, the observed heat should be corrected on that account; for the manner of doing which, and a table calculated for this purpose, we must refer to their excellent report in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxvii. part ii. art. 37. With regard to the choice of tubes, they ought to be exactly cylindrical. But though the diameter should vary a little, it is easy to manage that matter in the manner proposed by the Abbé Nollet by making a small portion of the quicksilver, e.g. as much as fills up an inch or half an inch, slide backward and forward in the tube; and thus to find the proportions of all its inequalities, and thence to adjust the divisions to a scale of the most perfect equality. The capillary tubes are preferable to others, because they require smaller bulbs, and they are also more sensible, and less brittle. The most convenient size for common experiments has the internal diameter about the 40th or 50th of an inch, about 9 inches long, and made of thin glass, that the rise and fall of the mercury may be better seen. The next thing to be considered, is of what number of degrees or divisions the scale ought to consist, and from what point it ought to commence. As the number of the divisions of the scale is an arbitrary matter, the scales which have been employed differ much from one another in this circumstance. Fahrenheit has made 180 degrees between the freezing and boiling water point. Amontons made 73, and Sir Isaac Newton only 34. There is, however, one general maxim, which ought to be observed: That such an arithmetical number should be chosen as can easily be divided and subdivided, and that the number of divisions should be so great that there shall seldom be occasion for fractions. The number 80 chosen by Reaumur answers extremely well in this respect because it can be divided by several figures without leaving a remainder; but it is too small a number: the consequence of which is, that the degrees are placed at too great a distance from one another, and fractions must therefore be often employed. We think, therefore, that 160 would have been a more convenient number. Fahrenheit's

heit's number 180 is large enough, but when divided its quotient soon becomes an odd number. As to the point at which the scale ought to commence, various opinions have been entertained. If we knew the beginning or lowest degree of heat, all philosophers would agree, that the lowest point of the thermometer ought to be fixed there; but we know neither the lowest nor the highest degrees of heat; we observe only the intermediate parts. All that we can do then, is to begin it at some invariable point, to which thermometers made in different places may easily be adjusted. If possible too, it ought to be a point at which a natural well known body receives some remarkable change from the effects of heat or cold. Fahrenheit began his scale at the point at which snow and salt congeal. Kirwan proposes the freezing point of mercury. Sir Isaac Newton, Hales, and Reaumur adopted the freezing point of water. The objection to Fahrenheit's lowest point is, that it commences at an artificial cold never known in nature, and to which we cannot refer our feelings, for it is what few can ever experience. There would be several great advantages gained, we allow, by adopting the freezing point of mercury. It is the lowest degree of cold to which mercury can be applied as a measure; and it would render unnecessary the use of the signs plus and minus, and the extension of the scale below 0. But we object to it, that it is not a point well known; for few, comparatively speaking, who use thermometers, can have an opportunity of seeing mercury congealed. As to the other advantage to be gained by adopting the freezing point of mercury, namely, the abolition of negative numbers, we do not think it would counterbalance the advantage to be enjoyed by using a well-known point. Besides, it may be asked, Is there not a propriety in using negative numbers to express the degree of cold, which is a negative thing? Heat and cold we can only judge of by our feelings: the point then at which the scale should commence, ought to be a point which can form to us a standard of heat and cold; a point familiar to us, from being one of the most remarkable that occurs in nature, and therefore a point to which we can with most clearness and precision refer to in our minds on all occasions. This is the freezing point of water chosen by Sir Isaac Newton, which of all the general changes produced in nature by cold is the most remarkable. It is therefore the most convenient point for the thermometers to be used in the temperate and frigid zones; we may say over the globe, for even in the hottest countries of the torrid zone many of the mountains are perpetually covered with snow.

(10.) THERMOMETERS, GENERALLY USED. Having now explained the principles of the thermometer as fully as appears necessary to make it properly understood, we will now subjoin an account of those thermometers which are at present in most general use. These are Fahrenheit's, De l'Isle's, Reaumur's, and Celsius's. Fahrenheit's is used in Britain, De l'Isle's in Russia, Reaumur's in France, and Celsius's in Sweden. They are all mercurial thermometers.

I. THERMOMETER, CELSIUS'S, which is used

in Sweden, has a scale of 100 degrees from the freezing to the boiling water point.

(ii.) THERMOMETER, DE L'ISLES. In 1733, M. De l'Isle of Peterburgh constructed a mercurial thermometer on the principles of Reaumur's spirit thermometer. See Plate CCCXXXV. In his thermometer, the whole bulk of quicksilver, when immersed in boiling water, is conceived to be divided into 100,000 parts; and from this one fixed point the various degrees of heat, either above or below it, are marked in these parts on the tube or scale, by the various expansion or contraction of the quicksilver, in all imaginable varieties of heat.—Dr Martine apprehends it would have been better if De l'Isle had made the integer 100,000 parts, or fixed point, at freezing water, and from thence computed the dilations or condensations of the quicksilver in those parts; as all the common observations of the weather, &c. would have been expressed by numbers increasing as the heat increased, instead of decreasing, or counting the contrary way. However, in practice it will not be very easy to determine exactly all the divisions from the alteration of the bulk of the contained fluid. And besides, as glass itself is dilated by heat, though in a less proportion than quicksilver, it is only the excess of the dilatation of the contained fluid above that of the glass that is observed; and therefore, if different kinds of glass be differently affected by a given degree of heat, this will make a seeming difference in the dilations of the quicksilver in the thermometers constructed in the Newtonian method. Either by Reaumur's rules or De l'Isles, thermometers have stood at different degrees of the scale when immersed in thawing snow: having stood in some at 154°, while in others it has been at 156° or even 158°.

iii. THERMOMETER, DE LUC'S, OR REAUMUR'S. The thermometer now used in France is called *Reaumur's*; but it is very different from the one originally invented by Reaumur in 1730, and described in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences. The one invented by Reaumur was filled with spirit of wine; and though its scale was divided by the author into 80 parts, of which 0 was the freezing point and 80 the boiling water point, yet in fact 80 was only the boiling point of the spirit of wine that he employed, which, as Dr Martine computes, corresponded with 180 of Fahrenheit. But the thermometer now used in France is filled with mercury; and the boiling water point, which is at 80, corresponds with the 212th degree of Fahrenheit. The scale indeed commences at the freezing point, as the old one did. The new thermometer ought more properly to be called *De Luc's thermometer*, for it was first made by De Luc; and is in fact as different from Reaumur's as it is from Sir Isaac Newton's. When De Luc had fixed the scale, and finished an account of it, he showed the MS. to M. De la Condamine. Condamine advised him to change the number 80; remarking, that such was the inattention of physicians, that they would probably confound it with Reaumur's. De Luc's modesty, as well as a predilection for the number 80, founded, as he thought, on philosophical reasons, made

made him decline following this advice. But he found by experience that the prediction of Condamine was too well founded.

iv. THERMOMETER, FAHRENHEIT's, consists of a slender cylindrical tube and a small longitudinal bulb. To the side of the tube is annexed a scale which Fahrenheit divided into 600 parts, beginning with that of the severe cold which he had observed in Iceland in 1709, or that produced by surrounding the bulb of the thermometer with a mixture of snow or beaten ice and sal ammoniac or sea salt. This he apprehended to be the greatest degree of cold, and accordingly he marked it, as the beginning of his scale, with 0; the point at which mercury begins to boil, he conceived to show the greatest degree of heat; and this he made the limit of his scale. The distance between these two points he divided into 600 equal parts or degrees; and by trials, he found that the mercury stood at 32 of these divisions, when water just begins to freeze, or snow or ice just begins to thaw; it was therefore called the degree of the freezing point. When the tube was immersed in boiling water, the mercury rose to 212, which therefore is the boiling point, and is just 180 degrees above the former or freezing point. But the present methods of making the scale of these thermometers, which is the sort in most common use, is first to immerse the bulb of the thermometer in ice or snow just beginning to thaw, and mark the place where the mercury stands with a 32; then immerse it in boiling water, and again mark the place where the mercury stands in the tube, which mark with the num. 212, exceeding the former by 180; dividing therefore the intermediate space into 180 equal parts, will give the scale of the thermometer, and which may afterwards be continued upwards and downwards at pleasure. Other thermometers of a similar construction have been accommodated to common use, having but a portion of the above scale. They have been made of a small size and portable form, and adapted with appendages to particular purposes; and the tube with its annexed scale has often been enclosed in another thicker glass tube, also hermetically sealed, to preserve the thermometer from injury. And all these are called *Fahrenheit's thermometers*.

v. THERMOMETER, KEITH's. A new self-registering thermometer has more lately been invented by Mr Keith of Ravelstone, which we consider as the most ingenious, simple, and perfect, of any which has hitherto appeared. Its simplicity is so great, that it requires only a very short description to make it intelligible. AB, Fig. 7. Plate CCCXXXIV. is a thin glass tube about 14 inches long and $\frac{3}{16}$ ths of an inch caliber, close or hermetically sealed at top. To the lower end, which is open, there is joined the crooked glass tube BE, seven inches long, and $\frac{1}{8}$ th of an inch caliber, and open at top. The tube AB is filled with the strongest spirit of wine, and the tube BE with mercury. This is properly a spirit of wine thermometer, and the mercury is used merely to support a piece of ivory or glass, to which is affixed a wire for raising one index or depressing another, according as the mercury rises or falls. E is a small conical piece of ivory or glass, of

such a weight as to float on the surface of the mercury. To the float is joined a wire called the *float-wire*, which reaches upwards to H, where it terminates in a knee bent at right angles. The float-wire, by means of an eye at a, moves easily along the small harpsichord wire GK. LL are two indexes made of thin black oiled silk, which slide upwards or downwards with a force not more than two grains. The one placed above the knee points out the greatest rise, and the one placed below it points out the greatest fall, of the thermometer. When the instrument is to be prepared for an observation, both indexes are to be brought close to the knee H. It is evident, that when the mercury rises, the float and float-wire, which can be moved with the smallest force, will be pushed upwards till the mercury become stationary. As the knee of the float-wire moves upwards it will carry along with it the upper index L. When the mercury again subsides, it leaves the index at the highest point to which it was raised, for it will not descend by its own weight: As the mercury falls the float-wire does the same; it therefore brings along with it the lower index L, and continues to depress it till it again become stationary or ascend in the tube; in which case it leaves the lower index behind it as it had formerly left the upper. The scale to which the indexes point is placed parallel to the harpsichord wire. It may be seen more distinctly in fig. 8. Pl. 334. That the scale and indexes may not be injured by the wind and rain, a cylindrical glass cover, close at top, and made so as to exactly fit the part FG, is placed over it. The ingenious inventor has another improvement in contemplation, which, if upon trial it be found to answer, will make this thermometer as perfect as can be desired, provided there do not arise some errors from the variable pressure of the atmosphere. He proposes to adopt clock work to this thermometer, in such a way as to register with the utmost precision the degrees of heat and cold for every month, day, and minute in the year. The same ingenious gentleman has invented a self-registering barometer, upon the same principles with his self-registering thermometer. M. De Luc has described the best method of constructing a thermometer, fit for determining the temperature of the air, in the mensuration of heights by the barometer. He has also shown how to divide the scale of a thermometer, so as to adapt it for astronomical purposes in the observation of refractions. Mr Cavallo, in 1781, proposed the construction of a thermometrical barometer, which by means of boiling water might indicate the various gravity of the atmosphere, or the height of the barometer. But as he does not say that the instrument has been tried with the desired success, we need not describe it. Those who wish to know his ideas respecting it, may consult the *Philos. Transf.* vol. lxxi. p. 524.

vi. THERMOMETER, LORD CHARLES CAVALLO's. As in meteorological observations it is necessary to attend to the greatest rise and fall of the thermometer, attempts have been made to construct a thermometer which might register the greatest degree of heat, or greatest degree of cold, which took place during the absence of the observer.

server. In 1756, Lord Charles Cavendish presented to the Royal Society of London a thermometer in two different forms; the one contrived to mark the greatest degree of heat, and the other the greatest degree of cold. The first consists of a glass tube AB, Plate CCCXXXIII. fig. 3. with a cylindrical bulb B at the lower end, and capillary at the top, over which there is fixed a glass ball C. The bulb and part of the tube are filled with mercury, the top of which shows the degrees of heat as usual. The upper part of the tube above the mercury is filled with spirit of wine; the ball C is also filled with the same liquor almost to the top of the capillary tube. When the mercury rises, the spirit of wine is also raised, and falls into the ball C, which is so made that the liquor cannot return into the tube when the mercury sinks; consequently the height of the spirit of wine in the ball, added to that in the tube, will give the greatest degree of heat to which the thermometer has pointed since last observation. When a new observation is to be made, the instrument must be inclined till the liquor in the ball cover the end of the capillary tube. In this thermometer it is evident that the mercury must be affected by the weight and elasticity of the spirit of wine, and therefore it will not correspond to any of the common mercurial thermometers.—The thermometer for showing the greatest degree of cold is represented in fig. 4. Plate CCCXXXIII. by the crooked tube ABCD. This instrument is filled with spirit of wine, with the addition of as much mercury as is sufficient to fill both legs of the syphon, and about a fourth or fifth part of the hollow ball C. We are not told what the proportion of mercury was to that of spirit of wine. The degrees of heat are shown by the rise or fall of the mercury in the leg AB. The thermometer marks the greatest fall by means of the hollow ball C. When the mercury in the longer leg sinks by cold, that in the shorter will rise and run over the ball C, from which it cannot return when the mercury subsides in the shorter and rises in the longer leg. The upper part of the shorter leg will therefore be filled with a column of spirits of a length proportional to the increase of heat; the bottom or lower surface of which, by means of a proper scale, will show how much the mercury has been lower than it is; which being subtracted from the present height, will give the lowest point to which the mercury has fallen. That the thermometer may be fitted for a new observation, the mercury must be made to run back from the ball into the short leg, by inclining the tube and heating the ball.

vii. THERMOMETER, REAUMUR'S. See N° iii.

viii. THERMOMETER, RUTHERFORD'S. In 1790 a paper was given into the Royal Society of Edinburgh, describing two thermometers, newly invented by Dr John Rutherford of Middle Bailiff; the one for registering the highest, and the other for registering the lowest degree of heat to which the thermometer has risen or fallen during the absence of the observer. An account of them may be found in the 3d volume of the Transactions of the Society.

iv. THERMOMETER, SIX'S. In 1782, Mr Six proposed a self-registering thermometer, different

from Lord Charles's. It is properly a spirit of wine thermometer, though mercury is also employed for supporting an index. *a b*, Fig. 5. Pl. CCCXXXIII. is a thin tube of glass 16 inches long, and $\frac{1}{8}$ ths of an inch caliber: *c d e* and *f g b* are smaller tubes about $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch caliber. These three tubes are filled with highly rectified spirit of wine, except the space between *d* and *g*, which is filled with mercury. As the spirit of wine contracts or expands in the middle tube, the mercury falls or rises in the outside tubes. An index, such as that represented in Fig. 6. Pl. CCCXXXIII. is placed on the surface, within each of these tubes, so light as to float upon it. *k* is a small glass tube $\frac{1}{8}$ ths of an inch long, hermetically sealed at each end, and inclosing a piece of steel wire nearly of its own length. At each end, *l, m*, of this small tube, a short tube of black glass is fixed, of such a diameter as to pass freely up and down within either of the outside tubes of the thermometer *c c* and *f b*. From the upper end of the index is drawn a spring of glass to the fineness of a hair, and about $\frac{1}{4}$ ths of an inch long; which being placed a little oblique, presses lightly against the inner surface of the tube, and prevents the index from descending when the mercury descends. These indexes being inserted one into each of the outside tubes, it is easy to understand how they point out the greatest heat or cold that has happened in the observer's absence. When the spirit of wine in the middle tube expands, it presses down the mercury in the tube *h f*, and consequently raises it in the tube *c c*; consequently the index on the left hand tube is left behind, and marks the greatest cold, and the index in the right hand tube rises and marks the greatest heat.

(II.) THERMOMETERS, METHOD OF COMPARING TOGETHER. The above are the principal thermometers now used in Europe; and the temperatures indicated by any of them may be reduced into the corresponding degrees on any of the others by means of the following simple canons; in which R signifies the degrees on the scale of Reaumur, F those of Fahrenheit, and S those of the Swedish thermometer.

2. To convert the degrees of Reaumur into those of Fahrenheit; $\frac{R \times 9}{4} + 32 = F$.

2. To convert the degrees of Fahrenheit into those of Reaumur; $\frac{F - 32 \times 4}{9} = R$.

3. To convert the Swedish degrees into those of Fahrenheit; $\frac{S \times 9}{5} + 32 = F$.

4. To convert Fahrenheit's into Swedish; $F - \frac{32 \times 5}{9} = S$.

5. To convert Swedish degrees into those of Reaumur; $\frac{S \times 4}{5} = R$.

6. To convert Reaumur's degrees into Swedish; $R \times \frac{9}{4} = S$.

To such readers as are unacquainted with the algebraic expression of arithmetical formulæ, it will be sufficient to express one or two of these in words

words to explain their use.—1. Multiply the degree of Reaumur by 9, divide the product by 4, and to the quotient add 32, the sum expresses the degree on the scale of Fahrenheit.—2. From the degree of Fahrenheit subtract 32, multiply the remainder by 4, and divide the product by 9, the quotient is the degree according to the scale of Reaumur, &c. As many other thermometers have been used besides these, and consequently observations taken by them, it is of importance to have them placed in such a point of view, that they may be easily compared with any of these four now in general use. We therefore give them in *Plate 335*, in the same order as they were arranged by Dr Martine in his valuable *Essay on the Construction and Graduation of Thermometers*, and at the same time adding those of Celsius and de Luc. We call it by the name of *De Luc* for the sake of distinguishing it from Reaumur's spirit of wine thermometer, which may be seen in the same *Plate*. It is unnecessary to describe any of these more minutely, as they are no longer used. Those who wish to read a more particular account of them may consult Dr Martine's *Essays*.

(12.) THERMOMETERS, NEWTON'S AND MARTINE'S FURTHER IMPROVEMENTS OF. The thermometers above described are very limited in their extent; they indeed point out to the lowest degrees of heat which are commonly observed even in cold climates, but they by no means reach to those degrees of heat which are very familiar to us. The mercurial thermometer extends no farther than to 600 of Fahrenheit's scale, the heat of boiling mercury; but we are sure that the heat of solid bodies, when heated to ignition, or till they emit light, far exceeds the heat of boiling mercury. To remedy this defect, Sir Isaac Newton, whose genius overcame those obstacles which ordinary minds could not approach, attempted by an ingenious experiment to extend the scale to any degree required. Having heated a mass of iron red-hot, and exposed it to the cold air, he observed the time which elapsed till it became cold, or of the same temperature with the air; and when the heat so far decreased, that he could apply some known measure (as a thermometer) to it, he observed the degrees of heat lost in given times, and thence drew the general conclusion, that the quantities of heat lost in given small spaces are always proportional to the heat remaining in the body, reckoning the heat to be the excess by which it is warmer than the ambient air. So that taking the number of minutes which it took to cool after it came to a determined point in an arithmetical progression, the decrements of the heat of iron would be continually proportional. Having by this proportion found out the decrements of heat in a given time after it came to a known point, it was easy, by carrying upwards the same proportion to the beginning of its cooling, to determine the greatest heat which the body had acquired. This proportion of Sir Isaac's was found by Dr Martine to be somewhat inaccurate. The heat of a cooling body does not decrease exactly in proportion to that which the body retains. As the result of many observations, he found that two kinds of proportion took place, an arithmetical as well as the geometrical propor-

tion which Sir Isaac Newton had adopted; namely, that the decrements of heat were partly proportional to the times (that is, that quantities of heat are lost in equal times,) as well as partly in proportion to the remaining heat; and that if these two are added together the rule will be sufficiently accurate. By the geometrical proportion which Sir Isaac Newton adopted, he discovered the heat of metals red hot or in fusion.

(13.) THERMOMETERS, SELF-REGISTERING. See N^o v, vi, and ix.

X. THERMOMETER, WEDGWOOD'S IMPROVED. The method above mentioned, in § 12, so successfully pursued by Sir Isaac, was sufficient to form a scale of high degrees of heat, but was not convenient for practical purposes. Accordingly the ingenious Mr Josiah Wedgwood, who is well known for his great improvement in the art of pottery, applied himself in order to discover a thermometer which might be easily managed. After many experiments recorded in the *Philos. Trans.* but which it is unnecessary to detail here, he has invented a thermometer which marks with much precision the different degrees or ignition, from a dull red heat visible in the dark to the heat of an air furnace. This thermometer is extremely simple. It consists of two rulers fixed upon a smooth flat plate, a little farther asunder at the one end than at the other, leaving an open longitudinal space between them. Small pieces of alum and clay mixed together are made of such a size as just to enter at the wide end; they are then heated in the fire along with the body whose heat we wish to determine. The fire, according to the degree of heat it contains, diminishes or contracts the earthy body, so that when applied to the wide end of the gage, it will slide on towards the narrow end, less or more according to the degree of heat to which it has been exposed. That this instrument may be perfectly understood, we have given a representation of it in *Plate 334*, fig. 9. ABCD is a smooth flat plate; and EF and GH two rulers or flat pieces, a quarter of an inch thick, fixed flat upon the plate, with the sides that are towards one another made perfectly true, a little farther asunder at one end EG than at the other end FH: thus they include between them a long converging canal, which is divided on one side into a number of small equal parts, and which may be considered as performing the offices both of the tube and scale of the common thermometer. It is obvious, that if a body, so adjusted as to fit exactly at the wider end of this canal, be afterwards diminished in its bulk by fire, as the thermometer pieces are, it will then pass further in the canal, and more and more so according as the diminution is greater; and conversely, that if a body so adjusted as to pass on to the narrow end, be afterwards expanded by fire, as is the case with metals, and applied in that expanded state to the scale, it will not pass so far; and that the divisions on the side will be the measures of the expansions of the one, as of the contractions of the other, reckoning in both cases from that point to which the body was adjusted at first. I is the body whose alteration of bulk is thus to be measured. This is to be gently pushed or slid along towards the end FH, till it is stopped by the converging sides

sides of the canal. Mr Wedgwood at first used clay for his thermometer pieces; but he soon found it impossible to procure fresh supplies of the same quality. He therefore had recourse to an artificial preparation. As the earth of alum, or *alumina*, is the pure argillaceous earth to which all clays owe their property of diminishing in the fire, he mixed some of this earth with the clay, and found it to answer his wishes completely, both in procuring the necessary degree of diminution, and of increasing its unvitrescibility. The only way of ascertaining the proportion of alum earth to be added is by repeated trials. Mr Wedgwood found that 10 cwt. of the porcelain clay of Cornwall required all the earth that was afforded by 5 cwt. of alum. But as the clay or alum differs in quality, the proportion will also differ. There can now, however, be no difficulty in making thermometers of this kind, as common clay answers the purpose very well, and alum earth can easily be procured. Those who wish to see a more particular account of this subject may peruse Mr Wedgwood's papers in the *Philos. Trans.* for 1782, 1784, and 1786. As Mr Wedgwood's thermometer begins at the lowest degree of ignition, and Fahrenheit's goes no higher than the boiling point of mercury, Mr Wedgwood continued to fill up the interval of the scale by using a piece of silver instead of his common thermometer pieces; and that in this way he has found that 130 degrees of Fahrenheit are equal to one of his. He has accordingly, by observing this proportion, continued Fahrenheit's scale to the top of his own. We are now therefore enabled to give a scale of heat from the highest degree of heat produced by an air furnace to the greatest degree of cold hitherto known, which was produced at Hudson's Bay in Dec. 1784, by a mixture of vitriolic acid and snow. Of the remarkable degrees between these extreme points we shall lay before our readers

A SCALE.

	<i>Fahren- heit's scale.</i>	<i>Wedg- wood's scale.</i>
Extremity of Wedgwood's scale	32277°	240°
Greatest heat of his small air-furnace	21877	160
Cast iron melts	17977	130
Greatest heat of a common smith's forge	17327	125
Welding heat of iron, greatest	13427	95
least	12777	90
Fine gold melts	5237	32
Fine silver melts	4717	28
Swedish copper melts	4587	27
Brass melts	3807	21
Heat by which his enamel colours are burnt on	1857	6
Red-heat fully visible in day-light	1077	0
Red-heat fully visible in the dark	947	1
MERCURY BOILS, also linseed and other expressed oils	600	
Oil of turpentine boils	560	
Sulphuric acid boils	546	
Lead melts	540	
Bismuth melts	460	
Tin melts	408	
Sulphur melts	244	
Nitrous acid boils	212	

*Fahrenheit's
scale.*

Cows milk boils	213
WATER BOILS	212
Human urine boils	206
Brandy boils	190
Alcohol boils	174
Serum of blood and white of eggs harden	156
Bees wax melts	142
Heat of the air near Senegal sometimes	111
Hens hatch eggs about	108
Heat of birds from	103 to 111
Heat of domestic quadrupeds from	100 to 103
Heat of the human body	92 to 99
Heat of a swarm of bees	97
Heat of the ocean under the equator	80
Butter melts	74
Sulphuric acid of the specific gravity of 1780 freezes at	45
Oil of olives begins to congeal	43
Heat of hedgehogs and marmots in a torpid state	39½
WATER FREEZES and snow melts	32
Milk freezes	30
Urine and common vinegar freezes	28
Human blood freezes	25
Strong wines freeze	20
A mixture of one part of alcohol and three parts of water freezes	7
A mixture of snow and salt freezes	0 to 4
Brandy, or a mixture of equal parts of alcohol and water freezes	— 7
Spirit of wine in Reaumur's thermometer froze at Torneo	— 34
MERCURY FREEZES	— 39 or 40
Cold produced by Mr Macnab at Hudson's Bay by a mixture of vitriolic acid and snow	— 69

(1.) THERMOMETRIC, *adj.* Of or belonging to the THERMOMETER, or to the measurement of heat. See THERMOMETRICAL.

(2.) THERMOMETRIC, *n. s.* is also used by the modern French chemists, *substantively*, for the unknown principle of Heat; or Caloric. But their theory is called in question by Dr Gleig, upon facts afforded by the recent discoveries of Dr Herschel.

* THERMOMETRICAL. *adj.* [from *thermo-* meter.] Relating to the measure of heat.—His heat raises the liquor in the *thermometrical* tubes *Cheyne*.

THERMOPYLÆ, in ancient geography, a narrow pass or defile, between the Sinus Maliacus on the E. and steep mountains, reaching to Oeta, made dreadful by impassable woods, on the W.; leading from Theffaly to Locri and Bœotia. These mountains divide Greece in the middle, in the same manner as the Appenines do Italy; forming one continued ridge from Leucate on the W. to the sea on the E. with thickets and rocks interspersed; that persons even prepared for travelling, much less an army encumbered with baggage, cannot easily find a commodious passage. In the valley verging towards the Sinus Maliacus, the road is only 60 paces broad; the only military way for an army to pass, if not obstructed by an enemy; and therefore the place is called *Pylæ*, and

and by others, on account of its hot water, *Thermopylae*. It is famous for the brave stand made by LEONIDAS and 300 Spartans against the whole army of Persia; and also for the Amphyctiones, the common council or states general of Greece, assembling there twice a-year, in spring and autumn. See SPARTA, § 5.

* THERMOSCOPE. *n. f.* [*thermoscope*, French; *θερμός* and *σκοπία*.] An instrument by which the degrees of heat are discovered; a thermometer.—By the trial of the *thermoscope*, fishes have more heat than the element which they swim in. *Arab.*

THERMUM, an ancient town of Ætolia, on the Evenus. *Polyb.* 5.

THERO, or } tyrant of Agrigentum, but no
THERON, } tyrant in the modern sense. See
AGRIGENTUM, § 2; CARTHAGE, § 4; and SY-
RACUSE, § 3.

THERONDELS, a town of France, in the dep. of Aveyron, 3 miles NE. of Mur.

THEROUANNE, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, and late capital of the Morini. It was taken and demolished in 1653 by Charles V. It is 6 miles S. of St Omer, and 6 W. of Aire.

THERPANDER. See TERPANDER.

THERSANDER, a son of Polynices, and grandson of OEDIPUS, king of Thebes. He went with the Greeks to the Trojan war, and was killed by TELEPHUS. *Virg. Æn.* v.

THERSILOCHUS, a general of the Pæonians, in the Trojan war. He was killed by Achilles. *Virg. Æn.* vi.

THERSIPPUS, an Athenian dramatic writer, who died in A. A. C. 954.

THERSITES, an officer among the Greeks during the Trojan war, infamous for his scurrility, and remarkable for his deformity. He ridiculed the chief generals, particularly Agamemnon, Ulysses, and Achilles; but the latter killed him with a stroke of his fist, for ridiculing his grief for PENTHESILEA. *Hom. Il.* ii. 212.

THERVERTON, or THEVERTON, a town of England, N. of Exeter, seated on the Exeter. It is a great thoroughfare.

* THESE, *pronoun*, the plural of *this*. 1. Opposed to *those*, or to some others.—

Did we for *these* barbarians plant and sow
On *these*, on *these* our happy fields bestow?

Dryden.

2. *These* relates to the persons or things last mentioned; and *those* to the first.—More rain falls in June and July than in December and January; but it makes a much greater show upon the earth in *these* months than in *those*, because it lies longer upon it. *Woodward.*

THESEA, in antiquity, feasts celebrated by the Athenians in honour of THESEUS, consisting of sports and games, with mirth and banquets. Such as were poor and unable to contribute to them were entertained at the public expence.

THESEIDÆ, a name given the Athenians from THESEUS. *Virg. Geor.* ii. 213.

THESEUS, a famous hero of antiquity, ranked among the demi-gods. He was the son of Ægeus king of Athens. He threw Sciron, a cruel robber, down a precipice; fastened Procrustes tyrant of Attica to a bending pine, which, being let loose,

tore him afunder; killed the Minotaur kept in the labyrinth by king Minos, in Crete; and by the assistance of that prince's daughter, ARIADNE, who gave him a clue, escaped out of that labyrinth, and sailed with his deliverer to the isle of Naxos, where he had the ingratitude to leave her. Theseus afterwards overcame the Centaurs, subdued the Thebans, and defeated the Amazons. He assisted his friend PIRITHOUS in his expedition to hell to carry off Proserpine; but was imprisoned by Pluto, till he was released by Hercules. He also established the ISTHMEAN GAMES, in honour of Neptune; united the twelve cities of Attica; and founded a republic there, 1236 B. C. Some time after, taking a voyage into Epirus, he was seized by Aidonius king of the Molossians; meanwhile Menestheus rendered himself master of Athens. But at length Theseus being released from prison, retired to Scyros, where king Lycomedes caused him to be thrown from the top of a rock. Theseus had several wives; the first of whom was the beautiful Helena; the second Hippolyte, queen of the Amazons, by whom he had Hippolytus; and the last, Phædra, sister to Ariadne, who punished him for his infidelity to her sister, by her incestuous passion for his son Hippolytus. See ÆGEUS, ARIADNE, HIPPOLYTUS, MINOS, MINOTAUR, PHÆDRA, &c.

(1.) * THESIS. *n. f.* [*these*, Fr. *thesis*.] A position; something laid down, affirmatively or negatively.

An honest, but a simpler pair,

May serve to make this *thesis* clear.

Prior.

(2.) A THESIS is a general position which a person advances, and offers to maintain. In taking degrees in universities, the candidates are generally obliged to write a thesis which they must afterwards defend.

THESIUM, BASE FLUELLIN, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*. The calyx is monophyllous, with the stamina inserted into it: there is only one seed, which is inferior. There are 17 species, one of which is a British plant, viz.

THESIUM LINOPHYLLUM, or BASTARD TOAD FLAX. It has a foliaceous panicle, with linear leaves, and flowers in June and July.

* THESMOTHETE. *n. f.* [*thesmotebete*, Fr. *thesmotebete*; *θεσμός* and *τις*.] A lawgiver.

THESPIA, an ancient town of Bæotia, destroyed by the Thebans. See THEBES, N° II. § 3.

THESPIA, a famous Greek tragic poet, and the first representer of tragedy at Athens. He carried his troop from village to village in a waggon, from which they performed their pieces. *Alceus* was the first tragedy they performed at Athens, 536 B. C. See THEATRE, § 2.

THESPIUS, king of THESPYA, in Bæotia, who had 50 daughters, all of whom Hercules got with child, of sons each, in one night.

THESPROTIA, an ancient country of Epirus, on the sea-coast, on the W. of Ambracia; famous for its oracle of DODONA. It was seated between the Acheron and the Cocytus. *Hom.*

THESSALIA. See THESSALY.

(1.) THESSALIAN, *adj.* Of or from THESSALY.

(2.) THESSALIAN CHAIR, so called from *Thes-*
saly.

faly, where chairs of this figure were most in use; it is recommended by Hippocrates in place of a machine for reducing a recent luxation of a shoulder bone. The back of this chair is perpendicular to the seat, as Galen tells us: by which construction it is accommodated to the operation.

(3.) **THESSALIANS**, *n. f.* the people of **THESSALY**.

THESSALLOTIS, a province of ancient **THESSALY**, lying on the S. bank of the Peneus.

THESSALONIANS, the people of **THESSALONICA**. St Paul early planted the gospel among them, and wrote two *Epistles* to them. See *SCRIPTURE*, *Secd. X.*

(1.) **THESSALONICA**, the daughter of Philip I. king of Macedon, and sister of Alexander the Great. She was married to **CASSANDER**, and bore him 3 sons, Philip IV. Antipater and Alexander V. but she was murdered by her son Antipater. See **MACEDON**, § 17.

(2.) **THESSALONICA**, a city of Macedonia, so named from the above princess, being anciently called **THERMA**. It was once very powerful, and early received the Christian faith. It is a city of importance, and now called *Salonichi*. See **SALONICHI**.

(1.) **THESSALUS**, a son of Hercules and Caliope, the daughter of Eurypilus, who settled in **THESSALY** and gave name to it.

(2.) **THESSALUS**, a celebrated physician of Lydia, who flourished at Rome, in the reign of Nero, and came into great business among the Patricians. He adopted the system of **THEMISON**, the founder of the **METHODISTS**, and was rather more violent than Themison himself, in treating all his predecessors and contemporaries with contempt. See **MEDICINE**, § 71.

THESSALY, a country of Greece, whose boundaries have been different at different periods. It was bounded on the S. by the southern parts of Greece, or *Græcia Propria*; E. by the *Ægean*; N. by Macedonia and Mygdonia; and W. by Illyricum and Epirus. It was generally divided into four provinces, **THESSALOTIS**, **Pelagiotis**, **Mizotis**, and **Phthiotis**, to which some add *Magnæcia*. It has been severally called **ÆMONIA**, *Pelagium*, **ARGOS**, **HELLAS**, *Argeia*, *Dryopis*, **PELAGIA**, *Pyrrheia*, &c. The name of **Thessaly** is derived from **THESSALUS**, its first monarch. **Thessaly** is famous for a deluge which happened here in the age of Deucalion. Its mountains and cities are also celebrated, such as **OLYMPUS**, **PEIRON**, **Ossa**, **Larissa**, &c. The Argonauts were partly natives of **Thessaly**. The inhabitants of the country passed for a treacherous nation, so that false money was called *Thessalian coin*, and a perfidious action a *Thessalian deceit*. **Thessaly** was originally governed by kings till it became subject to the Macedonian monarchs. The cavalry was universally esteemed, and the people were superstitious and addicted to the study of magic. (*Lum. 6. v. 438, &c.; Dionys. 219; Cart. 3. c. 2; Eريان, F. H. 3. c. 1; Paus. 4. c. 36. l. 10. c. 1; Helia, 2. c. 3.; Justin 7. c. 6; Diod. 4.*) **Thessaly** is now called **JANNA**, a province of European Turkey, bounded by Macedonia on the N.; by the archipelago on the E.; by Achaia or Livadia on the S. and by Epirus on the W.

VOL. XXII. PART I.

THESTIA, a town of *Ætolia*, between the *Euenus* and *Achelous*. *Polyb. 5.*

THESTIUS, the son of Parthæon, king of Pleuron, and father of **ALTHÆA**, **Plexippus**, and **Toxens**.

THESTOR, the son of Idmon and Laothoe, and father of **CALCHAS**.

THETÆ. See **PELATÆ**.

THETFORD, a borough of England, in Norfolk, with a market on Sat. seated on the Little Ouse. The Lent assizes are held in it. It has 3 churches, a free school, and town-hall. It is governed by a mayor, 10 aldermen, and 20 counsellors. It was anciently a large city, and had 40 churches and several monasteries, but was destroyed during the wars of the Danes and Saxons. It has a good trade in wool; and is 30 miles SSE. of Lynn Regis; and 80 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 50. E. Lat. 52. 28. N.

THETHMOSIS, king of Egypt. See **EGYPT**, § 8.

THETIS, in Pagan mythology, the wife of **OCEANUS**, and the mother of **Nereus** and **Doris**, who were married to each other; and from this marriage sprung the nymphs of the earth and sea. Among the sea nymphs there was one named *Thetis the Younger*, who excelled all the rest in beauty, and for whom Jupiter conceived such a passion, that he resolved to espouse her: but being informed by the *Destinies*, that she would bring forth a son who would rise above his father, he married her to **Peleus**. To their nuptials all the gods and goddesses were invited except **Discord**, who, to be revenged for this contempt, threw a golden apple into the assembly, on which was engraven, *For the fairest*. **Juno**, **Pallas**, and **Venus**, disputed for this apple; but **Paris** being chosen to decide the difference, adjudged it to **Venus**. From this marriage of **Thetis** and **Peleus** sprung **ACHILLES**.

THEU, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege. Near it the Austrians were defeated by the French republicans in 1794. It is 3 miles W. of Spa.

THEVA, a town of Hindostan, in the Carnatic; 60 miles WSW. of Tiagur.

(1.) **THEVENOT**, Melchisedec, librarian to the king of France, and a celebrated writer of travels, was born at Paris in 1621. He travelled through a considerable part of Europe and into Asia. He laid down rules, and invented an instrument, for finding of the **LONGITUDE**, and the declination of the **NEEDLE**. The dearest employment of his life was the collection of scarce books, of which he formed a very valuable collection. He assisted at a conclave held on the death of Pope Innocent X. and was the French envoy at Genoa. He died in Oct. 1692, aged 71. His *Travels* into the Levant, &c. were published in English, in 1681, folio; and in French at Paris, in 1663, folio. He wrote also *L'Art de Nager*, the Art of Swimming, 12mo, 1696.

(2.) **THEVENOT**, John, another celebrated traveller, who travelled in Asia, and published an account of his travels, in 3 vols 4to, and in 5 vols 12mo. He died in 1667.

THEVERTON. See **THEVERTON**.

THEURGIA, [Lat] See **THEURGY**.

S s

* **THEURGY**.

(1.) * **THEURGY**. *u. s.* [*theurgy*.] The power of doing supernatural things by lawful means, as by prayer to God. *Bailey*.

(2.) **THEURGY**, in ancient superstition, was that sacred part of magic sometimes called *white magic*, or the *white art*, in opposition to *NECROMANCY*, or the *black art*. The word is formed from *θεος*, God, and *εργον*, work; *q. d.* the art of doing divine things, or things which God alone can do: or the power of working extraordinary and supernatural things, by invoking the names of God, saints, angels, &c. Accordingly, those who have written of magic in general, divide it into three parts: the first whereof is called *theurgy*, as operating by divine or celestial means; the 2d, *natural magic*, performed by the powers of nature; and the 3d, comprehending *neecromancy*, *sorcery*, and *witchcraft* or *magic*, performed by the assistance of demons or departed men. See **MAGIC**, § III.

(1.) **TILUTIS**, a town and district of Arcadia.

(2.) **THEURIS**, in fabulous history, king of the above territory, went to the Trojan war, and fought with Agamemnon, and when Minerva came to assist the Greek monarch, is said to have wounded the goddess in the thigh! He immediately went home, where Minerva appeared to him, and showed him the wound; on which he died. This story is seriously told by Pausanias, viii. c. 28.

* **THEW**. *u. s.* [*theaw*, Saxon.] 1. Quality; manners; customs; habit of life; form of behaviour. Obsolete.—

Yec worthy been for worth and gentle *theaws*.

Spenser.

To be upbrought in gentle *theaws*.

Spenser.

2. In *Shakespeare* it seems to signify brawn, or bulk, from the Saxon *theaw*, *the thigh*, or some such meaning.—

Nature crescent does not grow alone

in *theaws* and bulk.

Shak.

—Cue I for the limbs, the *theaws*, the stature, bulk and big semblance of a man? *Shak.*

* **THEWED**. *adj.* [from *theaw*.] Educated; habituated; accustomed. Obsolete.—

Yet would not seem too rude, and *theawed* in ill.

Spenser.

* **THEY**. *u. s.* in the oblique case *them*, the plural of *he* or *she* [*thi*, Saxon.] 1. The men; the women; the persons.—*They* are in a most warlike preparation. *Shak.*—

The Spartans

Must now confess, if *they* have any goodness,

The trial just and noble.

Shak.

They eat on beds of silk and gold.

Ben Jon.

They know

To joy the friend and grapple with the foe.

Prior.

2. Those men; those women; opposed to some others.—

Only *they*,

That come to hear a merry play,

Will be deceiv'd.

Shak.

'Tis remarkable, that *they*

Talk most who have the least to say.

Prior.

3. It is used indefinitely; as the French *on dit*.—

There, as *they* say, perpetual night is found

In silence brooding.

Dryden.

4. [The plural of *this*, *that*, or *it*.] The things,—

Thoughts, which should indeed have died
With them, *they* think on.

Shak.

In her hair *they* look'd more gay,

Than growing in their native bed.

Prior.

THEYCHEEK. } two lakes of N. Ame-

THEYCHOLEKED. } rica; 1. in Lon. 109.

W. Lat. 69° N.; the latter in Lon. 102. 5. W.

Lat. 64° N.

THEYDON BOIS. } 3 small towns of Eng.

THEYDON GARNON. } land in Essex, in Ep-

THEYDON MONT. } ping Foren; W. of the

Rhodeses.

THEYSSE, a river of Hungary, which runs in-

to the Danube; 19 miles NW. of Belgrade.

THEZE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Pyrenees: 12 miles N. of Pau, and 13 E. of Orthez.

THIACAR, a town of Thibet, 25 leagues SE. of Liala.

THIAN, a town of Germany, in Ty. ol, 13 miles W. of Bolzano.

THIAUCOURT, a town of France, in the dep. of Meurthe, 14 miles SW. of Metz.

THIBERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure, 7 miles W. of Bernay, and 9 E. of Lisieux.

THIBET. See **TIBET**.

* **THIBLE**. *u. s.* A lice; a scummer; a spatula. *Aist.*

THICHALLIN. See **SCHEHALLIEN**.

(1.) * **THICK**. *adj.* [*thicke*, Sax. *dick*, Dutch; *dyck*, Danish; *thickur*, Hindick.] 1. Not thin.

2. Dense; not rare; gross; crass.—God caused the wind to blow, to cleanse the air of *thick* vapours and unwholesome mist. *Raleigh*.—To warm milk pour spirit of nitre: the milk presently after will become *thicker*. *Arbutnot*. 3. Not clear; not transparent; muddy; feculent.—

Thick ey'd musing and curs'd melancholy.

Shak.

—A fermentation makes all the wine in the vessel *thick* or foul. *Temple*—

Encumber'd in the mud, their oars divide,

With heavy strokes, the *thick* unwieldy tide.

Addison.

4. Great in circumference; not slender.—My little finger shall be *thicker* than his loins. 1 *Kings*, xii.—Thou art waxen fat; thou art grown *thick*. *Deut.* xxxii. 15. 5. Deep; noting the third dimension: as, a plank four feet long, two feet broad, and five inches *thick*. 6. Noting comparative bulk; as, the door was three inches *thick*.

7. Frequent; in quick succession; with little intermission.—They charged the defendants with their small shot and Turkey arrows as *thick* as hail. *Knollys*.—Favours came *thick* upon him. *Watson*.—This being once a week, came too *thick* and too often about. *Spelman*—

His pits as *thick* as handgrenados flew.

Reascommas.

Not *thicker* billows beat the Libyan main.

Nor *thicker* harvests on rich Hermus rise. *En.*

8. Close; not divided by much space; crowded.

Amid the *thickest* woods.

Spenser.

—The people were gathered *thick* together. *Luke*, xi. 29.—

Conquists he strew'd where'er he came,

Thick as the galaxy with stars.

Dryden.

—Objects

— Objects of pain or pleasure do not lie *thick* enough together in life. *Addison*. 9. Not easily pervious; set with things close to each other.—

Though *thick* of bars that give a scanty light.

Dryden.

Black was the forest, *thick* with beech it stood.

Dryden.

Amount of rough ascent and *thick* with wood.

Dryden.

—Bring it near some *thick-headed* tree. *Mortimer*.

10. Coarse; not thin.—A pomegranate, or some such *thick* coated fruit *Bacon*.—*Thick* leaved weeds among the grass. *Mortimer*. 11. Without proper intervals of articulation.—

Speaking *thick*, which nature made his blemish,

Became the accents of the valiant,

To seem like him. *Shak*.

(1.) * *THICK*. *n. s.* [from the adjective.] 1. The thickest part, or time when any thing is thickest.

—Archimedes having blown up a great part of the wall of the Spanish station, in the *thick* of the dust and smoke entered his men. *Knolles*. 2. *THICK*

AND *THIN*. Whatever is in the way.—

Through *thick* and *thin* she followed him.

Hudibras.

For a small sum to swear through *thick* and *thin*.

Dryden.

(3.) * *THICK*. *adv.* [It is not always easy to distinguish the adverb from the adjective.] 1. Frequently; fast.—

'Tis some disaster,

Or else he would not send so *thick*. *Denham*.

I hear the trampling of *thick* beating feet.

Dryden.

2. Closely.—

The vale an iron harvest seems to yield.

Of *thick* sprung lances in a waving field. *Dryd*.

—A little plat of ground *thick* sown, is better than a great field which lies fallow. *Norris*. 3. To a great depth.—If you apply it *thick* spread. *Wiser*.

Cato has piercing eyes, and will discern

Our frauds, unless they're cover'd *thick*. *Addis*.

4. *THICK* AND *THREEFOLD*. In quick succession; in great numbers.—They came *thick* and *threefold* for a time. *L'Estrange*.

(4.) * *THICK*. *n. s.* A thicket; a place full of bushes.—

Mists and rotten fogs

Hang in the gloomy *thicks*. *Drayton*.

(1.) * *To THICKEN*. *v. a.* [from *thick*.] 1. To make thick. 2. To make close; to fill up interstices.—Waters evaporated and mounted up into the air, *thicken* and cool it. *Woodward*. 3. To condense; to make to concrete.—The white of an egg gradually dissolves by heat, exceeding the heat of a human body; a greater degree of heat will *thicken* it into a white mass. *Arbutnot*.

4. To strengthen; to confirm.—

This may help to *thicken* other proofs,

That do demonstrate thinly. *Shak*.

5. To make frequent. 6. To make close or numerous; as, to *thicken* the ranks.

(2.) * *To THICKEN*. *v. n.* 1. To grow thick.

2. To grow dense or muddy.—

Thy lustre *thickens*

When he shines by. *Shak*.

3. To concrete; to be consolidated.—

Water flogt gives birth
To grass and plants, and *thickens* into earth.

Prior.

4. To grow close or numerous.—

The press of people *thickens*. *Dryden*.

—He saw the crowd *thickening*. *Tatler*. 5. To grow quick.—

The combat *thickens*, like the storm. *Addis*.

* *THICKET*. *n. s.* [*thicket*, Saxon.] A close knot or tuft of trees; a close wood or copse.—

I drew you hither,

Into the chiefest *thicket* of the park. *Shak*.

Within a *thicket* I repos'd. *Chapman*.

—Thus, or any of his, could not in haste creep through those desert regions, which the length of 130 years after the flood had fortified with *thickets*.

Raleigh.—

How often, from the steep

Of echoing hill, or *thicket*, have we heard

Cælestial voices, to the midnight air,

Singing their Creator? *Milton*.

My brothers slept to the next *thicket* side

To bring me berries. *Milton*.

He to *thickets* fled

Conceal'd from aiming spears. *Dryden*.

I've known young Juba rile before the sun,

To beat the *thicket* where the tyger slept. *Cato*.

THICK-HEADED, dull, stupid; applied to trees,

full of leaves at the top. See *THICK*, § 1. *def*.

9. * *THICKLY*. *adv.* [from *thick*.] 1. Deeply; to a great quantity.—Mending cracked receivers,

having *thickly* overlaid them with diachylon. *Boyle*.

2. Closely; in quick succession.

* *THICKNESS*. *n. s.* [from *thick*.] 1. The state of being thick; density. 2. Quantity of matter interposed; space taken up by matter interposed.—In the darkened room, against the hole at which the light entered, I could easily see through the whole *thickness* of my hand the motions of a body placed beyond it. *Boyle*. 3. Quantity laid on quantity to some considerable depth.—Poll a tree, and cover it some *thickness* with clay on the top. *Bacon*. 4. Confidence; grossness; not rareness; ipsititude.—Nitre mingled with water to the *thickness* of honey, and anointed on the bud after the vine is cut, it will sprout forth. *Bacon*.—Diseases imagined to come from the *thickness* of blood, come often from the contrary cause. *Arbutnot*. 5. Imperviousness; closeness.—The *thickness* of the shades drew into them all the birds. *Addison*. 6. Want of sharpness; want of quickness.—A person found himself, being at some times subject to a *thickness* of hearing. *Holder*.—Between the weakness of my eyes and *thickness* of hearing, I should lose the greatest pleasure. *Swift*.

THICKNESS, Philip, Etq. an eminent English writer, highly esteemed for his honour, probity, and feeling for persons in distress, as well as for his literary talents, and social virtues. He was some time lieutenant governor of Landguard Fort. He wrote, 1. *Observations on the French Nation*: 8vo. 2. *A Year's Journey through France and Spain*; 1777. 8vo. 3. *The New Bath Guide*; 1778. 4. *Valetudinarian's Bath Guide*; 1780. 5. *Queries to Lrd Audley*; (his son,) 1781. 6. *A Year's Journey through the Pais Bas and the Austrian Netherlands*; in 2 vols 8vo; 1784. 7. *A*

A Letter to the Earl of Coventry; 1785. 8. Letter to Dr James Mackittrick Adair; 1787. 9. Memoirs and Anecdotes of Himself; 1788. 10. Memoirs of Mr Gainborough; 1788. 11. Junius Discovered; 1789. 12. Letter to C. Bonnor, Esq. deputy Comptroller of the Post-Office; 1792. He died suddenly, in his coach, beside his lady, near Saumers, on a jaunt to Paris, Nov. 28th, 1792.

* **THICK-SCULLED.** *adj.* Dull; stupid.—
They're pleased to hear their *thick-scul'd* judges cry.
This fighting fool, this *thick-scul'd* hero,
This blunt unthinking instrument of death.

Dryden.

(1.) * **THICKSET.** *adj.* [*thick* and *set*.] Close planted.—
His neck shoots up a *thickset* thorny wood.

Dryden.

—The world is *thickset* with the numerous productions of the creatures. *Greav.*
(2.) **THICKSET.** *n. f.* in commerce, a kind of ribbed tustian. *Ash.*

* **THICKSKIN.** *n. f.* [*thick* and *skin*.] A coarse gross man; a numskul.—
The shallow'st *thickskin* of that fort. *Shak.*

THEBLEMONT, a town of France, in the dep. of Marne; 7½ miles ESE. of Vitry.

* **THIEF.** *n. f.* [*thiub*, Gothick; *thief*, Saxon; *dief*, Dutch. It was anciently written *thieef*, and appears to have been of two syllables; *thie* was wont to be taken for *thrift*, so that *thie* of is he that takes of or from a man his *thie*, that is, his *thrift* or means whereby he *thrives*.] 1. One who takes what belongs to another; *the thief* steals by secrecy, and *the robber* by violence; but these senses are confounded.—
Take heed, for *thieves* do foot by night. *Shak.*
—He was a *thief*, and had the bag. *John.*
Can you think I owe a *thief* my life,
Because he took it not by force? *Dryden.*

2. An excessiveness in the snuff of a candle.—
Th' oil sparkles, *thieves* about the snuff do grow.
* **THIEF CATCHER.** *THIEF-TAKER.* *n. f.* [*thief* and *catch*, *thief* and *lead*, *thief* and *take*.] One whose business is to detect thieves, and bring them to justice.—A wolf passed by as the *thief leaders* were dragging a fox to execution. *L'Estrange.*

My ev'nings all I would with sharpers spend,
And make the *thief catcher* my bosom friend.

Bramston.

THIEF-LIKE. *adj.* [*thief* and *like*.] Ugly; ill-favoured; resembling a thief.
* **THIEF-TAKER.** See **THIEF-CATCHER.**

THIEL, or **TIEL,** a city of Holland, in the department of the Rhine, and ci-devant province of Dutch Guelderland, seated on the north bank of the Wahal, in the island of **TIELER-WIERT.** In its suburb of Santwyck it has a strong fort, which was besieged in vain by the Spaniards in 1628; but was destroyed by the French in 1674, but since rebuilt. It is seated in a marsh, 15 miles W. of Nimeguen, and 18 NNE. of Bois-le-duc.

(1.) **THIELE,** a river of Switzerland, which rises in the Vaudois, runs through the lakes, of Neufchatel and Bienné; and falls into the Aar, 3 miles below Buren.

(2.) **THIELE,** a town of Switzerland, in Neufchatel, between the lakes of Neufchatel and Bienné, 5 miles NE. of Neufchatel.
THIELIN, John Philip, an eminent painter, born at Mechlin, in 1618. He was a nobleman of considerable fortune, and was employed by the king of Spain. He excelled in painting flowers highly natural. He had 3 daughters, who inherited his genius, and painted equally well. He died in 1667.

THIELLEN, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Uri, 2 miles NW. of Altorf.

THIENE, a town of Maritime Austria, in the Vicentino, 9 miles NW. of Vicenza.

THIERRI I. or **THEODORIC I.** king of France, the 3d son of Clovis II.; was dethroned by Childeric, but recovered his throne, and died in 1791. See **FRANCE**, § 9.

THIERRY II. or the son of Dagobert III. was **THIERRY II.** educated in a monastery; but was raised to the throne of France by Charles Martel, in 720. He died in 737. See **FRANCE**, § 10.

(1.) **THIERS,** John Baptist, a learned divine of the Sorbonne, born at Chartres, in 1686. After being a professor in the university of Paris, he was made Bp. of Champrom, in Chartres. He wrote 1. A Treatise on Superstitions respecting the Sacraments; 2. De Fessorum immunitate liber; 3. A history of Perukes; and other curious tracts.

(2.) **THIERS,** in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, famous for its manufactures of cutlery, paper, cards, thread, &c. 20 miles E. of Clermont, and 21 SE. of Genat. Long. 21. 13. E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 52. N.

THIERSHIEM, a town of Franconia, in Culmbach, 16 miles N. of Wunsiedel.

* **TO THEVE.** *v. n.* [*from thief*.] To steal; to practise theft.

* **THIEVERY.** *n. f.* [*from thieve*.] 1. The practice of dealing; theft.—
Their false treason and vile *thievery*. *Spenser.*
I'll example you with *thievery*. *Shak.*

—He makes it a help unto *thievery*. *Brown.*—Amongst the Spartans *thievery* was a practice morally good and honest. *South.* 2. That which it stolen.—
Injurious time now, with a robber's haste,
Craves his rich *thievery* up. *Shak.*

* **THIEVISH.** *adj.* [*from thief*.] 1. Given to stealing; practising theft.—
What, would'st thou have me go and beg my food?
A *thievish* living on the common road? *Shak.*

O *thievish* night!
Why should'st thou, but for some felonious end
In thy dark lantern thus close up the stars?
The *thievish* god suspected him. *Addison.*

2. Secret; sly; acting by stealth.—
Four and twenty times the pilot's glass
Had told the *thievish* minutes how they pass. *Shak.*

* **THIEVISHLY.** *adv.* [*from thievish*.] Like a thief.—
They lay not to live by their works,
But *thievishly* loiter and lurke. *Tasso.*

* **THIEV.**

* **THIEVISHNESS.** *n. s.* [from *thievish*.] Disposition to steal; habit of stealing.

(1.) * **THIGH.** *n. s.* [*theob*, Saxon; *thico*, Icelandic; *die*, Dutch.] The *thigh* includes all between the buttocks and the knee. The *thigh* bone is the longest of all the bones in the body: its fibres are close and hard: it has a cavity in its middle: it is a little convex and round on its fore side, but a little hollow, with a round and small ridge on its backside. *Quincy*.—He touched the hollow of his *thigh*. *Gen. xxxii. 25*.—The flesh dissolved, and left the *thigh* bone bare. *Wiseman*.

(2.) **THIGH**, in anatomy. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*. **THIGH-BONE.** *n. s.* [*thigh* and *bone*.] The chief bone of the thigh. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

THILAY, a town of France in the dep. of Ardennes, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles NNE. of Charleville.

* **THILK.** pronoun. [*thilk*, Saxon.] That same. Obsolete.

I love *thilk* lass; alas, why do I love? *Spenser*.

* **THILL.** *n. s.* [*thille*, Saxon, a piece of timber cut.] The shafts of a wagon: the arms of wood between which the last horse is placed.—More easy a wagon may be drawn in rough ways if the forewheels were as high as the hinder wheels, and if the *thills* were fixed under the axis. *Mortimer*.

* **THILLER.** } *n. s.* [*thill* and *borse*.] The
* **THILL-HORSE.** } last horse; the horse that goes between the shafts.—

With collars and harness for *thiller* and all. *Tusser*.

—Thou hast got more hair on thy chin, than Dobbin my *thill* horse has on his tail. *Shak*.

* **THIMBLE.** *n. s.* This is supposed by *Minshew* to be corrupted from *thumb bell*. A metal cover, by which women secure their fingers from the needle when they sew.—

Your ladies and pale visag'd maids,
Like Amazons, come tripping after drums;
Their *thimbles* into armed gauntlets change,
Their needles to lances. *Shak*.

Who stole a *thimble* or a spoon? *Hud*.

—Veins that run perpendicular to the horizon, have valves sticking to their sides like so many *thimbles*; which, when the blood presses back, stop its passage, but are compressed by the forward motion of the blood. *Cheyne*.

(1.) * **THIME.** *n. s.* [*thymus*, Lat. *thym*, Fr.] A fragrant herb from which the bees are supposed to draw honey. This should be written *thyme*.—

Fair marigolds, and bees alluring *thyme*. *Spens*.

(2.) **THIME.** See **THYMUS**.

(1.) * **THIN.** *adj.* [*thinn*, Saxon; *thunner*, Icelandic; *dunn*, Dutch.] 1. Not thick.—Beat gold into *thin* plates. *Exod*. 2. Rare; not dense.—The hope of the ungodly is like *thin* froth. *Wisd. v. 14*.—In the day when the air is more *thin*, the sound pierceth better. *Baron*.—

They cannot change

Their element, to draw the *thinner* air. *Milton*.
—The waters of Boristhenes are so *thin* and light, that they swim upon the top of the stream of the river Hypanis. *More*.—To warm new milk pour any alkali, the liquor will remain at rest, though it appear somewhat *thinner*. *Arbutnot*. 3. Not close; separate by large spaces.—

He pleased the *thin* and bathful audience.

Roscommon.

How could he that host seduce to sin,
Whose fall has left the heavenly nation *thin*?

Dryden.

Thin herbage in the plains.

Dryden.

Thin on the towers they stand.

Dryden.

Mankind grown *thin* by his destructive sword.

Addison.

Leave the senate *thin*!

Young.

4. Not closely compacted or accumulated.—Seven *thin* ears blasted with the east wind. *Gen*.

5. Exile; small.—

Thin hollow sounds.

Dryden.

6. Not coarse; nor gross in substance: as, a *thin* veil. 7. Not abounding.—Ferrara is very large, but extremely *thin* of people. *Addison*. 8. Not fat; nor bulky; lean; slim; slender.—A slim

thin-guttled fox made a hard shift to wriggle his body into a hen roost. *L'Estrange*.

(2.) * **THIN.** *adv.* Not thickly.—Spain is *thin* sown of people. *Bacon*.

Thin sown with ought of profit.

Milton.

Comes the blind fury with th' abhorred sheers,
And slits the *thin* spun life.

Milton.

Thin-leaved arbut hazle-graffs receives. *Dryd*.
—A country gentleman, if it be like to rain, goes not abroad *thin* clad. *Locke*.

* To **THIN.** *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To make thin or rare; to make less thick.—The serum of the blood is neither acid nor alkaline; oil of vitriol thickens, and oil of tartar *thins* it a little. *Arbutnot*. 2. To make less close or numerous.—The bill against root and branch never passed, till both houses were sufficiently *thinned* and over-awed. *King Charles*.—

T' unload the branches, or the leaves to *thin*,
That suck the vital moisture of the vine. *Dryd*.
'Tis Cæsar's sword has made Rome's senate little,

And *thin*'d its ranks. *Addison*.

3. To attenuate.—

The vapours, by the solar heat

Thinn'd and exhal'd, rise to their airy seat.

Blackmore.

* **THINE.** pronoun. [*thein*, Gothick; *thin*, Saxon; *dijn*, Dutch.] Belonging or relating to thee; the pronoun possessive of *thou*. It is used for *thy* when the substantive is divided from it: as, *this is thy house*; *thine is this house*; *this house is thine*.—

Thou hast her, France; let her be *thine*.

Shak.

* **THING.** *n. s.* [*thing*, Saxon; *din*, Dutch.] 1. Whatever is; not a person. A general word.—Do you chide? I have a *thing* for you.

—You have a *thing* for me!

It is a common *thing*.

Shak.

—The great master he found busy in packing up his *things*. *Knolles*.—The remnant of the meat-offering is a *thing* most holy. *Lev. ii. 3*.—Says the master, you devour the same *things* that they would have eaten, mice and all. *L'Estr*.—When a *thing* is capable of good proof in any kind, men ought to rest satisfied in the best evidence for it which that kind of *things* will bear. *Wilkins*.—

I shall blush to own so rude a *thing*. *Dryden*.
—Men, who understand any *thing* of wisdom,

Tillotson.

Tillotson.—Princes, when they know the true state of things, are not unwilling to prevent their own ruin. *Davenant*. 2. It is used in contempt.—I have a *thing* in prose. *Swift*. 3. It is used of persons in contempt, or sometimes with pity.—

See, sons, what *things* you are! *Shak.*
A *thing* by neither man nor woman priz'd.

Dryden.

—Never any *thing* was so unbred as that odious man. *Congreve*.—The poor *thing* sigh'd. *Addison*.

I'll be this abject *thing* no more. *Granville*.

4. It is used by *Shakepeare* once in a sense of honour.—

That I see thee here,

Thou noble *thing*! more dances my wrapt heart.

Shak.

THINGWALL, a town of England, in Cheshire, near Woodchurch, between the Dee and the Mersey.

(1.) * *To THINK*. *v. n.* preter. *thought*. [*thank-gan*, Gothic; *thencean*, Saxon; *denken*, Dutch.]—To have ideas; to compare terms to things; to reason; to cogitate; to perform any mental operation, whether of apprehension, judgment, or illustration.—*Thinking*, in the propriety of the English tongue, signifies that sort of operation of the mind about its ideas, wherein the mind is active; where it, with some degree of voluntary attention, considers any thing. *Locke*.—

What am I? or from whence? for that I am

I know, because I *think*. *Dryden*.

—Those who perceive dully, or retain ideas in their minds ill, will have little matter to *think* on. *Locke*.—It is an opinion that the souls always *think*, and that it has the actual perception of ideas in itself constantly, and that actual *thinking* is as inseparable from the soul, as actual extension is from the body. *Locke*.—These are not matters to be slightly and superficially *thought* upon. *Tillotson*.—His experience of a good prince must give great satisfaction to every *thinking* man. *Addison*.

2. To judge; to conclude; to determine.—Let them marry to whom they *think* best. *Numb.* xxxvi. 6.—

I fear we shall not find

This long desired king such as was *thought*.

Daniel.

—Can it be *thought* that I have kept the gospel terms of salvation? *Laet.* 3. To intend.—

Thou *thought'st* to help me. *Shak.*

4. To imagine; to fancy.—

Something since his coming forth is *thought* of. *Shak.*

Edmund, I *think*, is gone. *Shak.*

—Nature hath provoked men to *think* of such a thing. *Burnet*.—Those who love to live in gardens, have never *thought* of contriving a winter garden. *Speater*. 5. To muse; to meditate.—

You pine, you languish, love to be alone,
Think much, speak little. *Dryden*.

6. To recollect; to observe.—

We are come to have the warrant.

—Well *thought* upon; I have it here. *Shak.*

—*Think* upon me, my God, for good. *Neb.* v. 19.

7. To judge; to be of opinion.—Among ladies you *think* you are safe. *Swift*. 8. To consider; to doubt; to deliberate.—Any one may *think* with himself, how then can any thing live in Mer-

cury and Saturn? *Bentley*. 9. *To THINK* on. *To contrive*; to light upon by meditation.—

Venus *thought* on a deceit. *Swift*.

10. *To THINK* of. *To estimate*.—The opinions of others whom we know and *think* well of, are no ground of assent. *Locke*.

(1.) * *To THINK*. *v. a.* 1. *To imagine*; to imagine in the mind; to conceive.—Charity *thinketh* no evil. 1 *Cor.* xiii. 5.—

Nor *think* superfluous others aid. *Milton*.

Think nought a trifle, though small. *Young*.

2. *To THINK* much. *To grudge*.—

He *thought* not much to clothe his enemies.

Milton.

—If we consider our infinite obligations to God, we have no reason to *think* much to sacrifice to him our dearest interests in this world. *Tillotson*.

2. *To THINK* scorn. *To disdain*.—He *thought* scorn to lay hands on Mordecai alone. *Esh.* iii.

4. *Me THINKETH*. It seems to me. *Me THOUGHT*. It appeared to me. These are anomalous phrases of long continuance and great authority, but not easily reconciled to Grammar. In *me thinketh*, the verb being of the third person, seems to be referred not to the thing, and is therefore either active, as signifying to cause to think; or has the sense of seems, *me thinks*; it seems to me.—

Me thought I saw the grave where Laura lay.

Sidney.

—*Me thinketh* the running of the foremost is like that of Ahimaz. 2. *Sam.* xviii. 27.

* *THINKER*. *n. f.* [from *think*.] One who thinks in a certain manner.—You may as well hope to make a good musician by a lecture on the art of music, as a coherent *thinker*, or strict reasoner, by a set of rules. *Locke*.—If a man had an ill-favoured nose, deep *thinkers* would impute the cause to the prejudice of his education. *Swift*.

(1.) * *THINKING*. *n. f.* [from *think*.] Imagination; cogitation; judgment.—He put it by once; but, to my *thinking*, he would fain have had it. *Shak.*—

His *thinkings* are below the moon, not worth
His serious considering. *Shak.*

I heard a bird so sing,

Whose music, to my *thinking*, pleas'd the king.

Shak.

—I was a man, to my *thinking*, very likely to get a rich widow. *Addison*.

(2.) *THINKING* is a general name for any act or operation of the mind.

* *THINLY*. *adv.* [from *thin*.] 1. Not thickly. 2. Not closely; not numerously.—It is commonly opinioned, that the earth was *thinly* inhabited before the flood. *Brown*.—

Our walls are *thinly* mann'd. *Dryden*.

* *THINNESS*. *n. f.* [from *thin*.] 1. The contrary to thickness; exility; tenuity.—Ticking is molt in the soles, arm-holes, and sides, because of the *thinness* of the skin. *Bacon*.—

Like gold to airy *thinness* heat. *Donne*.

—Transparent substances, as glass, water, air, &c. when made very thin by being blown into bubbles, or otherwise formed into plates, do exhibit various colours, according to their various *thinnesses*. *Newton*.—Too great *thinness* and delicacy of the vessels. *Arbutnot*. 2. Paucity; scarcity.—

To hide the *thinness* of their flock. *Dryden*.

—16

—In country villages pope Leo VII. indulged a practice through the *thinness* of the inhabitants. *Ayliffe*. 3. Rareness; not spiffitude.—Those pleasures that spring from honour, the mind can nauseate, and quickly feel the *thinness* of a popular breath. *South*.

THIONVILLE, an ancient and strong town of France, in the dep. of the Moselle, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine; anciently belonging to the duchy of Luxemburg, and once, the capital and residence of the French kings of Aufrasia. In 1558, it was taken by the French; and in 1643, it was again taken by them under the prince of Conde; and finally ceded to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659. In 1792, it withstood a long siege and bombardment by the Austrians; which lasted during the whole campaign. It is seated on the Moselle, over which it has a bridge defended by a horn-work; 14 miles N. of Metz, and 195 NE. of Paris. Lon. 6. 15. E. Lat. 49. 21. N.

THIR, *pron.* [Scottish.] *plur.* of *this*, but expressing an idea quite distinct from both *these* and *those*: hence it might merit adoption into the English language. (See *Dictionary*, § 4.) It is still used in various forms of writing in the Scots Law: particularly in indentures between masters and apprentices; which begin thus: "Thir indentures bear leal and soothfast witnessing." &c.

(1.) * **THIRD**. *adj.* [*thritiba*, Saxon. The first after the second; the ordinal of three.—This is the *third* time. *Shak.*—Such clamours are like the signed quarrels of combined cheats, to deduce some *third* person. *Decay of Piety*.

(2.) * **THIRD**. *n. f.* [from the adjective.] 1. The third part.—

To thee and thine hereditary ever,
Remain this ample *third* of our fair kingdom.

Shak.

Men of their broken debtors take a *third*,
A sixth, a tenth, letting them thrive again. *Shak.*
—The protestant subjects of the abbey make up a *third* of its people. *Addison*.—No sentence can stand that is not confirmed by two *thirds* of the council. *Addison*. 2. The sixtieth part of a second.—Divide the natural day into 24 equal parts, an hour into 60 minutes, a minute into 60 seconds, a second into 60 *thirds*. *Holder*.

(3.) **THIRD MAJOR**, } in Music. See *Music*,
(4.) **THIRD MINOR**, } *Defin.* § 9.

* **THIRDBOROUGH**. *n. f.* [*third* and *borough*.]
An under-constable.

* **THIRDLY**. *adv.* [from *third*.] In the third place.—First, metals are more durable than plants; secondly, they are more solid; *thirdly*, they are wholly subterranean. *Bacon*.

THIRENSTEIN, a town of Lower Austria, with a handsome castle, near the Danube.

* **To THIRL**. *v. a.* [*thirlan*, Sax.] To pierce; to perforate. It is now pronounced and written *thirl*. *Ainsworth*.

THIRLAGE. See *LAW*, Part III. Chap. II. § 8. IX. § 12.

THIRLBY, Styan, J. L. D. a learned English critic, born in 1692. He wrote a *Defence of the Trinity*, and other works, and edited *Justin's Works*, in fol. 1723. He died in 1753.

THIRLMERE, LAKE. See *LEATHES*.

THIRON, or **THIRON DE GARDAIS**, a town of France in the dep. of Enre and Loire; 7½ miles E. of Rozeat le Rotrou, and 21 SW. of Chartres.

THIRSK, or **THRUSK**, a borough of England, in the N. Riding of Yorkshire, anciently famous for its strong castle, which was destroyed by Henry II. on the rebellion of Roger Mowbray, who set up his standard in it, and called the Scots to his assistance. It has a market on Monday, and sends two members to parliament. It is 20 miles NW. of York, 41 W. of Scarborough, and 230 N. of London. Lon. 1. 16. W. Lat. 54. 15. N.

(1.) * **THIRST**. *n. f.* [*thyrst*, Saxon; *dorst*, Dutch.] 1. The pain suffered for want of drink; want of drink.—

But fearless they pursue, nor can the flood
Quench their dire *thirst*; alas! they thirst for
blood. *Denham*.

Thus accurs'd,

In midst of water I complain of *thirst*. *Dryden*.
—*Thirst* and hunger denote the state of spittle and liquor of the stomach. *Thirst* is the sign of an acrimony commonly alkalescent or muriatick. *Arbutnot*.

For forty years

I've liv'd an anchorite in pray'rs and tears:
Yon spring, which bubbles from the mountain's
side,

Has all the luxury of *thirst* supply'd. *Harte*.
2. Eagerness; vehement desire: with *of*, *for*, or *after*.—

Not hope of praise, nor *thirst* of worldly
good,

Enticed us to follow this emprise. *Fairfax*.
Thou hast allay'd the *thirst* I had of know-
ledge. *Milton*.

Say, is't thy bounty, or thy *thirst* of praise?
Granville.

—This is an active and ardent *thirst* after happiness, or after a full, beautifying object. *Cleynce*. 3. Drought.—

The rapid current, through veins
Of porous earth with kindly *thirst* updrawn,
Rise a fresh fountain. *Milton*.

(2.) **THIRST** an uneasy sensation arising from a deficiency of the saliva to moisten the inward parts of the mouth. Hence arises a strong desire for drink; and *thirst* is a symptom generally attending fevers of all kinds.—*Thirst* is best allayed by acids; water kept a while in the mouth, then spit out, and repeated as required; a bit of bread chewed with a little water, which latter may be gradually swallowed; if the person is very hot, brandy, or any good spirit, is the safest remedy. In all cases of great *thirst*, which always arises from debility, large draughts of cold water are hurtful; and in cases of high perspiration, from hard labour or violent exercise, not only cold water, but beer, porter, strong ale, and in short every cold liquor, are attended with the most fatal consequences; often producing the most dangerous diseases.

(3.) **THIRST AND HUNGER, METHODS OF ALLEVIATING AND PREVENTING.** See *HUNGER*, § 4.

(1.) * **To THIRST**. *v. n.* [*thyrstan*, Saxon; *derstien*,

derſten, Dutch.] 1. To feel want of drink; to be thirsty or athirst: with *for*.—They shall not hunger nor *thirst*. *Iſa.* xlix. 1.—The people *thirsted* there for water. *Exod.* xvii. 3.—

They as they *thirsted* scoop the brimming stream. *Milton.*

2. To have a vehement desire for any thing; with *for* or *after*.—My soul *thirsteth* for the living God. *Pſal.* xlii. 2.—Till a man hungers and *thirsts* after righteousness, till he feels an uneasiness in the want of it, his will will not be determined to any action in pursuit of this confessed, greater good. *Locke.*—

But furious *thirsting* thus for gore,
The fons of men shall ne'er approach thy shore.

(2.) * *TO THIRST.* *v. a.* To want to drink. This structure is not usual.—
Untam'd and fierce the tyger still remains:
For the kind gifts of water and of food,
He seek's his keeper's flesh, and *thirsts* his blood.

* *THIRSTINESS.* *n. f.* [from *thirst*.] The state of being thirsty.—Next they will want a sucking and soaking *thirstiness*, or a fiery appetite to drink in the lime. *Wotton.*

(1.) * *THIRSTY.* *adj.* [*tburſtig*, Sax.] 1. Suffering want of drink; pained for want of drink.—
Thy brother's blood the *thirsty* earth hath drank,
Broach'd with the steely point of Clifford's lance.
—Give me a little water to drink, for I am *thirsty*.

Unworthy was thy fate,
To fall beneath a base assassin's stab,
Whom all the *thirsty* instruments of death
Had in the field of battle fought in vain. *Roave.*
2. Possessed with any vehement desire: as, blood-thirsty.

(2.) *THIRSTY SOUND*, a bay of the South Sea, on the NE. coast of New Holland. *Lon.* 210. 18. *W. Lat.* 22. 10. S.
* *THIRTEEN.* *adj.* [*threotene*, Saxon.] Ten and three.—Speaking at the one end, I heard it return the voice *thirteen* times. *Bacon.*
* *THIRTEENTH.* *adj.* [from *thirteen*; *threoteotha*, Saxon.] The third after the tenth.—
If he could prove a *thirteenth* task for him
Who twelve achiev'd, the work would me be-
seem.

—The *thirteenth* part difference bringeth the business but to such a pass, that every woman may have an husband. *Graunt.*
* *THIRTIETH.* *adj.* [from *thirty*; *thrittegotha*, Saxon.] The tenth thrice told; the ordinal of thirty.—Henry shall espouse the lady Margaret ere the *thirtieth* of May next ensuing. *Shak.*—A *thirtieth* part of the sun's revolution. *Hale.*—
More will wonder at so short an age,
To find a blank beyond the *thirteenth* page.

(1.) * *THIRTY.* *adj.* [*thrittig*, Saxon.] Thrice ten.—
I have slept fifteen years.
—Ay, and the time seems *thirty* unto me. *Shak.*
—The Claudian aqueduct ran *thirty* eight miles. *Addison.*

(2.) *THIRTY TYRANTS OF ATHENS.* See *ATICA*, § 14.
(3.) *THIRTY TYRANTS ROME.* See *ROME*, § 73.

* *THIS.* *pronoun.* [*this*, Saxon.] 1. That which is present; what is now mentioned.—Bardolph and Nim had more valour than *this*, yet they were both hang'd; and so would *this* be, if he durst steal. *Shak.*—
Come a little nearer *this* way. *Shak.*
Within *this* three miles may you see it coming;

I lay a moving grove.
Must I endure all *this*?

—*This* same shall comfort us concerning our toil. *Gen.* v. 29.—*This* is not the place for a large reduction. *Hale.*—There is a very great inequality among men as to their internal endowments, and their external conditions, in *this* life. *Calamy.* 2. The next future.—I will speak yet but *this* once. *Gen.* xviii. 32. 3. *This* is used for *this time*.—
By *this* the vessel half her course had run.

4. The last past.—
I have not wept *this* forty years.

5. It is often opposed to *that*.—
As when two winds with rival force contend,
This way and *that*.
—According as the small parts of matter are connected together after *this* or that determinate manner, a body of *this* or that denomination is produced. *Boyle.*—Do we not often hear of *this* or that young heir? *South.*—
This way and *that* the impatient captives tend.

6. When *this* and *that* respect a former sentence, *this* relates to the latter, *that* to the former member. See *THOSE*.—Their judgment in *this* we may not, and in *that* we need not follow. *Hooker.*

7. Sometimes it is opposed to the other.—Consider the arguments which the author had to write *this*, or to design the other. *Dryden.*—
With endless pain *this* man pursues,
And *pofter* fondly hopes to see
What never was, nor e'er shall be.

THISATON, a river of Canada, which runs into lake Huron.
(1.) * *THISTLE.* *n. f.* [*thiſſel*, Saxon; *diſſel*, Dutch; *carduus*, Latin.] A prickly weed growing in corn fields.—The leaves of the *thistle* grow alternately on the branches, and are prickly; and the heads are, for the most part, squamose and prickly. *Miller.*—
The roots of *thistles* have my hunger fed.

Hateful docks, rough *thistles*.
—There thou prick't her with a *thistle*.
Thorns also and *thistles* it shall bring thee forth.
Though *thistles* choak'd the fields, and kill'd the corn.
—Rie grafs will kill *thistles*. *Mortimer.*
(2.) *THISTLE*, a well known weed in corn fields. In Britain there are 8 species of *Thistles* according to the vulgar arrangement; the carduus lanceolatus or spear-thistle, the nutans or milk-thistle, the palustris or marsh-thistle, the marianus or milk-thistle, acanthoides or wetted-thistle, cris-

pins or curled-thistle, onopordum, acanthium or cotton-thistle, ferratula arvensis or corn-thistle. All these, except the last, are annual or biennial, and therefore may be easily destroyed by cutting them down before their seed ripens; but the ferratula arvensis is perennial, and continues in the earth, increasing and throwing up new shoots every year. Mr Curtis ascertained the annual increase of its root, by planting in a garden a piece of the root two inches long, and about the thickness of a goose's quill, and a small head of leaves. By the ad of November the root had extended itself 8 feet, and when dug and washed, it weighed 4 lb. As to the uses of the thistle, they are not well known. The corn-thistle is eaten by the ass, and formerly was pulled with great care by the farmers in some parts of Scotland, as food for their horses. For a botanical description of the different kinds of thistle, see CACTUS, CARDUUS, DIPSACUS, ONOPORDUM, SERRATULA, SONCHUS.

(3.) *THISTLE, GOLDEN. *n. f.* A plant. *Miller.*
(4.) THISTLE, GOLDEN. See SCOLYMUS.
(5.) THISTLE, ORDER OF THE, or OF ST ANDREW, a military order of knighthood in Scotland, the rite and institution of which is variously related by different authors. Lesley, bishop of Ross, reports, that the night before the battle between Athelstan king of Northumberland and Hungus king of the Picts, a bright cross, in form of that whereon St Andrew (the tutelary saint of Scotland) suffered martyrdom, appeared to Hungus; who having gained the victory, ever after bore the figure of that cross on his banners. Others assert, that Achaius king of Scotland first instituted this order, after having made the famous league offensive and defensive with Charlemagne king of France. But although the thistle had been acknowledged as the symbol of the kingdom of Scotland from the reign of Achaius, yet some refer the beginning of this order to Charles VII. of France. Others place the foundation of it as low as the year 1500. The chief and principal ensign is a gold collar composed of thistles and sprigs of rue interlinked with amulets of gold, having pendent thereto the image of St Andrew with his cross, and the motto, NEMO ME IMPUNE LACESIT. The ordinary or common ensign worn by the knights is a star of four silver points, and over them a green circle, bordered and lettered with gold, containing the said motto, and in the centre is a thistle; all which is embroidered on their left breast, and worn with the collar, with a green ribband over the left shoulder, and brought under the right arm; pendent thereto is the image of St Andrew, with his cross, in a purple robe, within an oval of gold enamelled vert, with the former motto; but sometimes they wear, encircled in the same manner, a thistle crowned. About the time of the Reformation, this order was dropped, till James II. of Great Britain resumed it by creating eight knights. The Revolution unsettled it again; and it lay neglected, till queen Anne, in 1703, restored it to the primitive design, of twelve knights of St Andrew.

*THISTLY. *adj.* [from *thistle*.] Overgrown with thistles.—

Wide o'er the *thistly* lawn as swells the breeze.

Thomson.

* THITHER. *adv.* [*thither*, Saxon.] *i. To* that place: it is opposed to *hither*.—

We're coming *thither*.

Shaks.

'Tis the way too *thither*.

Cowley.

He *thither*, whence he came, doth run.

Denham.

There Phoenix and Ulysses watch the prey,
And *thither* all the wealth of Troy convey.

Dryden.

2. To that end; to that point.

* THITHERTO. *adv.* [*thither* and *to*.] To that end; so far.

* THITHERWARD. *adv.* [*thither* and *ward*.] Towards that place.—

Ne would he suffer sleep once *thitherward*.

Spenser.

We met him *thitherward*.

Shaks.

By quick instinctive motion, up I sprung,

As *thitherward* endeavouring.

Milton.

—The foolish beasts went to the lion's den, leaving very goodly footsteps of their journey *thitherward*, but not the like of their return. *L'Estrange*.—

Thitherward they bent their way. *Dryden.*

THIVA, } or *Stibes*, a town of European Tur-

THIVE, } key, in Livadia, anciently called

Thebes. (See *THEBES*, N° II. § 7.) It contains about 5000 inhabitants, partly Christians, partly Turks, who have many Greek churches, and several mosques. It is 20 miles NW. of Setines or Athens, and 280 SW. of Constantinople. Lon. 23. 40. E. Lat. 38. 17. N.

THIVIERS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Dordogne; 7½ miles SW. of Exideuil, and 18 NNE. of Perigueux.

THIZY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Rhone and Loire; 9 miles E. of Roanne, and 27 NW. of Lyons.

THLASPI, EASTARD CRESS, or MITHRIDATE MUSTARD, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *tetradynamia*, and order of *siliquosa*; and in the natural system ranging under the 39th order, *Siliquosa*. The pod is emarginated, obcordate, and polyspermous; the valves are boat-shaped, and marginato-carinated. There are 12 species, of which 6 only grow in Britain; viz.

1. THLASPI ARVENSE, treacle-mustard or penny-cress, has orbiculate pods, and leaves oblong, smooth, and scalloped. It smells like garlic, and has a white flower.

2. THLASPI BURSA PASTORIS, or SHEPHERD'S PURSE, has obcordate pods; the radical leaves are pinnated. The seeds of some of these species have an acrid biting taste, approaching to that of the common mustard; with which they agree nearly in their pharmaceutical properties. They are rarely made use of any otherwise than as ingredients in the compositions whose names they bear; though some recommend them in different disorders, preferably to the common mustard.

3. THLASPI CAMPESTRE, mithridate-mustard, has roundish pods, sagittate leaves, dentated and hairy.

4. THLASPI HIRTUM, perennial mithridate-mustard, has roundish hairy pods; the cauline leaves are sagittate and villous.

5. THLASPI MONTANUM, or mountain mithridate-mustard, has obcordate pods, smooth leaves; the radical leaves somewhat fleshy, obovate and entire;

T t

entire; the cauline embracing the stalk, and the corolla being larger than the calyx.

6. *THLASPI PERFOLIATUM*, perfoliate treacle-mustard, has obcordate pods; the cauline leaves are smooth and subdentate; the petals of the length of the calyx, and the stalk branchy.

* *THO'*, *adv.* [*thonne*, Saxon.] 1. Then. *Spenser*.
2. *Tho'* contracted for *though*.

THOANTHUM, an ancient town of Rhodes.

THOARD, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Alps; 9 miles ESE. of Sisteron.

(1.) THOAS, a son of Bacchus and Ariadne; made king of Lemnos by RHADAMANTHUS. He afterwards resigned it to his daughter Hypsipyle, who saved his life, when the Lemnian women killed all the men. See HYPSPYILE.

(2.) THOAS, king of Taurica. See ORESTES.

THOIRY, a town of France, in the dep. of Ain; 6 miles SSW. of Gex, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ W. of Geneva.

THOISSEL, a considerable town of France, in the dep. of Ain, and late prov. of Bresse, with a fine college; seated in a fertile country, between the Saône and Chalcrone; 10 miles N. of TREVoux, and 200 SE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 46. 11. N.

* *To THOLE*. *v. n.* To wait a while. *Ainsl.*

THOLOUSE. See TOULOUSE.

THOMÉANS, THOMISTS. See CHRISTIANS OF ST THOMAS.

THOMAR, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, containing two churches, and about 3600 inhabitants; 63 miles NE. of Lisbon, and 14 S. of Coimbra. Lon. 11. 26. E. Ferro. Lat. 39. 34. N.

(1.) THOMAS, an apostle of Jesus Christ, and the only one of the eleven who could not believe in his Lord's resurrection till he had satisfied himself by feeling the marks of his wounds, which our Saviour graciously condescended to allow him to do. Thomas was a native of Galilee, and was surnamed *Didymus*, or *the Twin*. He preached the gospel in the eastern countries, and at last suffered martyrdom in India.

(2.) THOMAS AQUINAS. See AQUINAS.

(3.) THOMAS, Christian, was born at Leipzig in 1655. He was professor of jurisprudence, first at Berlin, and afterwards at Hull. He died at Hull in 1748. He was author of an *Introduction to Puffendorf*, and many other works on logic, morals, and jurisprudence, in which he advanced a variety of dogmas contrary to received opinions.

(4.) THOMAS, James Ernest, an eminent landscape painter, born at Hagelstein in 1588. He studied long in Italy, under Elzheimer, whose manner and whose friendship he acquired. He died in 1635.

(5.) THOMAS, Anthony Leonard, a French poet, and learned member of the French academy, born at Clermont, in Auvergne, in 1332. He published *Reflections, historical and literary, on Voltaire's Poem on Natural Religion*, 1756; wherein he defended Christianity with great ability. In 1759 he wrote *Elegie on Count Saxe*, and was crowned by the French academy. He afterwards celebrated the memories of *Marcus Aurelius, Sully, Troupin*, and others. He died in 1785. His whole works were printed at Paris in 1802, in 7 vols. 8vo.

(6, 7.) THOMAS, Joseph and John, brothers of

Anthony, were also very eminent in literature; the latter excelled in Latin poetry. Joseph died in 1755, and John in 1785.

(8.) THOMAS, Elizabeth, an ingenious English lady, born in 1675, and distinguished by the title of *Corinna* in Pope's *Dunciad*, for the silly reason because she had communicated some of that irritable poet's letters to Curll the bookseller. Among other misfortunes the early lost her lover. Her poems and letters are entertaining, and were published in 2 vols. folio.

(9.) THOMAS, ST. OF CANTERBURY. See BECKET, N° 2. and ENGLAND, § 23.

(10.) THOMAS the REYMOOR, called also *Thomas Learmont*, and *Thomas of Erceldou*, was born at Erceldou, a village near Melrose in Tweedale, in what year is uncertain; but he was an old man when Edward I. was carrying on war in Scotland. (See LEARMONTH, and RHYMER, N° 1.) The character of Learmont as a prophet, and which was common to him with Lirius, Orpheus, and other early poets in many countries, arose, if we may believe Muckenzie, in his *Lives of Scottish Writers*, from his having conferences with Eliza, a nun and prophetess at Haddington. Learmont put her predictions into verse, and thus came in for his share of the prophetic spirit. The prophecies of Learmont appear to have been merely traditional; nay, it seems doubtful if he ever pretended to such folly. Those however which bear his name were printed at Edinburgh, 1515, reprinted 1680 and 1742.

(1.) THOMASIVS, James, a learned German, born of a good family, at Leipzig, who became professor of eloquence at Leipzig, and among his pupils was the celebrated LEIBNITZ. His chief works are, *The Origin of Philosophical and Ecclesiastical History*, and several learned *Dissertations*, in 11 vols. 8vo.

(2.) THOMASIVS, Christian, son of the above. See THOMAS, N° 3.

(1.) THOMAS'S DAY, ST. a festival of the Christian church, observed on December 21, in commemoration of St Thomas the apostle.

(2.) THOMAS'S DAY, ST. OF CANTERBURY, a festival of the Romish church, observed on December 29, in memory of Thomas Becket archbishop of Canterbury, who was murdered, or, as the Romanists say, martyred, in the reign of king Henry II.

(1.) THOMAS, ST. a Danish island in the West Indian Ocean, near St Bartholomews, 15 miles in circumference. Lon. 65. 26. W. Lat. 18. 22. N.

(2.) THOMAS, ST. an island of Africa, belonging to the Portuguese, discovered in 1429. It is nearly circular, and about 30 miles in diameter. The soil is fertile, and produces vines, sugar-canes, and other fruits; but the climate is unhealthy.

(3.) THOMAS, ST. a town of Guiana, on the Orinoko, belonging to Spain. It was attacked by Sir W. Raleigh, but without success. Lon. 63. 50. W. Lat. 7. 6. N.

THOMASTOWN, a town of Ireland, in Kilkenny, on a rivulet which runs into the Nore; 8 miles SSE. of Kilkenny, and 16 N. of Waterford.

THOMDAM, a town of Saxony, in Saxe-Lauenburg; 58 miles SE. of Hamburg, and 25 of Lauenburg.

THOMISTS.

THOMISTS. See **CHRISTIANS**, N° 8.

THOMOND, a county of Ireland, called also *Clare*. See **CLARE**, N° 1.

THOMSI, a town of Hungary, 11 miles SW. of Canischa.

THOMSON, James, an excellent British poet, the son of a Scottish divine, was born in the shire of Roxburgh, in 1700, and was educated in the university of Edinburgh, with a view to the ministry. But his genius inclining him to the study of poetry, which he soon found would be incompatible with that of theology, or at least might prevent his being provided for in that way in his own country, he relinquished his views of engaging in the sacred function, and repaired to London, in consequence of some engagement which he had received from a lady of quality there, a friend of his mother. The reception he met with wherever he was introduced, emboldened him to risk the publication of his excellent poem on *Winter*.—This piece was published in 1726; and from the universal applause it met with, Mr Thomson's acquaintance was courted by people of the first taste and fashion. But the chief advantage which it procured him was the acquaintance of Dr Rundle, afterwards bishop of Derry, who introduced him to the late lord chancellor Talbot; and some years after, when the eldest son of that nobleman was to make his tour on the continent, Mr Thomson was chosen as a proper companion for him. The expectations which his *Winter* had raised, were fully satisfied by the successive publications of the other seasons; of *Summer* in 1727; of *Spring*, in 1728; and of *Autumn*, in a 4to edition of his works in 1730. Besides the Seasons, and his tragedy of *Sophonisba*, written and acted with applause in 1729, he had, in 1727, published his poem to the memory of Sir Isaac Newton, with an account of his chief discoveries; in which he was assisted by his friend Mr Gray, a gentleman well versed in the Newtonian philosophy. That same year the resentment of our merchants, for the interruption of their trade by the Spaniards in America, running very high, Mr Thomson zealously took part in it, and wrote his *Britannia*, to rouse the nation to revenge. With the Hon. Charles Talbot, our author visited most of the courts in Europe, and returned with his views greatly enlarged. On his return to England with Mr Talbot (who soon after died), the chancellor made him his secretary of briefs; a place of little attendance, suiting his retired indolent way of life, and equal to all his wants. From this office he was removed, when death, not long after, deprived him of his noble patron. He then found himself reduced to a state of precarious dependence. The profits arising from his works were not inconsiderable; his tragedy of *Agamemnon*, acted in 1738, yielded a good sum. But his chief dependence was upon the prince of Wales, who settled on him a handsome allowance, and honoured him with many marks of particular favour. Notwithstanding this, however, he was refused a licence for his tragedy of *Edward and Eleanor*, which he had prepared for the stage in 1736, for some political reasons. Mr Thomson's next performance was the Masque of *Alfred*, written in

1740 jointly with Mr Mallet; by the command of the prince of Wales, for the entertainment of his royal highness's court at Clifden, his summer residence. Mr Thomson's poem, entitled *The Captivity of Indolence*, was his last work published by himself; his tragedy of *Coriolanus* being only prepared for the theatre, when he died, August 27, 1748, in consequence of a cold he caught on the Thames, after being overheated in walking. The distinguishing qualities of his mind and heart, appear best in his writings. There his devotion to the supreme Being, his love of mankind, of his country, and friends, shine out in every page; his tenderness of heart was so unbounded, that it took in even the brute creation. It is not known, that through his whole life he ever gave any person a moment's pain, either by his writings or otherwise. He took no part in the political squabbles of his time, and was therefore respected and left undisturbed by both sides. His testamentary executors were lord Lyttleton, and Mr Mitchell. By their united interests, the orphan play of *Coriolanus* was brought on the stage to the best advantage; from the profits of which, and the sale of MSS. and other effects, a handsome sum was remitted to his sisters. His remains were deposited in the church of Richmond, under a plain stone, without any inscription. A handsome monument was erected to him in Westminster Abbey in 1762, the charge of which was defrayed by the profits arising from a splendid edition of all his works in 4to: Mr Millar the bookseller, who had purchased all Mr Thomson's copies, giving up his property on this grateful occasion. A monument has also been erected to him at the place of his birth.

THOMYRIS, or **TOMYRIS**. See **CYRUS**, N° 1.

THONE, a river of England, in Leicestershire, which joins the **PARRET**.

* **THONG**. *n. f.* [*thrang*, *throng*, Saxon.] A strap, or string of leather.—

The Tufcan king

Laid by the lance, and took him to the sling;
Thrice whirled the *thong* about his head, and threw

The heated lead half melted as it flew. *Dryd.*
—The ancient cestus only consisted of so many large *thongs* about the hand. *Addison.*

The smiths and armourers on palfreys ride,
And nails for loosened spears, and *thongs* for shields provide. *Dryden.*

THONNA, a town of Upper Saxony, in Saxo-Gotha; 12 miles from Gotha.

THONNAUSTAUF, a town of Bavaria, on the banks of the Danube; 3 miles from Ratibon.

THONNES, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Lac Lemane, and late duchy of Geneva; 9 miles SE. of Annecy, and 23 NNW. of Montier.

THONON, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci-devant capital of Chablais, in the late duchy of Savoy. It is situated on the lake of Geneva, 13 miles SW. of Lausanne. Lon. 6. 44. E. Lat. 46. 19. N.

THOOSA, a sea nymph, the daughter of Phorcys, and mother of **POLYPHEMUS** by Neptune.

(1.) **THOR**, the eldest and bravest of the sons of Odin and Frea, was, after his parents, the greatest god of the Saxons and Danes while they continued heathens. They believed, that Thor reigned over all the aerial regions, which composed his immense palace, consisting of 540 halls; that he launched the thunder, pointed the lightning, and directed the meteors, winds, and storms. To him they addressed their prayers for favourable winds, refreshing rains, and fruitful seasons; and to him the fifth day of the week, which still bears his name, was consecrated. See **POLYTHEISM**.

(2.) **THOR**, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of the mouths of the Rhone; 9 miles E. of Avignon, and 9 S. of Carpentras.

(1.) * **THORACICK**, *adj.* [from *thorax*.] Belonging to the breast.—The chyle grows grey in the *thoracick* duct. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **THORACICK DUCT**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

* **THORAL**, *adj.* [from *thorus*, Lat.] Relating to the bed.—The punishment of adultery, according to the Roman law, was sometimes made by a *thoral* separation. *Ayliffe*.

(1.) **THORAX**. See **ANATOMY**.

(2.) **THORAX**, in ancient geography, a mountain of Ionia, near Magnesia; on which *Daphitas* the grammarian was crucified.

THORESBY, Ralph, F. R. S. a celebrated antiquary and topographer, born at Leeds, in Yorkshire, in 1658. He wrote the *Topography of Leeds and the adjacent country*. He died in 1725.

(1.) **THORIGNY**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel, 6 miles SSE. of St Lo, and 15 NE. of Ville Dieu.

(2.) **THORIGNY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne; 7½ miles NE. of Sens, and 18 SSE. of Provins.

THORIUS, Raphael, a learned French physician, who, being a protestant, settled in England, in the reign of James I. He wrote a poem on *Topacco*; and other works; and died at London of the plague in 1625.

(1.) **THORN**, in geography, a town of Regal Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm, formerly a Hanseatic town. It still enjoys great privileges; is well fortified; but part of the fortifications, and a great number of houses, were ruined by the Swedes in 1703. It is seated on the Vistula, and contains 10,000 inhabitants. Lon. 18. 42. E. Lat. 53. 6. N.

(2.) **THORN**, a town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, with a market on Wednesday, seated in a marsh, which has been drained, on the Don; 31 miles S. of York, and 166 N. of London.

(3.) **THORNE**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and late bishoprick of Liege; 7 miles SW. of Ruremond.

(4.) * **THORN**, *n. f.* [*thaurns*, Gothick; *thorn*, Saxon; *doorne*, Dutch.] 1. A prickly tree of several kinds.—*Thorns* and thistles shall it bring forth. *Gen. iii. 12*.—The most upright is sharper than a *thorn* hedge. *Mic. vii. 2*. A prickly growing on the thorn bush.—

Without *thorn* the rose.

Milton.

3. Any thing troublesome.—

The guilt of empire; all its *thorns* and cares
Be paly mine. *Southern's Spartan Dame.*

(5.) **THORN**, BLACK, in botany. See **PRUNUS**.

(6.) **THORN**, BOX. See **LYCIUM**.

(7.) **THORN**, CHRIST'S. See **RHAMNUS**.

(8.) **THORN**, EGYPTIAN. See **MIMOSA**, N^o 11.

(9.) **THORN**, EVERGREEN. See **MELPICE** N^o 7.

(10.) **THORN**, GOAT'S. See **ASTRAGALUS** N^o 2.

(11.) **THORN**, LILY. See **CATESBEA**.

(12.) **THORN**, SPANISH; a species of **ANTHYLLIS**.

(13.) **THORN**, WHITE, or HAWTHORN. See **CRATAGUS**.

(1.) * **THORN-APPLE**, *n. f.* A plant. *Morimer*.

(2.) **THORN APPLE**. See **DATURA**.

THORNAX, a mountain of Argolis. *Paus. viii. 27.*

(1.) * **THORNBACK**, *n. f.* [*raia clavata*, Lat.] A sea-fish.—The *thornback*, when dried, tastes of sal ammoniac. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **THORNBARK**, in ichthyology. See **RASA**.
THORNBURY, an incorporate town of England, in Gloucestershire; with a market on Saturday on the Severn, 24 miles SW. of Gloucester and 21 W. of London. Lon. 2. 31. W. Lat. 51. 35. N.

* **THORNBUT**, *n. f.* [*rhombus aculeatus*, Lat.] A sort of sea-fish, *Ainsl.* which he distinguishes from thornback. A bird or turbot.

THORNDIKE, Herbert, B. D. a learned English divine of the 17th century. He was educated at Trinity College Cambridge, where he graduated. In 1613, he was elected master of Trinity College; but was soon after ejected for his loyalty. In 1660, he obtained a prebend in Westminster Abbey. He wrote 1. *Epilogus*, a Latin treatise in defence of the Church of England, folio; 2. *A Treatise on Weights and Measures*; 3. *A treatise On Church Censures*. He also assisted *Walton* in the *Polyglot Bible*. He died in 1672.

THORNDON, EAST and WEST, 2 small towns of England in Essex, in parishes of the same names, between Brentwood and Hornndon.

THORNE. See **THORN**, N^o 2.

THORNESS BAY, a bay on the NW. coast of the Isle of Wight.

(1.) **THORNEY ABBEY**, a town of England in Cambridgeshire, which had anciently an abbey, the name of which only remains; 6 miles NE. of Peterborough, and 87 N. of London.

(2, 3.) **THORNEY ISLAND**, an island in the English Channel, near the coast of Sussex, 4 miles in circuit; with a town so named, at the mouth of the Levant; 7 miles SW. of Chichester.

(1.) **THORNHILL**, Sir James, an eminent English painter, was born in Dorsetshire in 1676, of an ancient family; but was constrained to apply to some profession by the distresses of his father, who had been obliged to sell his family-estate. His inclination directed him to the art of painting; and on his arrival at London he applied to his uncle, the famous Dr Sydenham, who enabled him to proceed in the study of the art under the direction of a painter who was not very eminent. However, the genius of Thornhill made ample amends for the insufficiency of his instructor, and by a happy application of his talents he made so great a progress, that he gradually rose to the highest reputation.

reputation. His genius was well adapted to historical and allegorical compositions; he possessed a fertile and fine invention; and he sketched his thoughts with great ease, freedom, and spirit. He excelled also equally in portrait, perspective, and architecture: shewed an excellent taste for design, and had a free and firm pencil. His performances in the dome of St Paul's church at London, in the hospital at Greenwich, and at Hampton-court, are such public proofs of his merit as will convey his name to posterity with great honour. He lived in general esteem; enriched himself by the excellence of his works; was appointed state-painter to Queen Anne, from whom he received the honour of knighthood; had the singular satisfaction to repurchase his family estate; and was elected member of parliament. He died in 1734.

(1.) THORNHILL, in geography, an elegant town of Scotland in Dumfries-shire, in the parish of Morton, pleasantly seated on an eminence, half a mile E. of the Nith. The high road from Edin. to Lead-hills, and that from Dumfries to Ayr, cross each other in it. It has fairs in the 2d Tues. O. S. of Feb. May. Aug. and Nov. where great quantities of coarse linen and woollen cloths, made in or near it are sold. The population, in 1791, was 430. It lies 15 m. NW. of Dumfries.

(3.) THORNHILL, a village of Perthshire in the parish of Kincardine, adjacent to Norriestown; in 1794, the population of both was 626.

THORNTON, Bonnel, A. M. and M. B. an English poet, born in Maiden-lane, London, in 1724. He was the son of an apothecary; and being educated at Westminster school, was elected to Christ Church, Oxford, in 1743. The first work in which he was concerned was, "*The Student, or Oxford and Cambridge Miscellany*," which appeared in monthly numbers; and was collected in 2 vols. 8vo, in 1748. Smart was the chief conductor of the work; but Thornton, and other wits of both universities, assisted in it. He took his degrees in 1750 and 1754. In 1754, he undertook *The Connoisseur*, in conjunction with Colman, which they continued weekly to the 30th Sept. 1756. To the *Public Advertiser*, then in high reputation, he was a frequent contributor. In 1764, he married Miss Sylvia Brathwaite, youngest daughter of col. Brathwaite. In 1766, he published a translation of Plautus in blank verse, in 2 vols. These volumes contained 7 plays, of which the *Captive* was translated by Mr Warner, who afterwards completed all that Thornton left unfinished. Thornton published in 1767, *The Battle of the Wigs*, on the disputes then subsisting between the fellows and licentiates. He died, of the gout in his stomach, May 9, 1768, aged 44. He wrote the papers in the *Adventurer* marked A; *An Ode to St Cecilia's day*, *The Oxford Barber*; with many detached essays in the public papers. His character in his epitaph, written in Latin by Dr Warton, and placed on his monument in Westminster Abbey, is to this effect: "His genius, cultivated most happily by every kind of polite literature, was accompanied and recommended by manners open, sincere, and candid. In his writings and conversation he had a wonderful liveliness, with a vein of pleasantry peculiarly his own.

In ridiculing the failings of men, without bitterness, and with much humour, he was singularly happy; as a companion, he was delightful."

* THORNY. *adj.* [from *thorn*.] 1. Full of thorns; spiny; rough; prickly.—

He wore, sweet head, a *thorny* diadem.

Randolph.
His neck shoots up a thickset *thorny* wood.

Dryden.
A *thorny*, or at best a barren soil.

They on the bleak top

Of rugged hills, the *thorny* bramble crop.

Dryden.

2. Pricking; vexatious.—

The sharp *thorny* points

Of my alleged reasons drive this forward. *Shak.*

Thorny care, and stinging hate. *Young.*

3. Difficult; perplexing.—By how many *thorny* and hard ways they are come thereunto. *Spenser.*

THOROE, an island of Denmark, between Funen and Langeland, 3 miles SE. of Suenberg.

(1.) * THOROUGH. *prepos.* [the word *through* extended into two syllables.] 1. By way of making passage or penetration. 2. By means of.—

Mark Antony will follow

Through the hazards. *Shak.*

(2.) * THOROUGH. *adj.* [The adjective is always written *thorough*, the preposition commonly *through*.] 1. Complete; full; perfect.—The Irish horseboys, in the *thorough* reformation of that

realm, should be cut off. *Spenser.*—He did not desire a *thorough* engagement. *Clarendon.*—A *thorough* translator must be a *thorough* poet. *Dryden.*—A *thorough* practice of subjecting ourselves to the wants of others, would extinguish in us pride. *Swift.*—

—How can I call a general disregard, and a *thorough* neglect of all religious improvements, frailty? *Law.* 2. Passing through.—A *thorough* house, without *thorough* lights on the sides. *Law.*

* THOROUGHFARE. *n. s.* [from *thorough* and *fare*.] 1. A passage through; a passage without any stop or let.—

Th' Hyrcanian deserts are as *thoroughfares*.

Shak.
—His body is a passable carcase, it is a *thoroughfare* for steel. *Shak.*—The ungrateful person is a monster, which is all throat and belly; a kind of *thoroughfare*, or common shore. *South.*—

A *thoroughfare* of news. *Dryden.*

2. Power of passing.—

Hell, and this world, one realm, one continent,

Of easy *thoroughfare*. *Milton.*

* THOROUGHLY. *adv.* [from *thorough*.] Completely; fully.—

Look into this business *thoroughly*. *Shak.*

—We can never be grieved for their miseries who are *thoroughly* wicked. *Dryden.*—One would think, that every member of the community who embraces with vehemence the principles of either party had *thoroughly* sifted and examined them. *Addison.*—They had forgotten their solemn vows as *thoroughly* as if they had never made them. *Atterbury.*

* THOROUGHFACED. *adj.* [from *thorough* and *face*.] Perfect in what is undertaken; complete; thoroughsped. Generally in a bad sense.—When it was proposed to repeal the test clause, the ablest

of those who were reckoned the most staunch and *thoroughpaced* Whigs fell off at the first mention of it. *Swift*.

* **THOROUGHSPED.** *adj.* [*thorough* and *sped.*] Finished in principles; thoroughpaced; commonly, finished in ill.—Our *thoroughspiced* republic of Whigs, are most highly useful to princes. *Swift*.

* **THOROUGHSTITCH.** *adv.* [*thorough* and *stitch.*] Completely; fully. A low word.—Perseverance alone can carry us *thoroughstitch*. *L'Esfrange*.—

THOROUGH-WAX, in botany. See **BUPLEURUM**.

* **THORP.** *n. s.* *Thorp, throp, threp, trep, trop*, are all from the Saxon *thorp*, which signifies a village. *Gibson's Camden*.

THORPE, a town of England, in Surry, near Egham. It is 18 miles WSW. of London.

THORSBERG, a mountain of Norway in Aggersbyg; 18 miles W. of Tonsberg.

THORSTORP, a town of Sweden in W. Gothland; 28 miles SE. of Gotheborg.

* **THOSE.** *pronoun.* 1. The plural of *that*.

Those clam'rous harbingers of blood. *Shak.*

Those made not poets, but the poets those. *Denham.*

—The fibres of this muscle act as *those* of others. *Cbeyne.* 2. *Those* refers to the former; *these* to the latter noun.—

Neither their sighs nor tears are true,

Those idly blow, *these* idly fail. *Cowley.*

THOTCHI, a town of Chinese Tartary.

THOTH, or **THEUT**, (called by the Phœnicians **TAAUT**, by the Greeks **HERMES**, and by the Romans **MERCURY**), was a Phœnician of very superior talents, and one of the civilizers of mankind. He was prime minister to Osiris, whom, after his death, he deified; and he was himself deified by his countrymen the Egyptians, for the benefits that he had rendered to the human race. See **HERMES**, N° 1—3. **MERCURY**, **MYTHOLOGY**, § 10. **POLYTHEISM**, and **TAAUT**.

(1.) **THOU**, James Angustus DE. See **THUANUS**.

(2.) **THOU**, Francis Augustus DE, the son of Thuanus, was chief librarian to Lewis XIV; but having attached himself to Cinq-Mars, was condemned and beheaded at Lyons, in 1642.

(3.) * **THOU**, *n. s.* [*thou*, Saxon; *du*, Dutch; in the oblique cases singular *thee*, *the*, Saxon; in the plural, *ye*, *ge*, Saxon; in the oblique cases plural *you*, *cow*, Saxon.] *You* is now commonly used for the nominative plural. 1. The second pronoun personal.—

Come let me clutch *thee* :

I have *thee* not, and yet I see *thee* still.

Art *thou* not, fatal vision, sensible

To feeling as to sight? *Shak.*

I am as like to call *thee* so again,

To spit on *thee* again, to spurn *thee* too,

If *thou* wilt lend this money. *Shak.*

Thou, if there be a *thou* in this base town.

Dryden.

2. It is used only in very familiar or very solemn language.—When we speak to equals or superiors, we say *you*; but in solemn language, and in addresses of worship, we say *thou*. [Familiar.]—

Here's to *thee*, Dick. *Cowley.*

[Solemn.]—

I know *thou* wert not slow to hear. *Addison,*

* **To THOU.** *v. a.* [from *thou*.] To treat with familiarity.—If *thou thou'st* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss. *Shak.*

THOUARCE, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire; 7½ miles N. of Vebiers, and 12 S. of Angers.

THOUARE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Loire, 5 miles NE. of Nantes.

THOUARS, an ancient and considerable town of France, in the dep. of the Two Sevrans, and late prov. of Poitou, with a castle, the princely residence of its ancient dukes, seated on a rocky hill 120 feet high, on the banks of the Thoue, 32 miles SE. of Angers, and 162 SW. of Paris. Lon. 0. 15. W. of Paris. Lat. 46. 59. N.

THOUE, a river of France which runs past Thouars, and falls into the Loire, below St Florent.

* **THOUGH.** *conjunction.* [*theob*, Sax. *thaub*, Gothic.] 1. Notwithstanding that; although.—

Not that I so affirm, *though* so it seem. *Mil.*

Guard itself, *though* but a child invade. *Waller.*

—I can desire to perceive those things *though* they be such as eye hath not seen. *Locke.*—*Though* the name of abstracted ideas is attributed to universal ideas, yet this abstraction is not great. *Watts.* 2. As **THOUGH**; as if; like as if.—In the vine were three branches; and it was *as though* it budded. *Gen. xl. 10.* 3. It is used in the end of a sentence in a familiar language; however; yet.—

'Tis dangerous *though* to treat me in this sort

And to refuse my offers, *though* in sport. *Dryd.*

A good cause would do well *though*. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **THOUGHT.** *n. s.* [from the preterite of *To think*.] 1. The operation of the mind; the act of thinking.—

And cards are dealt, and chessboards brought,

To ease the pain of coward *thoughts*. *Prior.*

2. Idea; image formed in the mind.—

Things above earthly *thought*. *Milton.*

3. Sentiment; fancy; imagery; conceit.—*Thought*, if translated truly, cannot be lost in another language; but the words that convey it to our apprehension, which are the image and ornament of that *thought*, may be so ill chosen as to make it appear unbandsome. *Dryden.*—One may often find as much *thought* on the reverse of a medal as in a canto of Spenser. *Addison.*—*Thoughts* come crowding in so fast upon me, that my only difficulty is to chuse or to reject. *Dryden.*

The *thoughts* of a foul that perish in thinking,

Locke.

Some unmeaning thing they call a *thought*.

Pope.

4. Reflection; particular consideration.—

Using those *thoughts* which should indeed have died

With them they think on. *Shak.*

5. Conception; preconceived notion.—

Things to their *thought*

So unimaginable as hate in heaven. *Milton.*

6. Opinion; judgment.—Despised in the *thought* of him that is at ease. *Job, xii. 5.*—They communicated their *thoughts* on this subject to each other. *Dryden.*

Thus Bethel spoke, who always speaks his *thought*,

And always thinks the very thing he ought. *Pope.*

7. Me-

7. Meditation; serious consideration.—
Pride, of all others the most dangerous fault,
Proceeds from want of sense or want of thought.
Roscommon.

8. Design; purpose.—The *thoughts* I think to-
wards you are *thoughts* of peace. *Jer. xxix. 11.*—
Nor was godhead from her *thought*. *Milton.*

9. Silent contemplation.—
Bad is the world; and all will come to nought,
When such ill dealings must be seen in *thought*.
Shak.

10. Solitude; care; concern.—Let us return,
left he take *thought* for us. *1 Sam. ix. 5.*—Hawis
was put in trouble, and died with *thought* and
anguish. *Bacon.*

Adam took no *thought*. *Milton.*

11. Expectation.—
The main desiry
Stands on the hourly *thought*. *Shak.*

12. A small degree; a small quantity. It seems a
loose term, but is used by good writers.—His face
was a *thought* longer than the exact symmetrians
would allow. *Sidney.*—If our own be but equal,
the law of common indulgence alloweth us to
think them at the least half a *thought* the better,
because they are our own. *Hooker.*—A needle
pierced through a globe of cork, cut away by
degrees, will swim under water, yet not sink unto
the bottom, if the cork be a *thought* too light to
sink under the surface. *Brown.*—Yet I think I am
a *thought* better. *Swift.*

(1.) * **THOUGHT**, the *preterite* and *part. pass.* of
think.—

I told him what I *thought*. *Shak.*
Can any thing be *thought* of for their service?
Addison.

—No other tax could have been *thought* of. *Addison.*
(3.) **THOUGHT** is a general name for all the
ideas consequent on the operations of the mind,
and even for the operations themselves. See
METAPHYSICS.

(4.) **THOUGHT**, in composition. See **ORATORY**,
Part I. and II.

* **THOUGHTFUL**. *adj.* [*thought* and *full*.]
1. Contemplative; full of reflection; full of me-
ditation.—

On these he mus'd within his *thoughtful* mind.
Dryden.

2. Attentive; careful.—
Thoughtful of thy gain. *Phillips.*

3. Promoting meditation; favourable to musing.—
War, horrid war, your *thoughtful* walks in-
vades. *Pope.*

4. Anxious; solicitous.—
Around her crowd distrust, and doubt, and
fear,
And *thoughtful* foresight, and tormenting care.
Prior.

* **THOUGHTFULLY**. *adv.* [*from thoughtful*.]
With thought or consideration; with solicitude.

* **THOUGHTFULNESS**. *n. f.* [*from thought-
ful*.] 1. Deep meditation.—While the nervous
fibres preserve their due tension and firmness, and
the spirits are transmitted to them from the brain,
without the avocations of *thoughtfulness* and in-
tense contemplation, the concoction of the meats
is well performed. *Blackmore.* 2. Anxiety; soli-
citude.

* **THOUGHTLESS**. *adj.* [*from thought*.] 1.
Airy; gay; dissipated. 2. Negligent; careless.
—It is peculiarly shocking to see grey hairs with-
out remorse for the past, and *thoughtless* of the
future. *Rogers.* 3. Stupid; dull.—

Seems design'd for *thoughtless* majesty:
Thoughtless as monarch oaks that shade the
plain. *Dryden.*

* **THOUGHTLESSLY**. *adv.* [*from thought*.]
Without thought; carelessly; stupidly.—
In reflex hurries *thoughtlessly* they live.

Gartl.
* **THOUGHTLESSNESS**. *n. f.* [*from thought-
less*.] Want of thought; absence of thought.

* **THOUGHTSICK**. *adj.* [*thought* and *sick*.]
Uneasy with reflection.—

Heav'n's face doth glow
With trifling visage; and, as 'gainst the doom,
Is *thoughtsick* at the sight. *Shak.*

THOUINIA, in botany, a genus of plants be-
longing to the class of *diandria* and order of *mono-
gynia*. The corolla is quadripetalous; the calyx
quadripartite, and the antheræ sessile. There is
only one species discovered:

THOUINIA NUTANS.

THOUN, a town of Persia, in Chorasán; 75
miles W. of Herat.

(1.) * **THOUSAND**. *adj.* or *n. f.* [*thusend*, Sax.
duysend, Dutch.] 1. The number of ten hundred.
—About three *thousand* years ago, navigation was
greater than at this day. *Bacon.* 2. Proverbially,
a great number.—

So fair, and *thousand*, *thousand* times more fair
She seem'd. *Spenser.*
For harbour at a *thousand* doors they knock'd,
Not one of all the *thousand* but was lock'd.

Dryden.
Drawn from the root of some old Tuscan tree,
And thou, a *thousand* off, a fool or long degree.

Dryden.
—He finds a *thousand* occasions for generosity and
compassion. *Spektator.*—How many *thousands* pro-
nounce boldly on the affairs of the public. *Watts.*

(2.) **THOUSAND ISLANDS**, a great number of
small islands in the St Lawrence, a little below
Lake Ontario.

(3.) **THOUSAND LAKE**, the broadest part of the
river St Lawrence, so named from the **THOUSAND
ISLANDS**, which are all in it.

(4.) **THOUSAND ROCKS**, a numerous cluster of
very small islands in the St Lawrence, below
THOUSAND LAKE; 72 miles SW. of Montreal.

* **THOUSANDTH**. *adj.* [*from thousand*.] The
hundredth ten times told; the ordinal of a thou-
sand: proverbially, very numerous.—He that will
divide a minute into a thousand parts, and break
but a part of a *thousandth* part in the affairs of
love, it may be said of him, that Cupid hath clapt
him o' th' shoulder; but I'll warrant him heart-
whole. *Shak.*

Their volumes swell beyond the *thousandth*
page. *Dryden.*

—I wish they deserved the *thousandth* part of the
good treatment they have received. *Swift.*

* **THOWL**. *n. f.* A piece of timber by which
oars are kept in their places when rowing. *Ains.*

THRACE, a country very frequently men-
tioned by the Greek and Latin writers, deriving
its

its name, according to Josephus, from **THRAS**, one of the sons of Japhet. It was bounded on the N. by Mount Hæmus; on the S. by the Ægean Sea; on the W. by Macedon and the river Strymon; and on the E. by the Euxine Sea, the Hellespont, and the Propontis.—The **THRACIAN CHERSONESUS** is a peninsula inclosed on the S. by the Ægean Sea, on the W. by the gulf of Melas, and on the E. by the Hellespont; being joined on the N. to the continent by a neck of land about 37 furlongs broad. The inland parts of Thrace are very cold and barren, the snow lying on the mountains the greatest part of the year; but the maritime provinces are productive of all sorts of grain and necessaries of life; and withal so pleasant, that Mela compares them to the most fruitful and agreeable countries of Asia. The ancient **THRACIANS** were deemed a brave and warlike nation, but of a cruel and savage temper; being, according to the Greek writers, strangers to all humanity and good nature. It was to the Thracians, however, that the Greeks were chiefly indebted for the polite arts that flourished among them; for Orpheus, Linus, Musæus, Thamyris, and Eumolpus, all Thracians, were the first, as Eustathius informs us, who charmed the inhabitants of Greece with their eloquence and melody, and persuaded them to exchange their fierceness for a sociable life and peaceful manners; nay, great part of Greece was anciently peopled by Thracians. Tereus, a Thracian, governed at Daulis in Phocis. (See **PHILOMELA**, N° 2.) From thence a body of Thracians passed over to Eubœa, and possessed themselves of that island. Of the same nation were the Aones, Tembices, and Hyanthians, who made themselves masters of Bœotia; and great part of Attica itself was inhabited by Thracians, under the command of the celebrated **EUMOLPUS**. Thrace was anciently divided into a number of petty states, which were first subdued by Philip II. of Macedon. On the decline of the Macedonian empire, the country fell under the power of the Romans. It continued under subjection to them till the irruption of the Turks, in whose hands it still remains.

THRACES, the **THRACIANS**.

THRACIAN, *adj.* Of or from **THRACE**.

THRACIANS, *n. f. plur.* The natives of ancient Thrace. See **THRACE**.

THRACIS, an ancient town of Phocis.

THRAEVE, or **THRIVE**, an island of Kirkcudbrightshire, in the Dee; famous for its ancient castle, the residence of the lords of Galloway.

* **THRALDOM**. *n. f.* [from *thrall*.] Slavery; servitude.—All the heavens cannot bring me to such *threldom*. *Sidney*.—

From this earth's *threldom* to the joys of heav'n. *Shak.*

—This country groaneth under the Turkish *threldom*. *Sandys*.—

He shall rule, and she in *threldom* live. *Dryd.*

—Life and *threldom* we entered into together. *Locke*.

* **THRALL**. *n. f.* [*thral*, Saxon.] 1. A slave; one who is in the power of another. Not much in use.—

No *thralls* like them that inward bondage have. *Sidney*.

Let her accept me as her faithful *thrall*. *Spenser*.

Look gracious on thy prostrate *thrall*. *Shak.*

The two delinquents,

Slaves of drink, and *thralls* of sleep. *Shak.*

To the least and vilest things am *thrall*. *Davies*.

Do him mightier service, as his *thralls*. *Mil.*

2. Bondage; state of slavery or confinement.—

Brought forth Ulysses, bed, and all

That richly furnish it; he still in *thrall*

Of all-subduing sleep. *Chapman*.

His nose

From *thrall* of ring and cord broke loose.

Hudibras.

* To **THRALL**. *v. a.* *Spenser*. [from the noun.]

To enslave; to bring into the power of another. Out of use.—

Let me be a slave t' achieve the maid

Whose ludden fight hath *thrall'd* my wounded eye. *Shak.*

So ill *thralls* not them, but they tame ill,

And make her do much good against her will. *Dan.*

—The author of nature is not *thrall'd* to the laws of nature. *Drummond*.

* **THRAPPLE**. *n. f.* The windpipe of any animal. They still retain it in the Scottish dialect; we say rather *throatle*.

THRAPSTON, a town of England, in Northamptonshire, with a market on Thursday; seated on the Nen, over which it has a good bridge; 7 miles N. of Higham-Ferrers, and 75 NNW. of London. Lon. 0. 15. W. Lat. 52. 36. N.

(1.) * To **THRASH**. *v. a.* [*tharshan*, Saxon; *derfchen*, Dutch.] 1. To beat corn to free it from the chaff. This is written variously *thras* or *thres*, but *thras* is agreeable to etymology.—

First *thras* the corn. *Shak.*

—Gideon *thres*ed wheat. *Judges* viii. 11.—Here be oxen for burnt sacrifice, and *thresing* instruments for wood. 2 *Sam.* xxiv. 22.—

Thras it out. *Dryden*.

—To preserve the ends of the bones from an incalcescency, which they, being hard bodies, would contract from a swift motion; such as that of running or *thresing*. *Ray*.—After the first *thresing*, get what feed you can. *Mortimer*. 2. To beat; to drub.—Thou art here but to *thras* Trojans. *Shak.*

(2.) * To **THRASH**. *v. n.* To labour; to drudge. I rather would be Mevius, *thras* for rhymes. *Dryden*.

* **THRASHER**. *n. f.* [from *thras*.] One who thrashes corn.—

Our soldiers, like a lazy *thrasher* with a flail, Fell gently down. *Shak.*

—Not barely the plowman's pains, the reaper's and *thresher's* toil, and the baker's sweat, is to be counted into the bread we eat. *Locke*.

(1.) **THRASHING**, *part. n. f.* in agriculture, the operation by which corn is separated from the straw. It is performed in various ways, sometimes by the feet of animals, sometimes by a flail, sometimes by a machine.

(2.) **THRASHING**, ANCIENT AND MODERN METHODS OF. The most ancient method of separating the corn from the straw was by the hoofs of cattle. This was practised by the Israelites, as we find from the books of Moses: it was also common

common among the Greeks and Romans. Flails and thrashing machines were also not uncommon among these nations. The flail which was used by the Romans, called *baculus, fustis, or pertica*, was probably nothing more than a cudgel or pole. The thrashing machine, which was called *tribula* or *tribulum*, and sometimes *traba*, was a kind of sledge made of boards joined together, and loaded with stone or iron. Horses were yoked to this machine, and a man was seated upon it to drive them over the sheaves of corn. Different methods are employed in different countries for separating the corn from the stalk. In the greatest part of France the flail is used; but in the southern districts it is generally performed by the feet of animals: animals are also used for the same purpose in Spain, Italy, the Morea, the Canaries, China, and the vicinity of Canton, where the flail is also sometimes used. In hot climates the grains do not adhere so firmly to the stalk as in cold countries, and therefore animals are so frequently employed. The operation is performed in this manner: The sheaves, after being opened, are spread in such a manner that the ears of the corn are laid as much uppermost as possible, and a man standing in the centre, holds the balsters of the cattle, which are made to trot round as in a manege; whilst other men with forks shake the straw up from time to time, and the cattle are trotted over it again and again till they have beaten out all the grain.

(3.) **THRASHING MACHINES, ATTEMPTS TO MAKE.** The first of these attempted in modern times, was invented in Edinburgh by Michael Menzies about 1732. It consisted of a number of instruments like flails, fixed in a moveable beam, and inclined to it at an angle of ten degrees. On each side of the beam in which the flails were fixed, floors or benches were placed for spreading the sheaves on. The flails were moved backwards and forwards upon the benches by means of a crank fixed on the end of an axle, which made about 30 revolutions in a minute. The 2d thrashing machine was invented by Mr Michael Stirling, a farmer in the parish of Dumblane, Perthshire. In 1753, under the pretence of amusing his children, he formed in miniature a water mill, in which two iron springs, made to rise and fall alternately, represented the motion of two flails, by which a few stalks of corn put under them might be speedily thrashed. This plan he executed on a scale sufficiently large within two years after, making the springs about ten feet long, each of which had one end firmly screwed into a solid plank, and the other terminated in a round baton of solid iron, two feet long and above an inch in diameter. Under these the sheaves were conveyed gradually forward in a narrow channel or trough, by passing between two indented horizontal cylinders, similar to those now used in most of the thrashing mills in that part of the country, and called *feeders*. In this manner the thrashing was executed completely, and with considerable rapidity; but as the operation was performed on a low floor, and no method contrived for carrying off the straw, the accumulation of it produced such confusion, and the removal of it was attended with such dan-

ger, that this scheme was very soon entirely abandoned.

(4.) **THRASHING MILL COMPLETED.** Mr Stirling, therefore, laying aside the iron springs with the feeders, and all the apparatus adapted to them, he retained only an outer or *water wheel*, with an inner or *cog wheel* moving on the same axle; to this inner wheel, which had 48 teeth or cogs, he applied a vertical trundle or pinion, with notches, the axle of which passed through a floor above the wheel, and having its upper pivot secured in a beam 6 feet above that floor: At the distance of 3 feet 3 inches above the floor, two straight pieces of squared wood, each 4 feet long, passed through the axle of the trundle at right angles, forming 4 arms, to be moved round horizontally. To these extremities of the arms were fixed 4 iron plates, each 10 inches long, and 8 broad at the end next the arms, but tapering towards a point at the other end. This large horizontal fly, constituting 4 thrashers, was inclosed within a wooden cylindrical box $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high and 8 in diameter. On the top of the box was an opening or port (2 or 3 ports were made at first, but one was found sufficient) 8 inches wide, and extending from the circumference a foot and an half towards its centre, through which the corn sheaves descended, being first opened and laid one by one on a board with two ledges gently declining towards the port; on which board they were moderately pressed down with a boy's hand, to prevent them from being too hastily drawn in by the repeated strokes of the thrashers. Within the box was an inclined plane, along which the straw and grain fell down into a wide wire riddle two feet square, placed immediately under a hole of nearly the same size. The riddle received a jerk at every revolution of the spindle from a knob placed on the side of it, and was instantly thrust backward by a small spring, pressing it in the opposite direction. The short straw, with the grain and chaff which passed through the wide riddle, fell immediately into an oblong strait riddle, which hung with one end raised and the other depressed, and was moved by a contrivance equally simple as the other; and having no ledge at the lower end, the long chaff which could not pass through the riddle dropped from thence to the ground; while the grain and most of the chaff falling through the riddle into a pair of common barn-fanners that stood under it on the ground floor, the strong grain, the weak, and the chaff, were all separated with great exactness. The fanners were moved by a rope or band running circuitously in a shallow niche cut on the circumference of the cog-wheel. The straw collected gradually in the bottom of the box over the wide riddle, and through an opening $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and as much in height, left in that side of the box nearest the brink of the upper floor, was drawn down to the ground with a rake by the person or persons employed to form it into sheaves or rolls.

(5.) **THRASHING MILL, FRUITLESS ATTEMPTS TO IMPROVE THE.** A 3d thrashing mill was invented in 1772, by two persons nearly about the same time, and upon the same principles. Mr Alderton who lived near Alnwick, and Mr Smart at

Work in Northumberland. The operation was performed by rubbing. The sheaves were carried round between an indented drum of about six feet diameter, and a number of indented rollers arranged round the circumference of the drum, and attached to it by means of springs; so that while the drum revolved, the fluted rollers rubbed the corn off from the straw by rubbing against the flutings of the drum. But as a considerable quantity of the grain was bruised in passing between the rollers, the machine was soon laid aside. In 1776 an attempt was made by Mr Andrew Meikle, an ingenious millwright in the parish of Tynningham, East Lothian, to construct a new machine upon the principles which had been adopted by Mr Menzies already mentioned. This consisted in making joints in the flails, which Mr Menzies had formed without any. But this machine, after much labour and expence, was soon laid aside, on account of the difficulty of keeping it in repair, and the small quantity of work performed, which did not exceed one boll or six Winchester bushels of barley per hour. Some time after this, Mr Francis Kinloch, junior of Gilmerton, having visited the machine invented in Northumberland, attempted an improvement upon it. He inclosed the drum in a fluted cover; and instead of making the drum itself fluted, he fixed upon the outside of it four fluted pieces of wood, which by means of springs could be raised a little above the circumference of the drum, so as to press against the fluted covering, and thus rub off the ears of corn as the sheaves passed round between the drum and the fluted covering. But not finding this machine to answer his expectation (for it bruised the grain in the same manner as the Northumberland machine did), he sent it to Mr Meikle, that he might, if possible, rectify its errors. Mr Meikle, who had long directed his thoughts to this subject, applied himself with much ardour and perseverance to the improvement and correction of this machine; and after spending a good deal of time upon it, found it was constructed upon principles so erroneous, that to improve it was impracticable.

(6.) THRESHING MILL PERFECTED, AND DESCRIBED. At length, Mr Meikle's own genius invented a model, different in principle from the machines which had already been constructed. This model was made in 1783; and in 1786 the first threshing machine on the same principles was erected near Alloa, in Stirlingshire, by Mr George Meikle the son of the inventor. This machine, in its most improved state, is so simple, that from the figures on *Plate CCCXXVI.* exhibiting the plan of elevation, n^o 1. the ground plan, n^o 2, and the 3d *fig.* on *Plate CCCXXVII.* showing its essential parts in a distinct manner, it will be easily understood by all our readers who have not had an opportunity of seeing it. The power employed for turning that part of the machine which separates the corn from the straw is produced by 4 wheels (when moved by horses), the teeth of which move in one another and turn the drum, on which 4 scutchers are fixed. The sheaves are introduced between two fluted rollers, which hold them firm, and draw them in gradually, while the scutchers strike off the grain from the straw as it passes through. This will suffice for a

general idea of this machine. The large spur-wheel A, n^o 1. and 2. which has 276 cogs, is horizontal, and moves the pinion B, which has 11 teeth. The pinion B moves the crown-wheel C, which has 84 teeth, the wheel C moves a second pinion D, which has 16 teeth; and the pinion D moves the drum HIKL. The drum is a hollow cylinder three feet and an half in diameter, and placed horizontally; on the outside of which the scutchers are fixed by strong screw bolts. The scutchers consist of four pieces of wood, faced on one side with a thin plate of iron, placed at an equal distance from each other, and at right angles to the axis of the drum. The sheaves are spread on an inclined board F, n^o 3. from which they are introduced between two fluted rollers GG made of cast iron, about three inches and an half in diameter, and making about 35 revolutions in a minute. As these rollers are only about three quarters of an inch distant from the scutchers or leaves of the drum HIKL, they serve to hold the sheaves fast, while the scutchers *a, b, c, d,* moving with prodigious velocity, separate the grain completely from the straw, and at the same time throw out both grain and straw upon the concave rack M, lying horizontally with slender parallel ribs, so that the corn passes through them into a hopper N placed below. From the hopper it passes through a harp or riddle O into a pair of fanners P, from which, in the most improved machine, it comes out clean and fit for the market. The straw, after being thrown by the scutchers *a, b, c, d,* into the rack, is removed from it by a rake QRST into a place contiguous V. The rake consists of four thin pieces of wood or leaves; on the end of each of these leaves is ranged a row of teeth, *e, f, g, h,* five inches long. The rake moves in a circular manner in the concave rack, while the teeth catch hold of the straw, and throw it out of the rack. These are all the essential parts of the machine; the rest may be easily understood by the references to the Plate. W is the horse-course, n^o 1, which is 27 feet diameter. X is the pillar for supporting the beams on which the axle of the spur wheel is fixed. YYY are three spindles for moving the two fluted rollers, the rake, and fanners. To the description now given we have only to add, that the drum has a covering of wood Z at a small distance above it, for the purpose of keeping the sheaves close to the scutchers. The advantages of this machine are many. As the drum makes 300 revolutions in a minute, the four scutchers together make 1200 strokes in the same space of time. From such power and velocity, it is evident that much work must be performed. When the horses go at the rate of 2½ miles per hour, from 3 to 6 bolls will be thrashed; but as the quantity thrashed will be less when the straw is long than when it is short, we shall take the average at 4 bolls. The number of persons requisite for attending the mill when working is 6. One person drives the horses; a 2d hands the sheaves to a 3d who unties them, while a 4th spreads them on the inclined boards and presses them gently between the rollers; a 5th person is necessary to riddle the corn as it falls from the fanners, and a 6th to remove the straw. We add, on the authority of an experienced farmer, that

that of the six persons necessary to attend the thrashing machine, only two can in justice be charged to the account of the machine; namely, the person who manages the horses, and the one who feeds the machine: For in the usual mode of thrashing by the flail, it requires the same number of persons as the thrashing machine does to clear an equal quantity of corn from the chaff in the same time.

* **THRASHINGFLOOR.** *n. f.* An area on which corn is beaten.—

In vain the hinds the *thrashing-floor* prepare.

Dryden.

Delve of convenient depth your *thrashing-floor*.

Dryden.

THRASIDEUS, tyrant of AGRIGENTUM; the son and successor of **THERON**.

THRASIMENUS. See **THARSYMENUS**.

THRASO, an ancient Greek comedian.

* **THRASONICAL.** *adj.* [from **THRASO**, a boaster in old comedy.] Boastful; bragging.—His humour is lofty, his general behaviour vain, ridiculous, and *thrasonical*. *Shak.*

THRASYBULUS, a renowned Athenian general, and patriot, the deliverer of his country from the yoke of the 30 tyrants. He flourished about 294 B. C. See **ATTICA**, § 13, 15.

THRASYMACHUS, a Carthaginian, who was the pupil of **ISOCRATES** and **PLATO**, and became a public teacher at Athens, but, failing of the success he had expected, he hanged himself. *Juv.* vii. 204.

THRASYMEDES, a son of **NESTOR**, king of **PHYLOS**, by **ANAXIBIA**, daughter of **BIAS**; one of the Grecian chiefs who went against **TROY**. *Hggin.* *Pauf.* ii. c. 26.

THRASYMENUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Etruria, near **PERUSIUM**, and not far from the **Tiber**. A bloody battle was fought near its banks, between the Carthaginians under **HANNIBAL**, and the Romans under **FLAMINIUS**, A. U. C. 217, wherein **Hannibal** was completely victorious, 15,000 Romans being killed, and 15,000 taken prisoners, while 10,000 fled mostly wounded. *Liv. Polyb. Strabo*, §. This lake is now called the lake of **LAKE RUGIA**.

(1.) * **THRAVE.** *n. f.* [*thrafi*, Saxon.] 1. A herd; a drove. Out of use. 2. The number of two dozen. I know not how derived.

(2.) A **THRAVE OF CORN** contains 24 sheaves, or four shocks of six sheaves to the shock; though in some countries they only reckon 12 sheaves to the thrave.

(3.) * **THREAD.** *n. f.* [*thrad*, Saxon; *draed*, Dutch.] 1. A small line; a small twist; the rudiment of cloth.—

Let not **Bardolph's** vital *thread* be cut. *Shak.*—Though the slender *thread* of dyed silk single seem devoid of redness, yet when numbers of these *threads* are brought together, their colour becomes notorious. *Boyle.*—

He'll not receive a *thread*, but naked go.

Chopman.

—He who sat at a table but with a sword hanging over his head by one single *thread* or hair, surely had enough to check his appetite. *South.*—The art of pleasing is the skill of cutting to a *thread*, betwixt flattery and ill-manners. *L'Esrange.* 2. Any thing continued in a course; uniform tenor.

The fancy doth not always regularly follow the same even *thread* of discourse. *Burnet.*—Diseased are as they are more remote in the *thread* of the motion of the fluids. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) A **THREAD** is a small line made up of a number of fine fibres of any vegetable or animal substance, such as flax, cotton, or silk; from which it takes its name of linen, cotton, or silk thread.

(3.) **THREAD, BLEACHING OF.** Thread may be easily bleached by the *oxygenated muriatic acid* discovered by **SCHÉELE**, now more properly called **OXYMURIATIC ACID**. (See that article, § 1—3.) This acid whitens cloth remarkably well, and it is equally useful for bleaching thread. **M. Welter** formed at **Lille** an establishment for bleaching thread with great success. He found that 10 or 12 leys and as many immersions are required for some sorts of thread; and that the thread may be surrounded with the liquor, it is necessary to place it, quite loosely, in a basket, which permits the acid to penetrate to all its surfaces: when the liquor is much weakened, it is still fit to be used for the bleaching of cotton. See a Paper by **Berthollet**, in the *Annales de Chimie*, or a translation of it in the *Repert. of Arts*, vol. 1.

(4.) **THREAD, METHOD OF DYEING BLACK.** Linen and cotton thread may be dyed of a durable and deep black by solution of iron in beer, in which the linen is to be steeped for some time, and afterwards boiled in madder. See **DYEING**, Part II. *Scß.* II. and Part III. *Scß.* I.

* **TO THREAD.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To pass through with a thread.—The largest crooked needle, with a ligature of the size of that I have threaded it with. *Sharp.* 2. To pass through; to pierce through.—

Thus out of season *threading* dark-ey'd night.

Shak.

They would not *thread* the gates. *Shak.*

* **THREADBARE.** *adj.* [*thread* and *bare*.] 1. Deprived of the nap; wore to the naked threads.—

Threadbare coat, and cobbled shoes he wore.

Spenser.

—The clothier means to dress the commonwealth's so he had need; for 'tis *threadbare*. *Shak.*—

Will any freedom here from you be borne,

Whose clothes are *threadbare*? *Juv.*

He walk'd the streets, and wore a *threadbare* cloak.

Swift.

A Thracian slave the porter's place maintain'd,

Sworn foe to *threadbare* suppliants. *Harte.*

2. Worn out; trite.—

A *threadbare* juggler. *Shak.*

—Many writers of moral discourses run into *threadbare* quotations. *Swift.*—If he understood trade, he would not have mentioned this *threadbare* project. *Child.*

* **THREADEN.** *adj.* [from *thread*.] Made of thread.—

Behold the *threaden* sails. *Shak.*

* **TO THREAP.** *v. a.* A country word denoting to argue much or contend. *Ainsworth.*

* **THREAT.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] Menace; denunciation of ill.—

There is no terror, **Cassius**, in your threats.

Shak.

—The emperor perceiving that his threats were

U u a

little

little regarded, regarded little to threaten any more. *Hayward.*—

Do not believe

Those rigid threats of death. *Milton.*

* To THREAT. } *v. a. threaten, Saxon:*

* To THREATEN. } *threat is seldom used but in poetry.* 1. To menace; to denounce evil.—

Death to be with'd

Though threaten'd, which no worse than this can bring. *Milton.*

2. To menace; to terrify, or attempt to terrify, by shewing or denouncing evil. It has with before the thing threatened, if a noun; to, if a verb.

What threat you me with telling of the king?

Shak.

—Straitly threaten them. *As, iv. 18.*—

Wide gaping, and with utter loss of being

Threatens him. *Milton.*

This day black omens threat the brightest fair. *Pope.*

3. To menace by action.—

He threaten'd with his long protended spear.

Dryd.

Rowling from afar they threat the shore. *Dryd.*

* THREATENER. *n. f.* [from threaten.] Menacer; one that threatens —

Threaten the threatener. *Shakespeare.*

The fruit, it gives you life

To knowledge by the threat'ner. *Milton.*

(1.) * THREATENING. *n. f.* [from threaten.]

A menace; a denunciation of evil.—

To Lausus, loud with friendly threat'ning cry'd. *Dryden.*

—How impossible would it be for a master, that thus interceded with God for his servants, to use any unkind threatenings towards them. *Law.*

(2.) THREATENING LETTERS. Knowingly to send any letter without a name, or with a fictitious name, demanding money, or any other valuable thing, or threatening (without any demand) to kill or fire the house of any person, is made felony without benefit of clergy. And sending letters, threatening to accuse any person of a crime punishable with death, transportation, pillory, or other infamous punishment, with a view to extort from him any money or other valuable chattels, is punishable by statute 30 Geo. II. c. 24. at the discretion of the court, with fine, imprisonment, pillory, whipping, or transportation for seven years.

* THREATENINGLY. *adv.* [from threaten.]

With menace; in a threatening manner.—

The honour that thus flames in your fair eyes,

Before I speak, too threat'ningly replies. *Shak.*

* THREATFUL. *adj.* [threat and full.] Full of threats; menacing.—

Like a warlike brigandine applied

To fight, lays forth her threatful pikes afore.

Spenser.

(1.) * THREE. *adj.* [three, Saxon; dry, Dutch; tri, Welsh and Erle; tres, Lat.] 1 Two and one.—

Prove this a prosp'rous day, the three-nook'd world

Shall bear the olive freely. *Shak.*

—If you speak three words, it will three times report you the whole three words. *Bacon.*—

Great Atreus' sons, Tydides fixt above,
With three ag'd Nestor. *Creech's Manilius.*

Jove hurls the three fork'd thunder. *Addison.*
These three and three with other bands we ty'd. *Pope.*

Down to these worlds I trod the dismal way,
And dragg'd the three mouth'd dog to upper day. *Pope.*

—A frail needle, such as glovers use, with a three edged point, useful in sewing up dead bodies. *Sharp.* 2. Proverbially a small number.—

Away, thou three inch'd fool. *Shak.*

—A base, proud, shallow, beggarly, three suited, filthy, worsted stocking knave. *Shak.*

(2.) THREE BRETHREN, in geography, a triple-headed hill of Scotland, in Selkirkshire; 19½ feet above the sea level, 3 miles NW. of Selkirk.

(3.) THREE-BROTHERS, 3 islands in the Indian Ocean. Lon. 62. 25. E. Lat. 3. 44. S.

(4.) THREE BROTHERS, 3 other islands, in the E. Indian Sea. Lon. 108. 0. E. Lat. 10. 42. N.

(5.) THREE CASTLE HEAD, a Cape of Ireland, on the Coast of Cork, Munster, near Mizen Head.

(6.) THREE FACES UNDER A HOOD, in botany, a species of VIOLA.

(7.) THREE HILLS ISLAND, one of the New Hebrides, in the S. Pacific Ocean, remarkable for its three hills, on the S. of Malicollo.

(8.) THREE KINGS, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, on the N. coast of New Zealand, discovered by Taiman. Lon. 172. 12. E. Lat. 34. 15. S.

(9.) THREE LORDS, a town of S. Wales, in Caermarthenshire; with two fairs on Holy Thursday, and Nov. 12.

(10.) THREE MILE WATER, a river of Ireland, in Down county, Ulster; which runs into Carrick-Fergus Bay.

(11.) THREE RIVERS HARBOUR, a bay and port, on the E. coast of the island of St John, in the Gulf of St Laurence, where the mouths of three rivers meet. Lon. 62. 10. W. Lat. 46. 8. N.

(12.) THREE, RULE OF. See ARITHMETIC, Index.

(13.) THREE SISTERS, 3 remarkable hills of Ireland, on the isthmus between Smerewick and Ferritor's Creek, in Kerry, Munster.

* THREEFOLD. *adj.* [threefold, Saxon.] Thrice repeated; consisting of three.—A threefold cord is not easily broken. *Ecclesi. iv. 12.*—By a threefold justice the world hath been governed from the beginning. *Raleigh.*—

A threefold offering to his altar bring. *Pope.*

* THREEPENCE. *n. f.* [three and pence.] A small silver coin valued at thrice a penny.—

A threepence bow'd would hire me. *Shak.*

—I made an elear the compass of a threepence. *Wifeman.*

* THREEPENNY. *adj.* [triobolaris, Lat.] Vulgar; mean.

* THREEPILE. *n. f.* [three and pile.] An old name for good velvet.—I, in my time, wore threepile. *Shak.*

* THREEPILED. *adj.* Set with a thick pile; in another place it seems to mean piled on another.—Thou art good velvet; thou'rt a threepiled price. *Shak.*—

Threepiled hyperboles. *Shak.*

* THREESCORE. *adj.* [three and score.] Thrice twenty; sixty.—

Threescore and ten I can remember well. *Shak.*
—Ther

—Their lives before the flood were abbreviated after it, and contracted into hundreds and *three-scores*. *Brown*.—

We their sons, a pamper'd race of men,
Are dwindled down to *three-score* years and ten. *Dryden*.

THREICIA, an ancient name of **THRACE**; whence

THREICIUS, and **THREICIUS SACERDOS**, epithets of **ORPHEUS**. *Virg. Æn. vi. 645*.

THREISSA, an epithet of **HARPALYCE**. *Æn. i.*

(1.) * **THRENODY**. *n. f.* [*Threnodia*.] A song of lamentation.

(2.) **THRENODY**, or the *Muses Threnodie*, an ancient Poem by Mr *James Adamson*, containing many historical notices of Perth; and other places in Scotland. It was republished with learned historical Notes, by the late Mr *James Cant*, in 1775.

THREPSIPPAS, a son of **Hercules** by **Panope**. *Apollod.*

To **THRESH**. See **To THRASH**.

* **THRESHER**. *n. f.* [properly *thrasher*.]

Here too the *thresher* brandishing his flail. *Doddsley*.

(1.) * **THRESHING**. See **To THRASH**.—

On the *threshing*-floor his sheaves prove chaff. *Milton*.

—Gideon was taken from *threshing*, as well as *Cincinnatus* from the plough, to command armies. *Locke*.

(2.) **THRESHING**. See **THRASHING**.

* **THRESHOLD**. *n. f.* [*threswold*, Saxon.]

The ground or step under the door; entrance; gate; door.—

Fair marching forth in honourable wife,
Him at the *threshold* met. *Spenser*.

Many men, that stumble at the *threshold*. *Shakefp.*

At hell's dark *threshold* 'have sat watch. *Milt.*
Before the starry *threshold* of Jove's court. *Milton*.

There fought the queen's apartment, stood before

The peaceful *threshold*. *Dryden*.

* **THREW**, preterite of *throw*.—

A broken rock the force of *Pyrrhus threw*. *Pope*.

THRIAMBUS, a surname of **Bacchus**.

* **THRICE**. *adv.* [from *three*.] 1. Three times.

Thrice he assayed it from his foot to draw,
And *thrice* in vain to draw it did assay. *Spenser*.

Thrice within this hour

I saw him down; *thrice* up again. *Shak.*

Thrice did he knock his iron teeth; *thrice* howl. *Cowley*.

2. A word of amplification.—

Thrice noble lord, let me intreat of you. *Shakefp.*

Thrice and four times happy those. *Dryden*.

* **To THRID**. *v. a.* [this is corrupted from *thrad*; in French *enfiler*.] To slide through a narrow passage.—

Some *thrid* the mazy ringlets of her hair. *Pope*.

(1.) * **THRIFT**. *n. f.* [from *thrive*.] 1. Profit;

gain; riches gotten; state of prospering.—He came out with all his clowns, so furnished, as I thought with myself if that were *thrifty*, I wist

none of my friends or subjects ever to thrive. *Sidney*.—

Make them dreaded to the deer's *thrift*. *Shak.*

I have a mind prefaces me such *thrift*; *Shak.*

That I should be fortunate. *Shak.*

Thrift may follow fawning. *Shak.*

2. Parsimony; frugality; good husbandry.—The

rest willing to fall to *thrift*, prove very good hus-

bands. *Spenser*.—Out of the present sparing and

untimely *thrift*, there grow many future incon-

veniences. *Raleigh*.—

Heaven, though all-sufficient, shows a *thrift*

In his oeconomy, and bounds his gift. *Dryden*.

3. A plant.—

(2.) **THRIFT**, in botany. See **STATICE**.

* **THRIFTILY**. *adv.* [from *thrifty*.] Frugally;

parsimoniously.—Cromartie after fourscore went

to his country-house to live *thriftily*, and save up

money. *Swift*.

* **THRIFTINESS**. *n. f.* [from *thrifty*.] Fru-

gality; husbandry.—

Small pains but *thriftness* to save. *Spenser*.

—Such need no great *thriftness* in preserving their own, who assume more liberty in exacting from others. *Wotton*.

* **THRIFTLESS**. *adj.* [from *thrift*.] Profuse; extravagant.—

They in idle pomp and wanton play

Consumed had their goods and *thrifless* hours. *Spenser*.

He shall spend mine honour with his shame,

As *thrifless* sons their scraping fathers' gold. *Shak.*

* **THRIFTY**. *adj.* [from *thrift*.] 1. Frugal;

sparing; not profuse; not lavish.—

Let *thrifty* do, as do they should. *Tusser*.

Like a *thrifty* goddess she determines

Herself the glory of a creditor. *Shak.*

The *thrifty* goddess,

For fear young master should be spoil'd,

Would use him like a younger child. *Swift*.

—I am glad he has so much youth and vigour left,

of which he hath not been *thrifty*. *Swift*. 2. Well-

husbanded.—

I have five hundred crowns,

The *thrifty* hire I sav'd under your father. *Shak.*

(1.) * **To THRILL**. *v. a.* [*thyrlian*, Saxon; *drilla*, Swedish.] To pierce; to bore; to penetrate;

to drill.—

The cruel word her tender heart to *thrill'd*.

Spenser.

He pierced through his chafed chest

With *thrilling* point of deadly iron. *Spenser*.

A servant *thrill'd* with remorse. *Shak.*

The airy region *thrilling*. *Milton*.

(2.) * **To THRILL**. *v. n.* 1. To have the quali-

ty of piercing.—

The knight his *thrillant* spear again assay'd,

In his brass-plated body to emboss. *Spenser*.

With that, one of his *thrillant* darts he threw. *Spenser*.

2. To pierce or wound the ear with a sharp sound.

The piteous maiden, careful, comfortless,

Does throw out *thrilling* shrieks. *Spenser*.

3. To feel a sharp tingling sensation.—

'To *thrill* and shake,

Ev'n at the crying of our nation's crow. *Shak.*

—Doth not thy blood *thrill* at it? *Shak.* 4. To

pass with a tingling sensation.—

A faint cold fear *thrills* through my veins.

Shak.

A sudden horror chill

Ran through each nerve, and *thrill'd* in every vein.

Addison.

THRILLANT. *part. act.* Thrilling. *Spenser.*
Obsolete.

THRIN, a river of England, in Norfolkshire, which runs into the Yare, at Yarmouth.

THRINAX, SMALL JAMAICA FAN-PALM, in botany; a genus of plants belonging to the natural class of *palme*, and order of *flabellifoliz*. The calyx is sexdentate; there is no corolla; there are six stamina; the stigma is emarginate, and the berry monospermous. This plant was brought from Jamaica to Kew garden by Dr William Wright.

THRIPS, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *hemiptera*. The rostrum is obscure, or so small as to be scarce perceptible. The antennæ are filiform, and as long as the thorax. The body is slender, and of equal thickness in its whole length. The abdomen is reflexible, or bent upwards. The four wings are extended, incumbent upon the back of the insect, narrow in proportion to their length, and cross one another at the same distance from their base. The tarsi of the feet are composed of only two articulations. There are eleven species mentioned by Gmelin; of which three are natives of Britain; viz.

1.—3. **THRIPS PASCIAȚA**, **JUNIPERANA**, and **PHYSAPUS**.

THRIVE. See **THRAIVE**.

* To **THRIVE**. *v. n. pret. throve*, and some times less properly *thrived*, *part. thriven*. [Of this word there is found no satisfactory etymology: in the northern dialect they use *throdde*, to make grow; perhaps *throve* was the original word, from *thraa*, *Islandic*, to increase.] To prosper; to grow rich; to advance in any thing desired.—

The better thou *thrivest*, the gladder am I.

Tupper.

If lord Percy *thrive* not, ere the king

Dismiss his power, he means to visit us. *Shak.*

—It grew amongst bushes, where commonly plants do not *thrive*. *Bacon.*

They by vices *thrive*.

Sandys.

Satan, our great author *thrives*

In other worlds.

Milton's Par. Lost.

—Those who have resolved upon the *thriving* sort of piety, seldom embark all their hopes in one bottom, *Decay of Piety*.—A careful shepherd observes the *thriving* of every one. *Decay of Piety*.

—To be and to *thrive* is all one with them. *South.*

To see the rebel *thrive*, the loyal crost. *Dryd.*
—Seldom a *thriving* man turns his land into money. *Locke.*

The *thriving* calves in meads. *Dryden's Virg.*

On air the poor camcleons *thrive*,

Denied ev'n that my love can live. *Granville.*

—The city charities have *thriven* and prospered. *Atterbury.*

The rank weed *thrive'd* with large increase.

Pope.

—Diligence and humility is the way to *thrive* in the riches of the understanding. *Watts.*—They can no more *thrive* together than health and sickness. *Lowe.*

* **THRIVER.** *n. f.* [from *thrive*.] One that prospers; one that grows rich.—He was like to prove a *thriver* in the end. *Hayward.*

* **THRIVINGLY.** *adv.* [from *thriving*.] In a prosperous way.

* **'THRO'**, contracted by barbarians from *through*.—

Scatter'd *thro'* the world.

Dryden.

(1.) * **THROAT.** [*throate*, *throta*, Sax.] 1. The fore part of the neck; the passages of nutriment and breath.—

The gold, I give thee, will I melt and pour
Down thy ill-uttering *throat*. *Shak.*

I had most need of blessing, and amen

Stuck in my *throat*.

Shak. Macbeth.

Lariffa's gutturals convuls'd his *throat*. *Harte.*

2. The main road of any place.—

Calm and intrepid in the very *throat*

Of sulphurous war.

Thomson.

3. To cut the **THROAT.** To murder; to kill by violence.—These bred up amongst the Englishmen, when they become kern, are made more fit to cut their *throats*. *Spenser.*—A trumpeter was made prisoner, when the soldiers were about to cut his *throat*. *L'Estrange.*

(2.) **THROAT.** See **ANATOMY**, *Index*, at **NECK** and **THORAX**.

* **THROATPIPE.** *n. f.* [*throat* and *pipe*.] The weasel; the windpipe.

(1.) * **THROATWORT.** *n. f.* [*throat* and wort; *digitalis*.] A plant.

(2.) **THROAT-WORT.** See **CAMPANULA**.

* **THROB.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] Heave; beat; stroke of palpitation.—

She sigh'd from bottom of her wounded
breast,

And after many bitter *throbs* did throw. *Spenser.*

Th' impatient *throbs* and longings of a soul,
That pants and reaches after distant good. *Cate.*

* To **THROB.** *v. n.* [from *throbus*, *Minshew* and *Junius*; formed in imitation of the sound, *Skinner*; perhaps contracted from *throb up*.] 1. To heave; to beat; to rise as the breast with sorrow or distress.

Here may his head live on my *throbbing*
breast. *Shak.*

My heart *throbs* to know one thing. *Shak.*

It *throbs* with fear.

Addison.

How my *throbbing* heart

Leapt to the image of my father's joy! *Smilh.*

2. To beat; to palpitate.—In the depending office there was a *throbbing* of the arterial blood, as in an aneurism. *Wileman.*

* **THROE.** *n. f.* [from *throwian*, to suffer, Sax.]

1. The pain of travail; the anguish of bringing children: it is likewise written *throu*.—

Lucina lent not me her bed,

But took me in my *throes*. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

—His persuasive and practical tract cost him most *throes*. *Fell.*

Prodigious motion felt and rueful *throes*. *Milt.*

My *throes* come thicker, and my cries. *Dryd.*

—Reflect on that day, when earth shall be again in travail with her sons, and at one fruitful *throe* bring forth all generations. *Rogers.* 2. Any extreme agony; the final and mortal struggle.—

Have mind of that most bitter *throe*. *Spenser.*

Their pangs of love, with other incident *throes*

In life's uncertain voyage. *Shak. Timon.*

* To

* *To THRONE*. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To put in agonies.—

The setting of thine eye and cheek proclaim a birth,

Which throes thee much to yield. *Shak. Temp.*
THROGGY, a river of England, in Monmouthshire, which runs into the Severn, 4 miles SW. of Chepstow.

(1.) * **THRONE**. *n. f.* [*thronus*, Latin; *tronos*.] 1. A royal seat; the seat of a king.—

Th' utimely emptying of the happy throne,
 And fall of many kings. *Shak. Macbeth.*

Th' eternal Father from his throne beheld
 Their multitude. *Milton.*

A throne where kings were crown'd. *Dryden.*
 —We have now upon the throne a king willing
 and able to correct abuses. *Davenant.* 2. The

seat of a bishop.—Bishops preached on the steps
 of the altar standing, having not as yet assumed
 the state of a throne. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) A **THRONE** is a chair of state, enriched
 with ornaments of architecture and sculpture,
 raised on one or more steps, and covered with a
 canopy. Such are the thrones in the rooms of
 audience of kings and other sovereigns.

* *To THRONE*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To en-
 throne; to set on a royal seat.—

They have, whom their great stars
Thron'd and set high. *Shak.*

True image of the father, whether *thron'd*
 In the bosom of bliss and light of light. *Milton.*
 He *thron'd* in glass and nam'd it Caroline.

Pope.
THRONES, *n. f. plur.* in angelology and the-
 ology, a class, rank, or order of angels. See
ANGEL, § 7.

* **THRONG**. *n. f.* [*throng*, Saxon, from *thringan*,
to press.] A crowd; a multitude pressing against
 each other.—

Smother up the English in our throngs. *Shak.*
 A throng

Of thick short fobs. *Crashaw.*
 I with the throng of great and good. *Waller.*

Observ'd th' illustrious throng. *Dryden's Æn.*

(1.) * *To THRONG*. *v. a.* To oppress or incom-
 mode with crowds or tumults.—

Thou wilt be *throng'd* too shortly. *Shak.*

—The multitude *throng* thee. *Luke viii. 45.*
 All access was *throng'd*. *Milton.*

(2.) * *To THRONG*. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To
 crowd; to come in tumultuous multitudes.—

The dumb men *throng* to see him. *Shak.*

—His mother could not longer bear the agitations
 of so many passions as *throng'd* upon her. *Taller.*

(1.) **THRONIUM**, an ancient town of Phocis,
 seated at the mouth of the Boagrus, where that
 river falls into the Sinus Maliacus. *Liv. 36. c. 20.*
Strabo, ix. Plin. iv. c. 7.

(2.) **THRONIUM**, a town of Thesprotia.

(1.) * **THROSTLE**. *n. f.* [*throffle*, Saxon.]
 The thrush; a small singing bird.—

The *throffle* with his note so true. *Shak.*

—The blackbird and *throffle*. *Walton.*

(2.) **THROSTLE**, in ornithology. See **TURDUS**.

* **THROTTLE**. *n. f.* [from *throat*.] The
 windpipe.—At the upper extreme it hath no
 larynx or *throffle* to qualify the sound. *Brown.*

* *To THROTTLE*. *v. a.* [from the sound.] To

choak; to suffocate; to kill' by stopping the
 breath.—

I have seen them shiver and look pale,
Throttle their practis'd accents. *Shak.*

As when Antæus in Ircassa rove
 With Jove's Alcides, and oft foil'd still rose,
Throttled at length in th' air, expir'd and fell.

Milton.
 His throat half *throttled*. *Dryden.*

The *throttling* quinsiey 'tis my star appoints. *Dryden.*

Throttle thyself with an ell of strong tape. *Swift.*

* **THROVE**, the preterite of *thrive*.—England
 never *throve* so well, nor was there ever brought
 into England so great an increase of wealth since.
Locke.

(1.) * **THROUGH**. *prep.* [*thurh*, Saxon; *door*,
 Dutch; *durch*, German.] 1. From end to end
 of; along the whole mass or compass.—He hath
 led their belief *through* all the works of nature.
Brown.

A simplicity shines *through* all he writes. *Dryden.*

Fame of th' asserted sea *through* Europe blown. *Dryden.*

2. Noting passage.—
Through the gate of iv'ry. *Dryden.*

—I removed the prism out of the sun's light, and
 looking *through* it upon the hole. *Newton.* 3.

By transmission.—*Through* these hands this science
 has passed with great applause. *Temple.*—Material
 things are presented only *through* their senses:

they have a real influx on these, and all real know-
 ledge of material things conveyed into the under-
 standing *through* these senses. *Cicero.* 4. By means
 of; by agency of; in consequence of.—

The strong *through* pleasure soonest falls, the
 weak *through* smart. *Spenser.*

Something you may deserve of him *through*
 me. *Shak.*

—*Through* idleness of the hands the house drop-
 peth *through*. *Eccles. x.*—You will not debar such
 from preaching the gospel, as have *through* infir-
 mity fallen. *Whitgift.*

Some *through* ambition; or *through* thirst of
 gold,

Have slain their brothers. *Dryden.*
Through him soft peace and plenitude of joy.

(2.) * **THROUGH**. *adv.* 1. From one end or
 side to the other.—

You'd be so lean, that blasts of January
 Would blow you *through* and *through*. *Shak.*

—Metal may be tinged *through* and *through*. *Bacon.*

Satire runs him *through* and *through*. *Oldham.*

—Read the whole letter *through*, from one end to
 the other. *Locke.* 2. To the end of any thing;

to the ultimate purpose; to the final conclusion,
 —He shall meet with another light, which shall
 carry him quite *through*. *South.*

* **THROUGHBRED**. *adj.* [*through* and *bred*,
 commonly *thoroughbred*.] Completely educated;

completely taught.—A *throughbred* soldier weighs
 all possible contingents. *Green.*

* **THROUGHTLIGHTED**. *adj.* [*through* and
light.] Lighted on both sides.—Rooms windowed
 on both ends, called *throughlighted*. *Watson.*

* **THROUGHLY**.

*** THROUGHLY.** *adv.* [from *through*. It is commonly written *thoroughly*, as coming from *thorough*.] 1. Completely; fully; entirely; wholly. 2. The fight so *thoroughly* him dismay'd. *Spenser*. All *thoroughly* satisfied with compleat cheare.

Chapman.

—Rice must be *thoroughly* boiled. *Bacon*.—No less wisdom than what made the world can *thoroughly* understand so vast a design. *Tillotson*. 2. Without reserve; sincerely.—It be somewhat singular for men truly and *thoroughly* to live up to the principles of their religion. *Tillotson*.

(1.) *** THROUGHOUT.** *prep.* [*through* and *out*.] Quite *through*; in every part of.—Thus it fareth even clean *throughout* the whole controversy. *Hooker*.—Avoiding of all Spanish forces *throughout* Ireland. *Bacon*.—

O for a clap of thunder, as loud
As to be heard *throughout* the universe.

Ben Jonson.

—Inquire how we have behaved ourselves *throughout* this long war. *Atterbury*.

(2.) *** THROUGHOUT.** *adv.* Everywhere; in every part.—

Subdue it, and *throughout* dominion hold.

Milton.

All of a piece *throughout*.
*** THROUGHPACED.** *adj.* [*through* and *pace*.] Perfect; complete.—*Througpaced* speculators in those great theories. *More*.

*** THROW.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A cast; the act of casting or throwing.—

A huge rocke, and so right a *throw*
Made at our ship, that just before the prow
It overflow and fell. *Chapman*.

He heav'd a stone, and rising to the *throw*.
Addison.

2. A cast of dice; the manner in which the dice fall, when they are cast.—

The greater *throw*
May turn by fortune from the weaker hand. *Shak*.

—All is involved in the error of one *throw*. *South*.
—It is many million of millions odds to one against any single *throw*. *Bentley*.—

The world, where lucky *throws* to blockheads fall,

Knaves know the game, and honest men pay all. *Young*.

3. The space to which any thing is thrown.—

I've tumbled past the *throw*. *Shak*.

—Sharp rocks that stand about a stone's *throw* from the south side of the island. *Addison*.

4. Stroke; blow.—

Neither mail could hold,
Ne shield defend the thunder of his *throws*. *Spenser*.

5. Effort; violent fall.—

The *throws* and swellings of a Roman soul;
Cato's bold flights. *Addison*.

6. The agony of child-birth; in this sense it is written *throce*. See **THROE**.—The most pregnant wit in the world never brings forth any thing great without some pain and travail, pangs and *throws*, before the delivery. *South*.—

The mother's *throws* begin to come. *Dryden*.

To the wond'ring world I shall disclose;

Or, if he fail me, perish in my *throws*. *Dryden*.

(1.) *** To THROW**, preterite *throw*, part. pass. *thrown*. *v. a.* [*throwan*, Sax.] To fling; to cast; to send to a distant place by any projectile force. —Prelanes *throw* down upon the Turks fire and scalding oil. *Knolles*.—Shimei *throw* stones at him. 2 Sam. xvi. 23.—A poor widow *throw* in two mites. *Mark* xii. 42.—

Thrown by angry Jove. *Milton*.

—Though we wipe away the dirt *thrown* at us, there will be left some sullage. *Decay of Piety*.—Time had *thrown* the writings of many poets into the river of oblivion. *Dryden*.—

When Ajax strives some rock's vast weight
to *throw*,

The line too labours, and the words move slow. *Pope*.

—The air-pump, barometer, and quadrant, were *thrown* out to those busy spirits. *Speil*. 2. To toss; to put with any violence or tumult. It always comprises the idea of haste, force, or negligence.—

He melts, and *throws* his cumbrous cloak
away. *Dryden*.

—The only means for bringing France to our conditions, is to *throw* in multitudes upon them. *Addison*.—Labour *throws* off redundancies. *Speil*.

—Make room for merit, by *throwing* down the worthless. *Speil*.—The island Inarime contains, within 18 miles, a variety of hills, vales, rocks, fruitful plains, and barren mountains, all *thrown* together in a most romantick confusion. *Berkely*. 3. To lay carelessly, or in haste.—His majesty *throw* himself upon his bed. *Clarendon*.—

On the first friendly bank he *throws* him
down,

Or rests his head upon a rock till morn. *Cato*.

4. To venture at dice.—

Set less than thou *throwest*. *Shak*.

5. To cast; to strip; to put off.—

The snake *throws* the enamell'd skin. *Shak*.

6. To emit in any careless or vehement manner.—

To arms; for I have *thrown*

A brave defiance in king Henry's teeth. *Shak*.
—How much more they would have been alarmed if they had heard him actually *throwing* out such a storm of eloquence? *Addison*.—There is no need to *throw* words of contempt on such a practice. *Watts*.

7. To spread in haste.—

O'er his fair limbs a flow'ry vest he *throws*. *Pope*.

8. To overturn in wrestling.—The finner shall not only wrestle with this angel, but *throw* him too. *South*.

9. To drive; to send by force.—

Debar'd from Europe, and from Asia *thrown*. *Dryden's Æs*.

—When seamen are *thrown* upon any unknown coast in America, they never venture upon the fruit of any tree. *Addison*.—

How canst thou *throw* him from thee? *Addison*.

10. To make to act at a distance.—

Throw out your eyes for brave Othello. *Shak*.

11. To repose.—In time of temptation, *throw* yourself on God. *Taylor*.

12. To change by any kind of violence.—An unsuspected success *throws* us out of ourselves. *Addison*.—To *throw* his language more out of prose, Homer affects the compound epithets. *Pope*.

13. To turn. [*turnere*, Latin.] As balls *thrown* in a lathe. *Disfworth*.

14. *To Throw away.* To lose; to spend in vain.
To throw herself away on fools and knaves.
Osway.
In vain on study time *away* we *throw.* *Denh.*
—A man had better *throw away* his care upon
 any thing than upon a garden on wet ground.
Temple.

Had we but lasting youth and time to spare,
 Some might be *thrown away* on fame and war.
Dryden.

Was too fierce to *throw away* the time. *Dryd.*
 The next in place and punishment are they
 Who prodigiously *throw* their souls *away.* *Dryd.*

—In poetry the expression beautifies the design;
 if it be vicious or displeasing, the cost of colouring
 is *thrown away* upon it. *Dryden.*—The well-mean-
 ing man should rather consider what opportunities
 he has of doing good to his country, than *throw*
away his time. *Addison.*—She *threw away* her
 money upon roaring bullies. *John Bull.* 15. *To*
Throw away. To reject.—He that will *throw*
away a good book because not gilded, is more cu-
 rious to please his eye than understanding. *Taylor.*
 16. *To Throw by.* To reject; to lay aside as of
 no use.—

When things succeed, *throw by.* *B. Jonf.*
—He that begins to have any doubt of his tenets,
 ought to *throw wholly by* all his former notions.
Locke. 17. *To Throw down.* To subvert; to
 overturn.—

Must one rash word, th' infirmity of age,
Throw down the merit of my better years? *Add.*
 18. *To Throw off.* To expel.—The salts and
 oils in the animal body, as soon as they putrefy,
 are *thrown off.* *Arbuth.* 19. *To Throw off.* To
 reject; to discard; as, *to throw off an acquaintance.*
'T would be better

Then to *throw* him off. *Dryden.*
—Can there be any reason why the household of
 God alone should *throw off* all that orderly de-
 pendence and duty? *Spratt.* 20. *To Throw out.*
 To exert; to bring forth into act.—

She *throw out* thrilling flirts. *Spenser.*
Throw out into practice
 Virtues which shun the day. *Addison.*

21. *To Throw out.* To distance; to leave behind.
 Whene'er did Juba, or did Porteus, show
 A virtue that has cast me at a distance,
 And *thrown me out* in the pursuit of honour.
Addison.

22. *To Throw out.* To reject; to expel.—The
 other two whom they had *thrown out.* *Swift.*
 23. *To Throw out.* To reject; to exclude.—The
 bill was *thrown out.* *Swift.* 24. *To Throw up.*
 To resign angrily.—

Bad games are *thrown up* too soon. *Hudibras.*
—Experienced gamblers *throw up* their cards
 when the game is in the enemy's hand. *Addison.*
—Life must not be *thrown up* in a pet. *Collier.*
 25. *To Throw up.* To enlist; to reject; to bring
 up.—Judge of the cause by the substances the pa-
 tient *throws up.* *Arbuthnot.* 26. This is one of
 the words which is used with great latitude; but
 in all its uses, whether literal or figurative, it re-
 tains from its primitive meaning some notion of
 haste or violence.

(1.) * *To Throw.* v. z. To perform the act
 Vol. XXII. Part II.

of casting. 2. To cast dice. 3. *To Throw*
about. To cast about; to try expedients.—
 For better wind *about* to *throw.* *Spenser.*

* *THROWER.* n. f. [from *throw.*] One that
 throws.—

Thy person for the *thrower* out
 Of my poor babe. *Shak.*
 * *THRUM.* n. f. [*thrum*, Islandick, the end of
 any thing.] 1. The ends of weavers threads. 2.
 Any coarse yarn.—

There's her *thrum* hat, and her muffler too.
Shak.

O fates, come, come,
 Cut thread and *thrum.* *Shak.*

—Moss hath little stalks, besides low *thrum.* *Bac.*
 Would our *thrum-cap'd* ancestors find fault
 For want of sugar-tongs, or spoons for salt?

King.
 * *To THRUM.* v. a. To grate; to play coar-
 sely.—Blunderbusses planted in every loop hole, go
 off constantly at the *thrumming* of a guitar. *Dryd.*
THRUMBEAP, a small circular island, in the
 S. Pacific Ocean, a mile in circuit. Lon. 130. 48.
 W. Lat. 18. 35. S.

(1.) * *THRUSH.* n. f. [*thrife*, Sax. *turdus*, Lat.]
 1. A small singing-bird.—Of singing-birds they
 have linnets, goldfinches, and *thrushes.* *Carew.*—
 Pain, and a fine *thrush*, have been endeavouring
 to call off my attention. *Pope.* 2. [From *thruff*:
 as we say, a *puff*; a *breaking out*.] By this name
 are called small, round, superficial ulcerations,
 which appear first in the mouth; the nearer they
 approach to a white colour the less dangerous.
Arbuthnot.

(2.) *THRUSH*, in ornithology. See *TURDUS*.

(3.) *THRUSH*, or *APHTHA.* See *APHTHÆ*, and
MEDICINE, Index.

THRUSHEL, a river of England, in Devon-
 shire, which runs into the Tamer, opposite Laun-
 ceston.

THRUSK, or *THIRSK.* See *THIRSK.*

* *THIRUST.* n. f. [from the verb.] 1. Hostile
 attack with any pointed weapon.—Zelmane bo-
 gan with witty fury to pursue him with blows
 and *thrusts.* *Sidney.*—

That *thrust* had been mine enemy. *Shak.*
 Pyrrhus, with his lance, pursues,
 And often reaches, and his *thrusts* renews. *Dryd.*
 2. Assault; attack.—There is one *thrust* at your
 pure, pretended mechanism. *More.*

(1.) * *To THRUST.* v. a. [*trufito*, Lat.] 1. To
 push any thing into matter, or between close
 bodies.—*Thrust* in thy sickle and reap. *Rev. xv.*
 35. 2. To push; to move with violence; to
 drive. It is used of persons or things.—They
 should not be *thrust* out. *Spenser.*—

When the king comes, offer him no violence,
 Unless he seek to *thrust* you out. *Shak.*
 Lock up my doors; and when you hear the
 drum,

North *thrust* your head into the public streets. *Shak.*
—She thrust herself unto the wall. *Numb. xxii. 12.*
—On this condition, that I may *thrust* out all
 your right eyes, 1 Sam. xi. 2.—Gehazi came near
 to *thrust* her away. 2 Kings, iv. 27.—The prince
 shall not take of the people's inheritance, by op-
 pression, to *thrust* them out. *Isa. xlv. 18.*—Thou
 Capernaum,

Capernaum, shalt be *thrust* down to hell. *Luke*, xi. 15.—Rich, then lord chancellor, a man of quick and lively delivery of speech, but prone to *thrust* forwards the ruin of great persons. *Hayau*—

And *thrust* out Collatine, *Dryden*—

To justify his throat, he *thrusts* aside

The crowd of centaurs. *Dryden*—

3. To stab.—Phineas *thrust* both of them through. *Numb*, xxv. 8. 4. To compress.—He *thrust* the pieces together. *Judg*, vi. 38. 5. To impel; to urge.—As if we were villains on necessity, and all that we are evil in, by a divine *thrusting* on. *Shak*. 6. To obtrude; to intrude.—

How dare you *thrust* yourselves

Into my private meditations? *Shak*.

I go to meet

The noble Brutus, *thrusting* this report
Into his ears. *Shak*. *Julius Cæsar*.

—Should he not do as rationally, who took physic from any one who had taken on himself the name of physician, or *thrust* himself into that employment. *Locke*.

(2.) * *To Thrust*, *v. n.* 1. To make a hostile push; to attack with a pointed weapon. 2. To squeeze in; to put himself into any place by violence.—

When in heaven, I'll stand next Hercules,

And *thrust* between my father and the god. *Dryd*.

3. To intrude.—

Not all,

Who like intruders *thrust* into their service,
Participate their sacred influence. *Rome*.

4. To push forwards; to come violently; to throng; to press.—

Young, old, *thrust* there. *Chapm*. *Ods*.
—The miserable men were again beaten forward, and presently slain, and fresh men still *thrust* on. *Kroll*.

* *THRUSTER*, *n. s.* [from *thrust*.] He that thrusts.

(1.) * *THRUSTLE*, *n. s.* [from *thrust*.] Thrush; thrush.—

No *thrustles* shrill the bramble forsake. *Gay*.

(2.) *THRUSTLE*. See *TURDUS*.

THRYALLIS, in botany; a genus of plants belonging to the class of *decandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural method ranging under the 38th order, *Tricocca*. The calyx is quinquepartite; there are 5 petals, and the capsule is trilocular. There is only one species known, viz.

* *THRYALLIS BRASILIENSIS*, a native of Brazil.

* *To THRYFALLOW*, *v. a.* [*thrice* and *fallow*.]
To give the third plowing in summer.—

Thryfallow betime for destroying of weeds. *Tus*.

THRYON, an ancient town of Messenia, near the banks of the Alpheus. *Hom*. *Il*. ii. *Strabo* viii.

THRYUS, an ancient town of Peloponnesus, near Elis. *Lempr*.

THUANUS, Jacobus Augustus, or James Augustus Dr Thou, youngest son of the president de Thou, was famous for the depth and erudition of his works. He was born in 1553; and having finished his studies and travels, was made president a-Mortier, and took possession thereof in 1595. He was employed in several important offices of state, and in reforming the university of Paris; which he discharged with so much prudence that he was esteemed the *Cato* of his age,

and the ornament of France. He wrote the *history of his own time*, in Latin, from 1543 to 1603, in 138 books; a work, both for subject and style, worthy of the ancients. He also left *Memoirs of his own life*, besides *poems*; and died at Paris, 1617.

THUCLES, the leader of the first Greek colony who settled in Sicily. See *SICILY*, § 6.

THUCYDIDES, a celebrated Greek historian, born at Athens 471 years B. C. He was the son of Olorus, and grandson of Miltiades, who was descended from MILTIADÆS the famous Athenian general, who married the king of Thrace's daughter. (See *MILTIADES*, N° 1.) He was educated in philosophy and eloquence. His master in the former was ANAXAGORAS, in the latter ANTIPHON; one, by his description in the 8th book of his History, for power of speech almost a miracle, and feared by the people on that account. Suidas and Photius mention, that when Herodotus related his history in public, a custom then common, and many ages after, Thucydides felt such a pang of emulation, that he shed tears; Herodotus himself noticed it, and congratulated his father on having a son who showed so early an affection to the Muses. Herodotus was then 29 years of age, Thucydides about 15. When the Peloponnesian war broke out, Thucydides thinking it would prove a subject worthy of his labour; immediately began to keep a journal. This explains the reason why he has attended more to chronological order than to unity of design. During the war he was sent by his countrymen to relieve AMPHIPS; but the quick march of Brasidas, the Lacedæmonian general, defeated his operations; and Thucydides being thus unsuccessful, was banished from Athens, in the 8th year of this celebrated war; but during his banishment the general began to write an impartial history of the important events which had happened during his administration, and which still continued to agitate the states of Greece. This famous history is continued only to the 21st year of the war, and the remaining part of the time till the demolition of the walls of Athens, was described by Theopompus and Xenophon. Thucydides wrote in the Attic dialect, which has most vigour, purity, elegance, and energy. Thucydides died at Athens, where he had been recalled from his exile about 411 years B. C. The best edition of his works are those of Oxford, in fol. 1696, and of Dürer. Amst. 1731, also fol.

THUEYE, a town of France, in the dept. of Ardeche, 18 miles W. of Privas.

THUJA, in botany, the *ARBOR VITÆ*, or TREE OF LIFE, a genus of plants, belonging to the class of *monodelphia*, and order of *monœcia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 51st order, *Coneifera*. There are four species, viz.

1. *THUJA APYLLA*; } but the most remarkable,
2. *THUJA DOLABRATA*; } able are,
3. *THUJA OCCIDENTALIS*, the common *arbor vitæ*, grows naturally in Canada, Siberia, and other northern countries. In some English gardens a few of these trees grow to a large size. This species has a strong woody trunk, which rises to the height of 40 feet or more. The bark, while young, is smooth, and of a dark brown colour, but afterwards becomes cracked. The branches

are produced irregularly on every side, standing almost horizontal, and the young slender shoots frequently hang downward, thinly garnished with leaves; so that when the trees are grown large they make but an indifferent appearance. The young branches are flat, and their small leaves lie imbricated over each other like the scales of a fish; the flowers are produced from the side of the young branches pretty near to the foot-stalk; the male flowers grow in oblong catkins, and between these the female flowers are collected in form of cones. When the former have shed their farina, they soon after drop off; but the female flowers are succeeded by oblong cones, having obtuse smooth scales, containing only one or two oblong seeds. The leaves have a rank oily scent when bruised.

4. *THUJA-ORIENTALIS*, the *Chinese arbour vite*, grows naturally in the N. parts of China, where it rises to a considerable height. The branches grow closer together, and are much better adorned with leaves, which are of a brighter green colour, so make a much better appearance than the last species, and being very hardy, it is esteemed preferable to most of the evergreen trees with small leaves, for ornaments in gardens. The branches cross each other at right angles; the leaves are flat; but the single divisions of the leaves are slender, and the scales are smaller and lie closer over each other than those of the other. The cones are also much larger, and of a beautiful grey colour; their scales end in acute inflexed points. These trees are propagated by seeds, layers, or cuttings.

THUILLIER, Vincet, a learned French writer, born at Coucy, in 1685. He translated *Polybius*; and wrote *A letter on the Bull Unigenitus*. He died in 1786, aged 101.

THUIN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Oise, and late bishopric of Liege, seated on the Sambre. In the 5th century it was only a fortress of Hainault; but in 972 it was enlarged and made a town by Bp. Notger. In 1053, it was taken and burnt by Baldwin V. earl of Flanders; whose son Baldwin VI. sold it in 1096, to Obert, Bp. of Liege. In 1309, it was besieged by William earl of Hainault, but relieved by Theobald Bp. of Liege. In 1654, it was again besieged in vain by Marili. Lorges. But in 1794, it was over-run with the rest of the Austrian Netherlands by the French under Picbegiu, and annexed to their republic in 1796. It is 8 miles SW. of Charleroy, 15 SE. of Mons, and 48 WSW. of Liege. Lon. 4. 21. E. Lat. 50. 21. N.

THUIR, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eastern Pyrenes; 7½ miles SW. of Perpignan, and 15 E. of Prades.

THUISTO, a hero and deity of the ancient Germans. *Tacit.* Perhaps the same with *Tuisco*.

(1.) **THULE**, or **THYLE**, in ancient geography, an island in the most northern part of the German Ocean. Its situation was never accurately ascertained by the ancients, hence its present name is unknown by modern historians. Some suppose that it is the island now called *ICELAND*, or part of Greenland, and others that it was *Foula*. See *FOULA*.

(4.) **THULE**, a town of Germany, in the ci-de-

vant bishopric of Paderborn; 6 miles WSW. of PADERBORN; allotted to the king of Prussia, in August 1801.

(3.) **THULE**, a river of S. Wales, in Glamorganshire, which runs into the Lloghor, near its mouth.

(4.) **THULE SOUTHERN**, a part of Sandwich Land, in the S. Atlantic Ocean, and the most Southern Land yet discovered. See *SANDWICH*, N° 4. Lon. 27. 45. W. Lat. 59. 34. S.

(1.) * **THUMB**. *n. f.* [*thuma*, Sax.] The short strong finger answering to the other four.—

Here I have a pilot's thumb. *Shak.*

—You will wear him in thumb rings, as the Turks did Scandenberg. *Dryden*.—Sultan Achmet was a maker of ivory rings, which the Turks wear upon their thumbs when they shoot. *Broome*.—The hand is divided into four fingers bending forwards, and one opposite bending backwards, called the thumb, to join with them severally or united, whereby it is fitted to lay hold of objects. *Ray*.

(2.) **THE THUMB**, in anatomy, is the extremity of the hand. See *ANATOMY*, § 154, 214, N° 2—6; and *THENAR*.

(3.) **THUMB**, in geography, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgebürg; 6 m. SW. of Wolkenstein.

* **To THUMB**. *v. n.* To handle awkwardly.

(1.) * **THUMB-BAND**. *n. f.* [*thumb and band*] A twist of any materials made as thick as a man's thumb.—*Tie the thumb bands* of hay round them. *Mortimer*.

(2.) **THUMB BAND**, we think, is not so called from its thickness, as Dr Johnson's definition implies; but from the manner of forming it round the thumb. Its thickness is not limited.

THUMB-CAP, an island in the South Sea, about 21 miles NW. of Lagoon island; it is low, woody, of a circular form, and not above a mile in compass.

* **THUMBSTAL**. *n. f.* [*thumb and stall*] A thimble.

THUMERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuse; 6 miles SW. of Briey, and 15 W. of Metz.

THUMMERSTONE. *n. f.* in mineralogy. See *MINERALOGY*, Part II. Chap. IV. Cl. 1. Ord. 1. Gen. XIII. § 4.

THUMMIM. See *URIM*.

* **THUMP**. *n. f.* [*thombo*, Ital.] A hard heavy dead dull blow with something blunt.—

He gave the knight's head such a thump. *Hudibras*.

Hollow sides the rattling thumps resound. *Dryd.*
—Their thumps and bruises might turn. *Addison*.
—The watchman gave so great a thump at my door, that I awaked at the knock. *Tatler*.

(1.) * **To THUMP**. *v. a.* To beat with dull heavy blows.—

Those bastard Britons, whom our fathers

Have in their land beaten, bobb'd, and thump'd. *Shak.*

(2.) * **To THUMP**. *v. n.* To fall or strike with a dull heavy blow.—

It thump'd upon

His manly paunch. *Hudibras*.

—A watchman thumps with his pole. *Swift*.

* **THUMPER**. *n. f.* [from *thump*.] The person or thing that thumps.

(1.) **THUN**, a lake of Switzerland, in the canton

ton of Berne, 12 miles long, and 2½ broad, abounding in various kinds of fish. The AAR runs thro' it, and its banks are beautifully and romantically variegated with trees, plants, pastures, and precipitous rugged rocks.

(2.) THUN, a large and handsome town of Switzerland, in Berne, with a castle, at the W. end of the lake, (Nº 1.) seated partly on a hill, and partly on a peninsula. It contains about 1200 inhabitants; and lies 15 miles SSE. of Berne. Lon. 7. 17. E. Lat. 46. 38. N.

THUNA, a town of Asia, in Cachemir, 45 miles S. of Cachemir.

THUNBERGIA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *didynamia*, and order of *angiospermia*. The calyx is double; the exterior one is diphyllous, and the interior one multipartite. The capsule is globose, beaked, and bilocular. There is only one species known, viz.

THUNBERGIA CAPENSIS, a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

(1.) * THUNDER. *n. f.* [*thunder*, *thunor*, Sax. *dunder*, Swedish; *donder*, Dutch; *tonnerre*, French.]

1. *Thunder* is a most bright flame rising on a sudden, moving with great violence, and with a very rapid velocity through the air, according to any determination, upwards from the earth, horizontally, obliquely, downward, in a right line or in several right lines, as it were in serpentine tracts, joined at various angles, and commonly ending with a loud noise or rattling. *Muschenbroek*. 2. In popular and poetick language, *thunder* is commonly the noise, and lightning the flash; though *thunder* is sometimes taken for both.—

I do not bid the *thunder* bearer shoot. *Shak.*

The revenging gods

'Gainst parricides all their *thunder* bend. *Shak.*

The *thunder*

Wing'd with red light'ning and impetuous rage.

Milton.

3. Any loud noise or tumultuous violence.—

No shield defend the *thunder* of his throws.

Spenser.

Nor fear the noisy *thunder*; let it roll. *Romew.*

(2.) THUNDER is the noise occasioned by the explosion of a flash of lightning, echoed back from the inequalities on the surface of the earth, in like manner as the noise of a cannon is echoed, and in particular circumstances forms a rolling lengthened sound.

(3.) THUNDER, CAUSES OF. It is universally allowed, that the elevation of the electricity in different parts of the atmosphere is the cause of thunder. Under the article ELECTRICITY, it has been shown why lightning explodes after the thunder clouds are charged. Under the article LIGHTNING, § 3, 4. it is shown why that meteor puts on the various forms in which we see it; and under the article RAIN, § 3, why the atmosphere in some cases parts with the vapours which at other times it is obstinately retains. It remains therefore only to mention the theory by which some philosophers explain the reason why rains are sometimes attended with thunder and sometimes not. In this part of Great Britain, and for a considerable way along the E. coast, although thunder may happen at any time of the year, yet July is that in which it may almost certainly be

expected. Its duration is of very uncertain continuance; sometimes only a few peals will be heard at any particular place during the whole season; at other times the storm will return at the interval of 3 or 4 days for 5 or 6 weeks, or longer; not that we have violent thunder in this country directly vertical in any one place so frequently in any year, but in many seasons it will be perceptible that thunder clouds are formed in the neighbourhood even at these short intervals. Hence it appears, that during this particular period there must be some natural cause operating for the production of this phenomenon, which does not take place at other times. This cannot be the mere heat of the weather, for we have often a long tract of hot weather without any thunder; and besides, though not common, thunder is sometimes heard in winter. As therefore the heat of the weather is common to the whole summer, whether there be thunder or not, we must look for the causes of it in those phenomena which are peculiar to July, August, and September. Now it is generally observed, in the above mentioned tract of country; that from April an E. or SE. wind generally takes place, and continues with little interruption till towards the end of June. At that time, sometimes sooner and sometimes later, a W. wind takes place; but as the causes producing the E. wind are not removed, the latter opposes the W. wind with its whole force. At the place of meeting there is naturally a most vehement pressure of the atmosphere, and friction of its parts against one another; a calm ensues, and the vapours brought by both winds begin to collect and form dark clouds, which can have little motion either way, because they are pressed almost equally on all sides. For the most part, however, the W. wind prevails, and what little motion the clouds have is towards the E. whence the common remark in this country, that "thunder clouds move against the wind." But this is by no means universally true; for if the W. wind happens to be excited by any temporary cause before its natural period when it should take place, the E. wind will often get the better of it; and the clouds even although thunder is produced, will move westward. Yet in either case the motion is so slow, that the most superficial observers cannot help taking notice of a considerable resistance in the atmosphere. That when two streams of air are thus driven against each other, the space where they meet must become highly electrified, as is plain as that an electric globe must be excited when friction is applied. It is true, as the substances here to be excited are both electrics *per se*, it may be objected, that no electricity could be produced; for we cannot excite one electric by rubbing it with another. Yet it is observed, that glass may be electrified by blowing strongly upon it, or by the explosion of cannon; and even when glass is strongly pressed upon glass, both pieces become electrified as soon as they are separated. When glass is rubbed upon glass, no attraction nor repulsion can be perceived, nor is any sign of electricity observed on bodies brought near to it; yet a very bright electric light always appears on the glasses, and a phosphoreal smell is felt; which shows, that though the electricity does not fly out through the air in the usual way,

yet

yet the fluid within the glass is agitated; and there is little reason to doubt, that any conducting body inclosed within the substance of the glass would be electrified also. The vapours therefore, which are the conducting substances in the atmosphere, become immediately electrified in consequence of the pressure, above-mentioned, and all the phenomena described under the various articles already referred to, take place. In like manner, by the struggle of two other winds as well as those of the E. and W. may a thunder-storm be produced; but it is always necessary that the resistance of the air to the motion of the clouds should be very great, and nearly equal all round. For if the vapour should get off to a side, no thunder would take place; the electricity would then be carried off as fast as it was collected, and rain would only be the consequence, by reason of the electrified vapours parting with their latent heat, as is explained under METEOROLOGY, *See* VI. and RAIN, § 2, 3. In fact, we very often observe, that in the time of rain the clouds evidently move across the wind, and the nearer their motion is to a direct opposition, the heavier will the rain be; while, on the other hand, if they move briskly before the wind, let the direction be what it will, the atmosphere soon clears up.

(4.) THUNDER, CAUSES OF THE RATTLING NOISE OF, AND ESTIMATE OF DANGER FROM. That rattling in the noise of thunder, which makes it seem as if it passed through arches, or were variously broken, is probably owing to the sound being excited among clouds hanging over one another, and the agitated air passing irregularly between them. The explosion, if high in the air, and remote from us, will do no mischief; but when near, it may destroy trees, animals, &c. This proximity or small distance may be estimated nearly by the interval of time between seeing the flash of lightning and hearing the report of the thunder, estimating the distance after the rate of 1142 feet per second, or 3 seconds and 2 thirds to the mile. Dr Wallis observes that commonly the difference between the two is about seven seconds, which, at the rate above-mentioned, gives the distance almost two miles. But sometimes it comes in a second or two, which argues the explosion very near us, or even among us. And in such cases, the Doctor assures us, he has sometimes foretold the mischiefs that happened.

(5.) THUNDER CLOUDS, in physiology, clouds which are in an electrical state, fit for producing lightning, thunder, and other electrical phenomena. *See* § 9, 11—14.

(6.) THUNDER, CONJECTURES RESPECTING THE CAUSE OF. Though the grand phenomena of thunder and lightning had long engaged the attention of philosophers, it is but lately that they have been able to point out the general law of nature of which they are the effects. Inflammable vapours had long furnished them with a sort of explanation. The discovery of gunpowder, and still more that of inflammable air, gave some probability to the existence of extensive strata of inflammable vapours in the upper regions of the atmosphere, which, being set on fire at one end, might burn away in rapid succession, like a train of gunpowder. But there soon appeared such a

dissimilarity in the phenomena, and in the general effects, that this explanation gave no satisfaction to a true naturalist.

(7.) THUNDER, DR FRANKLIN'S DISCOVERY OF THE CAUSE AND NATURE OF. No sooner were the wonderful effects of the charged electrical phial observed, than naturalists began to think of this as exhibiting some resemblance to a thunder stroke: (*see* ELECTRICITY, *Ind.* and LIGHTNING;) but it was not till 1750 that this resemblance was viewed in a proper light by the celebrated Franklin. In a dissertation written that year, he delivers his opinion at large, and notices particularly the following circumstances:

(8.) THUNDER, DR FRANKLIN'S PROOFS OF THE IDENTITY OF, WITH THE ELECTRIC EXPLOSION. 1. The colour and crooked form of lightning, perfectly similar to that of a vivid electrical spark between distant bodies, and unlike every other appearance of light. This angular, desultory, capricious form of an electrical spark, and of forked lightning, is very singular. No two successive sparks have the same form. Their sharp angles are unlike every appearance of motion through unresisting air. Such motions are always curvilinear. The spark is like the simultaneous existence of the light in all its parts; and the fact is, that no person can positively say in which direction it moves. 2. Lightning, like electricity, always strikes the most advanced objects—hills, trees, steeples, &c. 3. Lightning affects to take the best conductors of electricity. Bell wires are very frequently destroyed by it. At Leven house in Fifeshire, in 1733, it ran along a gilded moulding from one end of the house to the other, exploding it all the way, as also the tinfoil on the backs of several mirrors, and the gilding of screens and leather hangings. 4. It burns, explodes, and destroys these conductors precisely as electricity does. It dissolves metals; melts wires; it explodes and tears to pieces bodies which contain moisture. When a person is killed by lightning, his shoes are commonly burst. When it falls on a wet surface, it spreads along it. The Royal William, in Louisburg harbour, in 1758, received a thunder-stroke, which dissipated the maintop-gallant mast in dust, and came down on the wet decks in one spark, which spread over the whole deck as a spout of water would have done. This is quite according to electrical laws. 5. It has sometimes struck a person blind. Electricity has done the same to a chicken which it did not kill. 6. It affects the nervous system in a way resembling some of the known effects of electricity. The following is a most remarkable instance: — Campbell, Esq. of Succoth, in Dumbartonshire, had been blind for several years. The disorder was a gutta serena. He was led one evening along the streets of Glasgow by his servant Alexander Dick, during a terrible thunder storm. The lightning sometimes fluttered along the streets for a quarter of a minute without ceasing. While this fluttering lasted, Mr Campbell saw the street distinctly, and the changes which had been made in that part by taking down of the city gates. When the storm was over, his blindness returned. 7. Lightning kills; and the appearances perfectly resemble those of a mortal stroke of electricity. The muscles are all

all in a state of perfect relaxation, even in those situations where it is usually otherwise. 8. Lightning is well known to destroy and to change the polarity of the mariner's needle. Dr Franklin was not contented with the bare observation of these important resemblances. He availed himself of many curious discoveries which he had made of electrical laws. In particular, having observed that electricity was drawn off at a great distance, and without the least violence of action, by a sharp metallic point, he proposed to philosophers to erect a tall mast or pole on the highest part of a building, and to furnish the top of it with a fine metallic point, properly insulated, with a wire leading to an insulated apparatus for exhibiting the common electrical appearances. To the whole of this contrivance he gave the name of *thunder-rod*, which it still retains. (See *ELECTRICITY, Ind. at Rods.*) He had not a proper opportunity of doing this himself at the time of his writing his dissertation in a letter from Philadelphia to the Royal Society of London; but the contents were so scientific, and so interesting, that in a few weeks they were known over all Europe. His directions were followed in many places. In particular, the French academicians, encouraged by the presence of their monarch, and the great satisfaction which he expressed at the repetition of Dr Franklin's most instructive experiments, which discovered and exposed the theory of positive and negative electricity, as it is still received, were eager to execute his orders, making his grand experiment, which promised so fairly to bring this tremendous operation of nature not only within the pale of science, but within the management of human power. But in the mean time, Dr Franklin, impatient of delay, and perhaps incited by the honourable desire of well-deserved fame, put his own scheme in practice. His inventive mind suggested to him a method of presenting a point to a thunder cloud at a very great distance from the ground. This was by fixing his point on the head of a paper kite, which the wind should raise to the clouds, while the wet string that held it should serve for a conductor of the electricity. With a palpitating heart, Dr Franklin, unknown to the neighbours, and accompanied only by his son, went into the fields, and sent up his messenger that was to bring him such news from the heavens. He obtained only a few sparks from his apparatus that day; but returned to his house in a state of perfect satisfaction with his discovery. We may justly consider this as one of the greatest of philosophical discoveries, and as doing the highest honour to the inventor; for it was not a suggestion from an accidental observation, but arose from a scientific comparison of facts, and a sagacious application of the doctrine of positive and negative electricity; a doctrine wholly Dr FRANKLIN'S, and the result of the most acute and discriminating observation. It was this alone that suggested the whole; and by explaining to his satisfaction the curious property of sharp points, gave him the courage to handle the thunderbolt of the heavens. It is now a point fully ascertained, that thunder and lightning are the electric snap and spark, as much superior to our puny imitations as we can conceive from the immense

extent of the instruments in the hands of Nature. If, says Dr Franklin, a conductor one foot thick and five feet long will produce such snaps as agitate the whole human frame, what may we not expect from a surface of 10,000 acres of electrified clouds? How loud must be the explosion! how terrible the effects!

(9.) *THUNDER, FARTHER DISCOVERIES RESPECTING THE NATURE OF.* This discovery immediately directed the attention of Philosophers to the state of the atmosphere with respect to electricity; and in this also Dr Franklin led the way. He immediately erected his thunder rods; and they have been imitated all over the world, with many alterations and improvements, according to the different views and skill of their authors. They are described in the article *ELECTRICITY*. Dr FRANKLIN took the lead in this examination of the electrical state of the atmosphere. He seldom found it without giving signs of electricity, and this was generally negative. See *Phil. Trans.* vol. xlviii. p. 358, and 785. Mr Canton repeated those experiments, and found the same result. See also our article *ELECTRICITY*, where all these discoveries are fully explained, as well as under the article *LIGHTNING*, § 5, 6. We must here remark, that our acquaintance with the laws of electricity sufficiently informs us, that the electricity of our *THUNDER RODS* may frequently be of a different kind from that of the cloud which excites the appearances at our apparatus. We know that air, like glass, is a non-conductor; and that when it is brought into any state of electricity, either by communication, or by mere induction, it will remain in that state for some time, and that it always changes its electricity *per stratum*. A positive cloud, in the higher regions of the atmosphere, will render the air immediately below it negative, and a stratum below that positive. If the thunder rod be in this positive stratum, it will exhibit positive electricity; but if the cloud be considerably nearer the rod, by being in the adjoining negative stratum, it may show a negative electricity, which will exceed the positive electricity which the distant positive cloud would have induced on its lower end by mere position, had the intervening air been away. This excess of negative electricity must depend on the degree in which the surrounding stratum of air has been rendered negative. It is this has been the almost instantaneous effect of the presence of the positive cloud, it cannot be rendered so negative as to produce negative electricity in the lower end of the thunder rod. But if the stratum of air has for some considerable time accompanied the positive cloud, its negative electricity has been increasing, and some would remain, even if the cloud were removed. We must, at all times, consider the thunder rod as affected by *all* the electricity in its neighbourhood. The distant positive cloud would at any rate render the lower end of the rod positive, without communication, by merely displacing the electricity in the rod itself, just as the north pole of a loadstone would make the remote end of a soft iron rod a north pole. In like manner, the negative stratum of air immediately adjoining to the positive cloud would make the lower end of the rod

rod negative, without communication. A positive stratum of air below this would have the contrary effect. The appearances, then, at the end of the rod, must be the result of the prevalence of one of those above the others; and many intervening circumstances must be understood, before we can infer with certainty the state of a cloud from the appearances at the lower end of the apparatus. It would therefore be a most instructive addition to a thunder rod to have an electroscopie at both ends. If they shew the same kind of electricity, we may be assured that it is by communication, and is the same with that of the surrounding stratum of air: But if they shew opposite electricities (which is generally the case,) then we learn that it is by position or induction. We recommend this to the careful attention of the philosopher. In this way we perfectly explain an appearance which puzzled both of the above-mentioned observers. When a single low cloud approached the rod, the electroscopie would shew positive electricity, but negative when the cloud was in the zenith, and positive again when it had passed by. We also learn from this the cause of Dr Franklin's disappointment in his expectations of very remarkable phenomena by means of his kite. He imagined that it would be vastly superior to the apparatus which he had recommended to the philosophers of Europe. But the string of the kite, traversing several strata in different states of electricity, served as a conductor between them, and he could only obtain the superplus; which might be nothing, even when the clouds were strongly electrified. The most copious and curious observations on the electrical state of the atmosphere are those by Professor BECCARIA of Turin. He had connected the tops of several steeples of the city by insulated wires. He did the same thing at a monastery on a high hill in the neighbourhood. Each of these collected the electricity of a separate stratum of considerable extent. He frequently found these two strata in opposite states of strong electricity. See *ELECTRICITY, Index*, at BECCARIA, and *ATMOSPHERICAL*, &c.

(10.) **THUNDER, GENERAL INFERENCES FROM VARIOUS EXPERIMENTS RESPECTING.** The following general observations are made out from a comparison of a vast variety of more particular ones made in different places: 1. The air is almost always electrical, especially in the day time and dry weather; and the electricity is generally positive. It does not become negative, unless by winds from places where it rains, snows, or is foggy. 2. The moisture of the air is the constant conductor of its electricity in clear weather. 3. When dark or wet weather clears up, the electricity is always negative. If it has been very moist, and dries very fast, the electricity is very intense, and diminishes when the air attains its greatest dryness; and may continue long stationary, by a supply of air in a drying state from distant places. 4. If, while the sky overcasts in the zenith, only a high cloud is formed, without any secondary clouds under it, and if this cloud is not the extension of another which rains in some remote place, the electricity (if any) is always positive. 5. If the clouds, while gathering, are shaped like

locks of wool, and are in a state of motion among each other; or if the general cloud is forming far aloft, and stretches down like descending smoke, frequently a positive electricity prevails, more intense as the changes in the atmosphere are quicker; and its intensity predicts the great quantity of snow or rain which is to follow. 6. When an extensive, thin, level cloud forms, and darkens the sky, we have strong positive electricity. 7. Low thick fogs, rising into dry air, carry up so much electricity as to produce sparks at the apparatus. If the fog continues round the apparatus without rising, the electricity fails. 8. When, in clear weather, a cloud passes over the apparatus, low and tardy in its progress, and far from any other, the positive electricity gradually diminishes, and returns when the cloud has gone over. 9. When many white clouds gather over head, continually uniting with and parting from each other, and thus form a body of great extent, the positive electricity increases. 10. In the morning, when the hygrometer indicates dryness equal to that of the preceding day, positive electricity obtains even before sunrise. 11. As the sun gets up, this electricity increases; more remarkably if the dryness increases. It diminishes in the evening. 12. The mid-day electricity, of days equally dry, is proportioned to the heat. 13. Winds always lessen the electricity of a clear day, especially if damp; therefore they do not electrify the air by friction on solid bodies. 14. In cold seasons, with a clear sky and little wind, a considerable electricity arises after sunset, at dew falling. The same happens in temperate and warm weather. 15. In the same circumstances, the general dryness of the air is less, the electricity is also less. 16. The electricity of dew, like that of rain, depends on its quantity. This electricity of dew may be imitated by electrifying the air of a close room (not too dry,) and filling a bottle with very cold water, and setting it in the upper part of the room. As the damp condenses on its sides, an electrometer will shew very vivid electricity. Such a collection of observations, to be fit for inference, requires very nice discrimination. It is frequently difficult to discover electricity in damp air, though it is then generally strongest; because the insulation of the apparatus is hurt by the dampness. To make the observation with accuracy, requires a portable apparatus, whose insulation can be made good at all times. With such apparatus we shall never miss, observing electricity in fogs, or during snow. There is a very curious phenomenon, which may be frequently observed in Edinburgh, and other towns similarly situated. In a clear day of May, an easterly wind frequently brings a fog with it, which advances from the sea in a dense body: and when it comes up the High-street, it chills the body exceedingly, while it does not greatly affect the thermometer. Immediately before its gaining the street, one feels like a tickling on the face, as if a cob-web had fallen on it, and naturally puts up his hand and rubs his face. We have never found this to fail, and have often been amused with seeing every person rubbing his face in his turn. The same thing was observed at St Petersburg, in a summer's evening when a low fog came on about ten o'clock.

(11.)

(II.) **THUNDER, GENERAL PROGNOSTICS, APPEARANCES, AND PHENOMENA OF A STORM OF &c.** For the most part the wind is gentle, or it is calm. A low dense cloud begins in a part previously clear: this increases fast in size; but this is only upwards, and in an arched form, like great bags of cotton. The lower surface of the cloud is commonly level, as if it rested on a glass plane. Soon after appear numberless small ragged clouds, like flakes of cotton teased out. These are moving about in various uncertain directions, and continually changing their ragged shape. This change, however, is generally by augmentation. Whatever occasions the precipitation of the dissolved water, seems to gain ground. As these clouds move about, they approach each other, and then stretch out their ragged arms toward each other. This is not by an augmentation, but by a real bending of these tatters towards the other cloud. They seldom come into contact; but after coming very near in some parts, they as plainly recede, either in whole, or by bending their arms away from each other. But during this confused motion, the whole mass of small clouds approaches the great one above it; and when near it, the clouds of the lower mass frequently coalesce with each other before they finally coalesce with the upper cloud: But as frequently the upper cloud increases without them. Its lower surface, from being level and smooth, now becomes ragged, and its tatters stretch down towards the others, and long arms are extended towards the ground. The heavens now darken apace, the whole mass sinks down; wind arises, and frequently shifts in squalls; small clouds are now moving swiftly in various directions; lightning now darts from cloud to cloud. A spark is sometimes seen co-existent through a vast horizontal extent, of a crooked shape, and of different brilliancy in its different parts. Lightning strikes between the clouds and the earth—frequently in two places at once. A continuation of these snaps rarifies the cloud; and in time it dissipates. This is accompanied by heavy rain or hail; and then the upper part of the clouds is high and thin. During this progress of the storm, the **THUNDER** is strongly electrified; chiefly when the principal cloud is over head. The state of the electricity frequently changes from positive to negative—almost every flash, however distant, occasions a sudden start of the electroscope, and then a change of the electricity. When the cloud is more uniform, the electricity is so too. The question now is, In what manner does the air acquire this electricity? How come its different parts to be in different states, and to retain this difference for a length of time? and how is the electric equilibrium restored?—But upon these subjects we need add nothing to what is already said under **ELECTRICITY**. The electric equilibrium is indeed restored with surprising rapidity, and to a great extent. Yet we know that air is a very imperfect conductor, and transmits electricity to small distances only, and very slowly. But air is rendered electrical in a great variety of ways. All operations which excite electricity in other bodies have the same effect on air. It is electrified by friction. When blown on any body, such as glass,

&c. that body exhibits electricity by a sensible electroscope. We therefore conclude that the air has acquired the opposite electricity from this rubber. A glass vessel, exhausted of air, and broken in the dark, gives a loud crack, and a very sensible flash of light. An air gun, discharged (without a ball) in the dark, does the same. Blowing on an electric with a pair of bellows never fails to excite it. In short, the facts to this purpose are numberless. Most of these and other phenomena are taken notice of under **ELECTRICITY**. These facts are also to be found among many experiments of **M. SAUSSURE**. We see some of the effects very distinctly in several phenomena of thunder and lightning. Thus, the great eruptions of **Ætna** and **Vesuvius** are always accompanied by forked lightnings, which are seen darting among the volumes of emitted smock and steam. Here is a very copious conversion of water into elastic steam; and here also it is most reasonable to expect a copious decomposition of water, by the iron and coaly matters, which are exposed to the joint action of fire and water. These two electricities will be opposite; or when not opposite, will not be equal; in either of which cases, we have vast masses of steam in states fit for flaking into each other. The simple solution of water in air produces electricity. And this is the chief operation in Nature connected with the state of the atmosphere. It is thus that the watery vapours from all bodies, and particularly the copious exudation of plants, disappear in our atmosphere. There can be no doubt but that the opposite electricity will be produced by the precipitation of this vapour; that is, by the formation of clouds in clear air. Lastly, we know that the tourmaline, and many of the columnar crystals, are rendered electrical by merely heating and cooling. See **ELECTRICITY, Index, at TOURMALIN**. When water is precipitated, and forms a cloud, it is reasonable to expect, that it will have the electricity of the air from which it is precipitated. This may be various, but is in general negative; for the heat by which the air was enabled to dissolve the water made it negative. But if it be cooled so fast as to precipitate it in the form of rain, or snow, or hail, we may expect positive electricity. Accordingly, in summer, **WALL** showers always show strong positive electricity; so does snow when falling dry. Here, then, are copious sources of atmospheric electricity. The masses of air thus differently constituted are evidently disposed in strata. The clouds are seen to be so. When the wind, or stratum in motion, does not push all the quiescent air before it, it generally gets over it, and then flows along its upper side, and, by a partial mixing, produces a fleecy cloud. This is the state of the atmosphere, consisting of strata of clear air many hundred yards thick, separated from each other by thin fleeces of clouds. This is no fancy; for we actually see the sky separated by strata of clouds at a great distance from each other. And we see that these strata maintain their situations, without farther admixture, for a long time, the bounding clouds continuing all the while to move in different directions. In 1783, when a great fleet rendezvoused in Leith Roads, the ships were detained by an easterly wind, which had

blown for six weeks without intermission. The sky was generally clear; sometimes there was a thin fleece of clouds at a great height, moving much more slowly in the same direction with the wind below. During the last eight days, the upper current was from the westward, as appeared by the motion of the upper clouds. High towering clouds came down the river, with a little rain; the strata were jumbled, and the whole atmosphere grew hazy and uniform; then came thunder and heavy rain, and the wind below shifted to the W. Thus it is sufficiently evinced, that the atmosphere frequently consists of such strata, well distinguished from each other: their appearance and progress leave us no room to doubt but that they come from different quarters, and had been taken up or formed at different places, and in different circumstances, and therefore differing in respect of their electrical states. The consequence of their continuing long together would be a gradual but slow progress of their electricity to a state of equilibrium. The air is perhaps never in a perfectly dry state, and its moisture will cause the electricity to diffuse itself gradually. See BECCARIA'S experiments with plates of glass, under ELECTRICITY. But thunder requires a rapid communication, and a restoration of electric equilibrium in an instant, and to a vast extent. The means for this are at hand. The strata of charged air are furnished with a coating of cloud. The lower stratum is coated on the under side by the earth. When a jumble is made in any of the strata, a precipitation of vapour must generally follow. Thus a conductor is brought between the electrical coatings. This will quickly enlarge. In this manner the interposed cloud immediately attracts other clouds, grows ragged by the passage of electricity through clear air, where it causes a precipitation by altering the natural equilibrium of its electricity. Accordingly, we see in a *thunder storm* that small clouds continually and suddenly form in parts formerly clear. Whatever causes thunder, does in fact promote this precipitation. These clouds have the electricity of the surrounding air, and must communicate it to others in an opposite state, and within reach. They must approach them, and must afterwards recede from them, or from any that are in the same state of electricity with themselves. Hence their ragged forms, and the similar form of the under surface of the great cloud; hence their continual and capricious shifting from place to place; they are carriers, which give and take between the other clouds, and they may become stepping stones for the general discharge. If a small cloud form a communication with the ground, and the great cloud be positive or negative, we must have a complete discharge, and all the electrical phenomena, with great violence; for this coating of vapour is abundantly complete for the purpose. The general scene of thunder is the *heavens*; and it is by no means a frequent case that a discharge is made into the earth. The air intervening between the earth and the lowest coating is commonly very much confused in consequence of the eddies and dales, which, by altering the currents of the winds, toss up the inferior parts, and mix them

with those above. This generally keeps the earth pretty much in the same electrical state as the lowest stratum of clouds. There are, however, many melancholy instances of the violent effects of thunder storms on the earth. (See ELECTRICITY, § 129; and LIGHTNING, § 5 and 13.)

(12.) THUNDER HOUSE. See ELECTRICITY, Ind.

(13.) THUNDER, HYPOTHESIS AND PHENOMENA OF THE SOUND AND SMELL, &c. OF. The sound of thunder is not a *snap*, incomparably louder than our loudest snap from coated glass; but a long continued, rumbling, and *very unequal noise*. There is no doubt but that this snap was almost simultaneous through the whole extent of the spark; but its different parts are conveyed to our ear in time, and are therefore heard by us in succession; and it is not an uniform roar, but a rumbling noise, *unequally loud*, according as the different parts of the snap are indeed differently loud. We should hear a noise of the same kind if we stood at one end of a long line of soldiers, who discharged their muskets (differently loaded) in the same instant. When any part of the spark is very near us, and is not very diffuse, the snap begins with great smartness, and continues for some time, not unlike the violent tearing of a piece of strong silk; after which it becomes more and more mellow as it comes from a greater distance. We do not, however, affirm, that the whole extensive spark and snap are co-existent or simultaneous. The cloud is, in all probability, but an indifferent conductor, and even a sensible time may elapse during the propagation of the spark to a great distance. Beccaria observed this in a line of 250 feet of chain, lying loosely on the ground, and consisting of near 6000 links. He thought that it employed a full second; but when the chain was gently stretched, the communication seemed *instantaneous*. All these circumstances concur in explaining the nature of the shaft of FORKED LIGHTNING. It is a series of appearances excited in the intervening medium, and which produce some chemical change in it. (See ELECTRICITY, Index; and LIGHTNING, § 4.) Thunder, when it strikes a house, always leaves a *peculiar smell*. Inflammable air has also a peculiar and very disagreeable smell. The smell produced by electricity greatly resembles the smell produced by striking two pieces of quartz together. M. SAUSSURE assures us, that the particles of a cloud are *vesicles*. Indeed no person who has looked narrowly at a fog, or has observed how large the particles are of the cloud which forms in a receiver when we suddenly diminish the density of the air, and who observes how slowly these particles descend, can doubt of their being hollow vesicles. We can hardly conceive them receiving the commotion which accompanies the snap without collapsing by the agitation, or by the very cessation of their electricity. They will therefore no longer float in the air, but fall and unite, and come to the ground in rain. We may expect this rain to be copious, for it is the produce of two strata of clouds. It greatly contributes to the putting an end to the storm, by passing through the strata, and helping to restore the equilibrium.

Y y (14.) THUNDER,

(14.) THUNDER, HYPOTHESIS OF THE EARL OF STANHOPE RESPECTING. Under the article LIGHTNING, § 10 and 14, we gave a particular account of the E of Stanhope's new theory of lightning and thunder, wherein his lordship accounts for all the most violent phenomena that occur on earth, by what he calls the *electrical returning stroke*. Under the article ELECTRICITY, § 11 and 15, we also stated the objections made by the compilers of the *Monthly Review*, and the *Gen. Mag.* to his lordship's theory, which at that period were thought *plausible*. But in the opinion of the most eminent electricians, the earl's theory is now held to be just, and strictly philosophical; and that the electrical returning stroke completely accounts for all the dreadful phenomena that have ever happened on earth by the whole electric force, which would otherwise have passed off harmlessly in the air and clouds, *returning and striking* upon some terrestrial object. It is now the decided opinion of the most eminent electricians, that the greater part, if not the whole of the most violent thunder storms, thunder-strokes, and other pernicious electrical phenomena, have been of that kind, which the noble earl styles the *returning stroke*. This they illustrate in the following manner: If two clouds A and B are incumbent over the plain *a* and *b*, thus:

$$\begin{array}{c} A + \quad - B \\ a - \quad + b \end{array}$$

and if A be positive, and B negative, the earth will be maintained in a negative state at *a*, and a positive state at *b*. If the discharge be now made between the clouds A and B, the electricity must instantly rush up through a conductor at *a*, and down through one at *b*, and each place will have a *stroke*. The same thing will happen if the negative cloud B is above the positive cloud A, but not in so great a degree; for the negative electricity at *a* will now be much less than in the other case, because it is induced only by the prevalence of the positive cloud A over the remote negative cloud B. In a word, the Earl's *returning stroke* explains much better than can be done by any hypothesis of a *direct stroke*, the capricious effects of lightning and thunder. A gentleman at Vienna received a terrible shock, by having his hand upon a thunder rod during a violent explosion which he was viewing about 3 miles distant. Electric sparks are often observed at thunder rods, even at every the most distant flash of lightning.

(15.) THUNDER, HYPOTHESIS OF THE MARQUIS OF BECCARIA RESPECTING, WITH REMARKS. The Marquis of Beccaria supposes, that the different parts of the earth are in different states of electricity, and that the clouds are the *restoring conductors*. But this hypothesis contradicts the known laws of electricity. The earth is so good a conductor, that Dr Watson could not observe the smallest instant of time lost in communicating the electricity to the distance of four miles. It is now fully ascertained, that the earth is almost always in a state of very *unequal* and even *opposite* electricity, in its different parts; and this arises from the variety of clouds strongly electrified in the opposite way. This induces electricity, or disturbs the natural *uniform diffusion* of electricity; just as the bringing magnets or

loadstones, (see MAGNETISM,) into the neighbourhood of a piece of iron, without touching it, renders it magnetical in its different parts. While they continue in their places, the piece of iron will be magnetical, and differently so in its different parts.

(16.) THUNDER, METHODS OF GUARDING AGAINST DANGER FROM. The justly celebrated Dr FRANKLIN, had no sooner made his discovery as above and elsewhere related, and confirmed the identity of the *electric spark* and report with LIGHTNING and THUNDER; than he began to reflect that knowledge is only valuable in proportion as it can be rendered *useful* to mankind. He then set his inventive genius to work, to consider if it was possible to invent some method to preserve men, beasts, and buildings, from the dreadful effects of thunder storms. Of the Dr's success in this humane endeavour, we have given a concise but pretty complete account, under the article ELECTRICITY, § 142 and 143: as well as of the methods of constructing the CONDUCTORS, or THUNDER RODS, as they have since been generally called, along with the improvements suggested by the E. of Stanhope upon these rods; and of the dispute among electricians respecting the advantages of *blunt pointed* or of *sharp pointed* conductors for that purpose, under the same article from § 144 to § 155; as well as under LIGHTNING, § 7, 14, 15; with the objections of those who reckon conductors of any kind *insufficient* under § 9; though facts have now proved their hypothesis *false*. All that remains, therefore, to be noticed under this section is to state a few particulars since discovered, that were not at that period clearly ascertained.—The genius of Dr FRANKLIN soon made the important discovery, in opposition to BECCARIA, that the EARTH performs the necessary office, which the marquis has searched for in vain in the clouds, of "*restoring the ELECTRIC EQUILIBRIUM OF THE ATMOSPHERE*, when it has been, as it daily is, *disturbed by the incessant action of the various unwearied powers of NATURE*." On this principle he inferred, that "the usual *electrical preference* should be given to the best conductors; and that in this respect a *metal rod* far surpasses the *brick, stone, timber* and other materials, of which our houses and other buildings are composed; especially when they are *dry*, as is usually the case in the thundery seasons." He therefore advised to place metalline conductors in the way of the ATMOSPHERICAL ELECTRICITY, in those places, where it appears most likely to *strike*, and to continue them down to the moist earth, at some depth under the surface. He also advised to raise the metalline conductors to some considerable height *above* the building; the more effectually to attract the electricity to take this *course*, as sometimes lightning has been known to pass the high parts of a building and attack other places low down. Still farther to ensure success, he advised that, as the electrical fluid, by its shocks, not only dissipates water, but even melts metallic conductors, when made too small, therefore the metalline conductor should be made at least *half an inch square*; none of that size having ever been destroyed, although smaller ones have been destroyed.

stroy.

stroyed by the lightning; yet even these *bad conductors* the lightning to the ground, with perfect safety to the building. He also advised, that no part of a conductor should terminate in the building; "for" (added the learned Doctor,) "the electricity accumulates exceedingly at the remote extremities of all long rods, and tends to fly off with great force, especially if another conductor is near. This aids the accumulation, by acquiring at its upper end an electricity opposite to that of the lower end of the other; and this effect produced by the influence of a positive cloud, makes the upper negative end of the lower portion of a divided conductor draw more electricity to the lower end of the upper portion." But this doctrine of the accumulation of electricity is the principal defect in the FRANKLINIAN doctrine, and is now given up as indefensible. (See ELECTRICITY, Index, at ACCUMULATION, and LIGHTNING, § 9.) Dr Franklin, however, supported it, and considered it as proved by such facts as the following: "This redundant electricity," (adds he) "strongly attracted by the negative lower portion, flies off with great violence through the air, or if surrounded with any matter capable of conversion into elastic vapour by heat, bursts with irresistible force. Thus the vane spindle of *St Brid's Steeple* in London, sprung from its lower end to the upper end of an iron window bar, and burst the stone in which it was fixed, by expanding the moisture into steam. In like manner it burst the stove at the lower end of this bar, to make its way to an iron cramp, which connected the opposite sides of the steeple; from this it struck to another cramp; and so from cramp to cramp, till it reached the gutter leads of the church, bursting and throwing off the stonework in many places. All interruptions must therefore be carefully avoided, and the whole must be made as much as possible one continued metal rod. Dr Franklin, observing the singular property which sharp points possess of drawing off the electricity in silence, advised to finish our conductor with a fine point of gilt copper, which cannot be blunted by rust. But as this raising the conductor, and pointing it, are so many invitations to the thunder to take this course; and as we cannot be certain that the quantity thus invited may not be more than what the rod can conduct with safety, it has appeared to Dr WILSON, and other able electricians, that it will be safer to give abundance of conduct to what may unavoidably visit us, without inviting what might otherwise have gone harmlessly by. This was attentively considered by Dr Franklin, Dr Watson, Mr Canton, Dr Wilson, and others, met as a committee of the Royal Society, at the desire of the Board of Ordnance, to contrive a conductor for the powder magazine at Purfleet. (See ELECTRICITY, Part II. § 8. I.) We think that the theory of induced electricity, founded on Dr Franklin's discoveries, and confirmed by all the later inventions of the electrophorus, condenser, &c. will decide this question in the most satisfactory manner. When a cloud positively electrified comes over a building, it renders it negatively electrical in all its parts, if of conducting materials, and even the ground on which it stands.

This effect is more remarkably produced if the structure is of a tall and slender shape, like a steeple or a rod. Therefore the external electrical fluid is attracted by the building with greater force than if it had consisted of materials less conductive. A discharge will therefore be made thro' it in preference to any neighbouring building, because it is more eminently negative. For the same reason, if there are two buildings equal and similar, one of them being a good conductor, and the other being a less perfect one, the perfect conductor, becoming more powerfully negative, the cloud will become more strongly positive over this house than over the other, and the stroke will be made through it. The same thing must obtain in a perfect conductor continued from the top to the foundation of a house, built of worse conducting materials. The conductor becoming more eminently negative than any other part of the building, the electric fluid will be more strongly attracted by it, accumulated in its neighbourhood, and will all be discharged through it, so long as it is able to conduct. If the building be of great extent, the proximity of one part of the building to the thunder cloud may produce an accumulation of electrical fluid in its neighbourhood, in preference to a more perfect, but remote, conductor. But when the distances from the cloud are not very unequal, the accumulation will always be in the neighbourhood of the perfect conductor; and this will determine the discharge that way. The accumulation in the neighbourhood of the rod will be small indeed, when the rod is small; but then it is dense, and the whole electric phenomena shew that it is the density, and not the quantity of accumulation, which produces the violent tendency to fly off; it is this alone which makes it impossible to confine electricity in a body which terminates in a sharp point. For the same reason, bodies of the same materials and shape will increase the accumulation in the adjoining part of the cloud in proportion as they are nearer to it, or more advanced beyond the rest of the building. And bodies of slender shape, and pointed, will produce this accumulation in their neighbourhood in a still more remarkable degree, and determine the course of the discharge with still greater certainty. But it is evident that a metallic rod, no higher than the rest of the building, may occasion an accumulation in the adjoining part of a near thunder cloud sufficient to produce a discharge, when the building itself consisting of imperfect conductors, would not have provoked the discharge at all. It may therefore be doubted whether we have derived any advantage from the conductor. To judge properly of this, we must consider houses, as they really are, consisting of different materials, in very different shapes and situations; and particularly as having many large pieces of metal in their construction, in various positions with regard to the cloud, the ground, and to each other. Suppose all the rest of the building to be of non-conducting materials. When a positive thunder cloud comes overhead, every piece of metal in the building becomes electrical, without having received any thing as yet from the cloud; that end of each

Y y 2 which

which is nearest the cloud becoming negative, and the remote end positive. But, moreover, the electricity of one increases the electricity of its neighbour. Then the most elevated becomes more strongly attractive at its upper end than it would have been had the others been away; and therefore produces a greater accumulation in the nearer part of the thunder cloud than it would otherwise have done, and it will receive a spark. By this its lower end becomes more overcharged, and thus makes the upper end of the next more undercharged, and the spark is communicated to it, and so on to the ground; which would not have happened without this succession of conductors. Thus it is easy to conceive, that the accumulation in the cloud is just insufficient to produce a discharge.—While things are in this state, just ready to snap, should a man chance to pass under a bell wire, or under a lustre hanging by a chain, his body will immediately augment the positive electricity of the lower end of the conductor above him, and thus will augment the negative electricity of its upper end. This again will produce the same effect in the conductor above it; and thus each conductor becomes more overcharged at its lower end, and more undercharged at the upper end. Before this, every thing was just ready to snap. All will now strike at once. The cloud will be discharged through the house, and the man will be the sacrifice, the whole discharge being made through his body. This needs no demonstration for any well-informed electrician. Those who have only such a knowledge of the theory as can be gathered from the writings of Priestley, Cavallo, and other popular authors, may convince themselves of the truth of what is here delivered in the following manner. In dry weather, and the most favourable circumstances for good electrical experiments, let a very large globe, smoothly covered with metal, and well insulated, be as highly electrified as possible, without exposing it to a rapid dissipation. To ensure this circumstance, let it be electrified till it begins to flutter, and note the state of the electrometer. Discharge this electricity, and electrify it to about half of this intensity. Provide 3 or 4 insulated metal conductors, about 2 inches long and an inch diameter, terminated by hemispheres, and all well polished. The globe being electrified, bring one of the insulated conductors slowly up to it, and note its distance when it receives a spark. In doing this, take care that there be no conducting body near the remote end of the insulated conductor. It will be best to push it gradually forward by means of a long glass rod. Withdraw the conductor, discharge its electricity, restore the globe to its former electricity, indicated by an electrometer, and repeat this experiment till the greatest striking distance is exactly discovered. Now set another of the insulated conductors about half an inch behind the first, and push them forward together, by a glass rod, till a spark is obtained. The striking distance will be found greater than before. Then repeat this last experiment, with this difference, that the two conductors are pushed forward by taking hold of the remote one. The striking distance will be found much greater than before. Lastly, push forward

the two conductors, the remote one having a wire communicating with the ground till they are a smaller matter *without* the striking distance; and, leaving them in this situation, take any little conducting body, such as a brass ball, fixed on the end of a glass rod, and pass it briskly through between the globe and the nearest conductor, or through between the two conductors, taking care that it touch neither of them in the passage. It will be seen that, however swift the passage is made, there will be a discharge through all the four bodies. The inference from this is obvious and demonstrative. A very remarkable instance of this fact was seen at the chapel in Tottenham Court Road, London. A man, going into the chapel by the east door, was killed by the thunder, which came down from the little bell-house, along the bell-wire, and the rod of the clock pendulum, from the end of which it leaped to some iron work above the door, and from thence, from nail to nail, till it reached the man's head. This interruption of conduct, which is almost unavoidable in the construction of any building, is the cause of most of the accidents that are recorded; for when the ends of those communicating conductors are inclosed in materials of less conducting power, the electricity, in making its way to the next in a very dense state, never fails to explode every thing which can be converted into elastic vapour by heat. There is always a sufficient quantity of moisture in the stone or brickwork for this purpose; and most vegetable substances contain moisture or other expandible matter. The stone, brick, or timber, is burst, and thrown to a considerable distance; or if kept together by a weight of wall, the wall is shattered. It is worth remarking that although no force whatever seems able to prevent this explosion, the quantity of matter exploded is extremely small; for the flames are never thrown to a greater distance than they would have been by two or three grains of gunpowder properly confined. All these accidents will be prevented by giving a sufficient *uninterrupted conduct*; and it is proper to make use of such a conductor, although it may invite many discharges which would not otherwise happen. So long as the conductor is sufficient for the purpose, there seems to be no doubt of the propriety of this maxim. But the most serious objection remains. As we are certain that these conductors, whether raised above the building or not, will produce discharges through them which otherwise would not have happened, and as we are quite uncertain whether the quantity contained in a thunder cloud may not greatly exceed what the thunder rod can conduct without being dissipated in smoke, it seems very dangerous thus to *invite a stroke* which our conductor may not be able to discharge. In particular, it is reasonable to believe that the strata of electrified clouds which come near the earth lose much of their electricity by passing over the sharp points of trees, &c. while those which are much higher may retain their electricity undiminished, and pass on. May it not therefore happen, that our conductor will invite a fatal stroke, which would have gone harmlessly by? The doubt is natural, and it is important. Let us suppose a very extensive and highly electrified

trified cloud, in a positive state, to come within such a distance from a building as *just not to strike it*, if unprovided with a conductor, but which will most certainly strike the same building furnished with a conductor; and let the electricity be so great that the conductor shall be dissipated in smoke before even a small part of it is discharged, —What will be the fate of the building? We believe that it will be perfectly safe. However rapid we may suppose that motion by which electricity is communicated, it is still motion, and time elapses during the propagation. The cloud is discharged, not in a very instant, but in a very short time. Part of the cloud is therefore discharged, while it explodes the conductor, and the electricity of the remainder is now too weak (by our supposition) to strike the building no longer furnished with a conductor. This must be the case, however large and powerful the cloud may be, and however small the conductor. But suppose that the cloud has come so near as to strike the building unprovided with a conductor. Then as much will be discharged through the building as it can conduct; and if the quantity be too great, the building will be destroyed: but let a conductor (though insufficient) be added. The discharge will be made through it as long as it lasts, and the remainder only will be discharged through the house, surely with much less danger than before. The truth of these conclusions from theory is verified by fact. When the church of Newbury in New England was struck by lightning in 1755, a bell wire, no bigger than a knitting needle, conducted the thunder with perfect safety to the building as far down the steeple as the wire reached, though the stroke was so great that the wire had been exploded, and no part of it remained, but only a mark along the wall occasioned by its smoke. From the termination of the wire to the ground the steeple was exceedingly shattered, and stones of great weight were thrown out from the foundation (where they were probably moister) to the distance of 20 and 30 feet. Another remarkable instance happened in the summer palace at St PETERSBURG. A Heyduk and a soldier of a foot regiment were standing centinels at the door of the jewel-chamber: the Heyduk, with his scimitar resting on his arm, was carelessly leaning on the soldier, who had his musket shouldered. Both were struck down with lightning; and the soldier was killed, his left leg scorched, and his shoes burst. The Heyduk had received no damage, but felt himself tripped up, as if a great dog had run against him. A narrow slip of gold lace, which was sewed along the seam of his jacket and pantaloons breaches, reaching to his shoes, had been exploded on the left side. This seems to have been his protection. In all probability, the stroke came to both along the musket (or perhaps to the Heyduk along the scimitar.) The Heyduk had a complete, though insufficient, conductor, and was safe. The soldier had not, and was killed. The push felt by the former probably arose from the explosion of the lace. It seems therefore plain that *metalline conductors* are always a protection; that advancing them above the building, increases their protection; and that pointing them may sometimes en-

able them to diminish a stroke, by discharging part of the electricity silently. Dr Franklin having formed all his notions of thunder from his pre-established theory, and having seen the principal phenomena so conformable to it, was naturally led to expect this conformity in cases which he could not easily examine precisely by experiment. Accordingly, in his first dissertation, he affirmed that a *fine point* always discharges a thunder cloud silently, and at a great distance. The analogous experiments in artificial electricity are so beautiful and so perspicuous, that this confidence in the protecting power of fine points is not surprising; and this confidence was rendered almost complete by a most singular case which fell under his own observation. He was awakened one night by loud cracks in his stair-case, as if some person had been lashing the wainscoting with a great horse-whip. He thought it so, and got up in an anger to chide the idle fool. On looking out at his chamber door, he saw that the disturbance proceeded from electric explosions at some interruptions of his conductor. He saw the electricity pass, sometimes in bright sparks, producing those loud thwacks, and sometimes in a long continued stream of dense white dazzling light as big as his finger, illuminating the stair-case like sunshine, and making a loud noise like a cutler's wheel. Had the cloud (says he) retained all this till it came within striking distance, the consequences would have been inconceivably dreadful. Yet not long after this he found that he had been in a mistake; for the house of Mr Watt in Philadelphia, furnished with a finely pointed conductor, was struck by a terrible clap of thunder, and the point of the conductor was melted down about two inches. This is perhaps the only instance on record of a finely pointed conductor being struck. The board room at the powder magazine at Purfleet was indeed struck, though provided with a conductor; but the stroke was through another part of the building. St Peter's church, Cornhill, has been 8 times struck between 1772 and 1787; while St Michael's, in its neighbourhood, and much higher, has never had a stroke since 1772, when it was furnished with an excellent pointed conductor by Mr Nairne. Dr Franklin having seen the above exception to his rule, and reflected on it, acknowledges that there are cases where a pointed conductor may be struck, viz. when it serves as a stepping stone, to complete a canal of conveyance already near-completed. A small cloud may sometimes serve as a stepping stone (like the man coming under a lustre) for the electricity to come out of a great cloud, and discharge through the pointed conductor. Whenever it comes to the striking distance from the conductor, it will explode at once; whereas the great cloud itself must have come nearer, and had its force gradually diminished. It is remarkable that a point, employed in this way in artificial electricity, must be brought nearer to another body than a ball need be, before it can receive a stroke. The difference is about one third of the whole. Nairne found, that a ball one and 9 tenths inches in diameter exploded at the distance of 9 inches, and a point at six inches distance. But a pointed conductor can have no advantage over a blunt

a blunt one in the case of a *returning stroke*, which is perhaps the most common of any. This depends on another discharge, which is made perhaps at a great distance. This was most distinctly the case in the instance above mentioned of the person at Vienna who had a shock from a thunder rod by an explosion far distant. This thunder rod was a very fine one, furnished with five gilt points. Still, however, this property of sharp points was greatly over-rated by Dr Franklin, and those who took all their notions of electricity from the simple discoveries of his sagacious mind. Unfortunately Dr Franklin had not cultivated mathematical knowledge; and, ever eager after discovery, and ardent in all his pursuits, his wonderful penetration carried him through, and seldom allowed him to rest long on false conclusions. He was certainly one of the greatest *philosophers*; and a little erudition would perhaps have brought him equal to Newton. It was reserved, however, for Lord C. Cavendish and for Æpinus, to subject the investigations of Franklin to number and measure. By studying what they have written on the subject, the reader will be fully convinced, that a point has little or no advantage over a ball, with respect to a thunder cloud which is brought to the thunder rod by a brisk wind; although, when it comes slowly up during an almost perfect calm, it may discharge all that can be discharged without a snap. The conspiration in a point is indeed very great, but the quantity conspired is moderate; and therefore its action, at any considerable distance, is but trifling. All this is fully verified by Dr Wilson's judicious experiments in the Pantheon. He had a prodigious quantity of electrified surface suspended there, and made a pointed apparatus come to its striking distance with a motion which he could regulate and measure. And he found that with the very moderate velocity of 12 feet in a second, he never failed of procuring a very smart stroke. The experiments made in the usual way by the partisans of sharp points were numberless, and decidedly in their favour. The great and just authority of Dr Franklin, who was one of the committee, procured them still more consideration, or at least hindered people from seeing the force of Dr Wilson's reasoning. It is somewhat surprising, that Dr WILSON, a lover of mathematical learning, and a good judge, as appears from his publication of the papers of Mr Robins, did not himself see the full force of his own experiments. He indeed frequently says, that the state of the electricity in a thunder cloud, and in coated glass, is exceedingly different: and that the first extends its sensible influence much farther than the last, when both have the same quantity of electricity. But he seems not to have formed to himself any adequate notion of the difference. Reasoning from the true theory of coated glass, we shall learn that, when the glass is exceedingly thin, the *accumulation of electricity*, or the charge, will be exceedingly great; while the external appearance, or apparent energy, of the electricity may be hardly sensible, and will extend to a very small distance. Thus, a circular plate of coated glass, six inches in diameter and one 20th thick, when electrified so as to make an elec-

trometer diverge 50 degrees, contains about 60 times as much electricity as a brass plate, of the same diameter, electrified to the same degree; and these two will have the same influence on an electrometer placed at a distance from them, and will give a spark nearly at the same distance. The spark from the coated glass will be bright, and will give a shock; while that from the brass plate will be trifling. The cause of the inequality of influence is, that the positive electricity of the one side of the coated glass is almost balanced by the negative electricity of the other side, and the unbalanced part is about one fifty-ninth of the whole. If we now take a brass plate of 46½ inches in diameter, and electrify it to the same degree with the coated glass, we shall find that it will require the same number of turns of the machine to bring it to this state, or to charge the coated glass. They contain the same quantity of electricity, and the spark of both will give the same shock. But this large plate will have a much wider influence; a person coming within ten feet of it will feel his hair bend towards it, and feel like a cobweb on his face. It may be farther demonstrated that the power of a point to abstract the electricity to a given degree from the large plate, is vastly smaller than its power to abstract it to the same degree from the coated plate. This is different in the different degrees of the abstraction, and cannot be expressed by any one number. All these considerations taken together, show us that the pointed conductor has little advantage over the ball in the circumstance above mentioned. It has, however, an advantage, and therefore should be employed; and in the case of a calm, or very gentle progress of the thunder cloud, the advantage may be very great. The only remaining consideration is the quantity of metallic conduct that should be given. Prudence teaches not to spare, especially in very lofty buildings. The conductor of the dome of St Paul's in London consists of four iron straps, each 4 inches broad and one half inch thick. This conductor was once made red hot by a thunder stroke. No influence has been found of a rod ¼ an inch square being exploded. The accident at Mr Watt's house in Philadelphia is curious. The brass wire which terminated the rod had been ten inches long and one 4th thick at the base, and 2½ inches were melted. It was unable, therefore, to conduct that stroke when its diameter was less than one 16th of an inch. Lead or copper is recommended in preference to iron. Iron wastes by rust, and by exfoliating retains water, which may be dangerous by its expansion. A strap of lead, two inches broad and one 4th thick, stapled down to the roof or wall with brass staples, secures from all risks from neglect. An iron rod, or one fastened with iron cramps, requires frequent inspection, to see that nothing has failed or wasted by rust. The point or points should be copper. It would be very proper to connect all the leads of the ridges, gutters, and spouts, with the conductor, by straps of lead. This will greatly extend its protection. A great extent of building is not sufficiently secured by one conductor. And a powder magazine should have some erected round it at a distance on masts.

(17.) THUNDER, RETURNING STROKE OF. See LIGHTNING, § 10—15; and § 14 of this article.

(18.) THUNDER RODS, metalline conductors, placed along the walls of buildings to preserve them from damage by lightning. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*, at RODS; and § 16 of this article.

(19.) THUNDER, STORMS OF. See LIGHTNING, § 5, 13; and § 16 of this article.

(1.) * To THUNDER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To make thunder.—

He would not flatter Neptune for his trident,
Nor Jove for's power to thunder. *Shak.*

2. To make a loud or terrible noise.—Some few notable examples had thundered a duty into the subjects. *Sidney.*

His dreadful name thro' all Spain did thunder. *Spenser.*

His dreadful voice no more
Would thunder in my ears. *Milton*

Like a black sheet the whelming billow spread,
Burst o'er the float, and thunder'd on his head. *Pope.*

(2.) * To THUNDER. *v. a.* 1. To emit with noise and terror.—

Oracles severe
Were daily thunder'd in our general's ear. *Dryd.*

2. To publish any denunciation or threat.—An archdeacon may thunder out an ecclesiastical censure. *Ayliffe.*

THUNDER BAY, a bay of N. America, at the NW. corner of Lake Huron, so named from its frequent thunder storms.

(1.) * THUNDERBOLT. *n. f.* [thunder and bolt, as it signifies an arrow.] 1. Lightning; the arrows of heaven.—If I had a thunderbolt in mine eye. *Shak.*—Let the lightning of this thunderbolt be a terror to all. *K. Charles.*

My heart does beat,
As if 'twere forging thunderbolts. *Denham.*

The Scipios, those thunderbolts of war. *Dryd.*
—The most remarkable piece in Antonine's pillar, is Jupiter Pluvius sending down rain on the fainting army of Marcus Aurelius, and thunderbolts on his enemies; which is the greatest confirmation of the story of the Christian legion. *Addison.*
2. Fulmination; denunciation, properly ecclesiastical.—He threatens such with the thunderbolt of excommunication. *Hakewill.*

(2.) THUNDERBOLT. When lightning acts with extraordinary violence, and breaks or shatters any thing, it is called a thunderbolt, which the vulgar, to fit it for such effects, suppose to be a hard body, and even a stone. When we consider the known effects of electrical explosions, and those produced by lightning, we shall be at no loss to account for the extraordinary operations vulgarly ascribed to thunderbolts. As stones and bricks struck by lightning are often found in a vitrified state, we may reasonably suppose, with Beccaria, that some stones in the earth having been struck in this manner, gave occasion to the vulgar opinion of the thunderbolt.

* THUNDERCLAP. *n. f.* [thunder and clap.] Explosion of thunder.—

The kindly bird that bears Jove's thunder-clap. *Spenser.*

When some dreadful thunderclap is nigh,
The winged fire-shoots swiftly fly. *Dryden.*
Suddenly the thunderclap was heard. *Dryden.*
* THUNDERER. *n. f.* [from thunder.] The power that thunders.—

How dare you, ghosts,
Accuse the thunderer, whose bolt you know? *Shak.*

On that small island they had look'd with scorn,
And in Great Britain thought the thunderer born. *Waller.*

The lesser gods that shar'd his prosperous state,
All suffer'd in the exile'd thunderer's state. *Dryd.*

* THUNDEROUS. *adj.* [from thunder.] Producing thunder.—

He before the thunderous throne doth lie. *Milton.*

* THUNDERSHOWER. *n. f.* [thunder and shower.] A rain accompanied with thunder.—The conceit is long in delivering, and at last it comes like a *thundershower*, full of sulphur and darkness, with a terrible crack. *Stillingfleet.*—In *thundershowers* the winds and clouds are oftentimes contrary to one another, especially if hail falls, the sultry weather below directing the wind one way, and the cold above the clouds another. *Derham.*

* THUNDERSTONE. *n. f.* [thunder and stone.] A stone fabulously supposed to be emitted by thunder; thunderbolt.—

Fear no more the light'ning flash,
Nor th' all dreaded thunderstone. *Shak.*

THUNDER-STORM, *n. f.* A storm of lightning and thunder, generally attended with hail, rain, and wind.

* To THUNDERSTRIKE. *v. a.* [thunder and strike.] 1. To blast or hurt with lightning.—I remained as a man *thunderstricken*. *Sidney.*

Drove them before him *thunderstruck*. *Milton.*
Nigh *thunderstruck*, th' exalted man, to whom
Such high attest was giv'n, a while survey'd. *Milton.*

Thunderstruck Enceladus. *Addison.*

2. To astonish with any thing terrible.—
Fears on our hearts took

The very life; to be so *thunderstrooke*. *Chapm.*
THUNDERY. *adj.* [from *thunner*.] Abounding with thunder, lightning, or electricity, applied to the clouds or atmosphere.

THUNOE, an island of Denmark, between Jutland and the isle of Samsoe. Lon. 10. 19. E. Lat. 56. 1. N.

(1.) THUR, a hill of Arabia, near Mecca There is a cave in it, where MAHOMET concealed himself along with ABU BECK, a whole night, when the Korerth were in pursuit of him, and very narrowly escaped being taken.

(2.) THUR, a river of Switzerland, which rises in the S. part of the ci-devant county of Toggenburg, and falls into the Rhine, 7 miles SSW. of Schaffhausen.

THURE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vienne; 4 miles W. of Chatellerault.

THURGAU, a territory of Switzerland, formerly a landgraviate; bounded on the N. by Suabia and the lake of Constance; E. by that lake; S. by St Gall, and W. by the cantons of Zurich and

and Schaffhausen. (See SWITZERLAND, § 7.) It is so named from the THUR, and comprehends the whole territory on both sides of that river. The flat part of it is fertile in grain, fruits, and most useful plants; the hilly ground affords fine pasture. It contains 6 towns, several burghs, and 170 villages. One third of the people are Roman Catholics, the other two thirds Calvinists.

(1.) THURIE, THURII, or THURIUM, an ancient town of Italy, in Lucania, built by a colony of Athenians near the ruins of SYBARIS, A. C. 444. Among these colonists were HERODOTUS, the historian, and LYSIAS. *Strab. vi. Mela, ii. 4.*

(2.) THURIA, a town of Messenia. *Pauf.*

* THURIFEROUS. *adj.* [*thurifer*, Lat.] Bearing frankincense.

* THURIFICATION. *n. f.* [*thuris* and *facio*, Latin.] The act of fuming with incense; the act of burning incense.—The several acts of worship which were required to be performed to images are processions, genuflections, *thurifications*, deolutions, and oblations. *Stillingfleet.*

THURIL. See THURIA, N^o 1.

THURINGIA, *plur.* The ancient inhabitants of THURINGIA. They were a tribe of the Catti; (See CATTI); or, according to others, of the VANDALS. They are mentioned by Tacitus, and were very numerous.

(1.) THURINGIA, in ancient geography, the country of the ancient THURINGI, was formerly a kingdom, afterwards a county, then a landgrate, and was governed by its own princes for many ages, till 1124, when it devolved to the marquis of Misnia, and with that country, afterwards to the duke of Saxony.

(2.) THURINGIA, in modern geography, a division of the circle of Upper Saxony. It is a fertile tract, abounding in corn, wheat, black cattle, sheep, and horses. It is about 73 miles long, and equally broad. It contains 47 towns, 14 boroughs, betwixt 700 and 800 villages, 300 noble estates, 7 superintendencies, and 5 under-consistories. Modern Thuringia is only a part of the ancient, nay, but a part of the ancient South Thuringia, which comprehends besides, a large share of the modern Franconia, Hesse, &c. On the extinction of the male line of the ancient landgraves in 1247, it came to the margraves of Meissen, ancestors to the present electoral family. The elector has no voice in the diet, on account of his share in the landgrate or circle of Thuringia. **ERFURT** is the capital.

THURINUS, an epithet given to **AUGUSTUS** in his youth, because some of his ancestors came from Thuriu. *Sueton.*

THURIUM. See THURIA, N^o 1.

THURLES, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary; 20 miles W. of Kilkenny, and 10 N. of Cashel.

THURLOE, John, an English statesman under Oliver Cromwell, was born at Abbots Roding in Essex, in 1616, of which parish his father was rector, and was educated to the study of the law. In 1648 he was made receiver of the curiatory fines. When Oliver Cromwell assumed the protectorship, he became secretary of state; in 1653, he had the care and charge both of foreign and inland postage; and was afterwards sworn a member of the privy-council. He was continued in

the same offices under Richard Cromwell, and until measures were taken for the Restoration; when he made an offer of his services to that end, which, however, was not accepted. May 15th, 1660, he was committed to the custody of the serjeant at arms on a charge of high treason; but being soon released, he retired to Great Milton in Oxfordshire; and though he was afterwards often solicited by Charles II. to engage in the administration of public business, he declined the offers. He died in 1668; and was a man of an amiable private character, who in the highest of his power exercised all possible moderation towards persons of every party. The most authentic testimony of his abilities is his vast collection of *state Papers*, in 7 vols. folio.

THURLOW, Thomas, a late learned English prelate, brother of the Lord Chancellor, was born in 1734. After the usual course of education in grammar, languages, &c. he was sent to the university of Oxford, where he was entered a fellow of Magdalene College; where, on the 9th March 1761, he took his degree of M. A. that of B. D. April 13th, 1769; and that of D. D. June 29th, 1773. In 1771 he had been appointed to the valuable benefice of Stanhope in Durham; in 1773 to be Master of the Temple; in 1777 dean of Rochester; and soon after dean of St Paul's. In 1779, he was consecrated Bp. of Lincoln; and in Jan. 1787, bishop of Durham. He died 27th May 1793, aged 59.

(1.) THURN, a town of Germany, in Stiria; 5 miles S. of Windisch Gratz.

(2.) THURN, a town of Carniola, 2 miles S. of Gurkfeld.

(1.) THUROTZ, a river of Hungary, which runs into the Waag; 12 miles N. of St Martin.

(2.) THUROTZ, a county of Hungary, on the banks of the above river.

THURROCK, or GRAYS. See GRAYS.

* THURSDAY. *n. f.* [*thorsday*, Danish; from *thor*. *Thor* was the son of Odin; yet, in some of the northern parts, they worshipped the Supreme Deity under his name, attributing the power over all things, even the inferior deities, to him. *Stillingfleet.*] The fifth day of the week.

(1.) THURSO, a river of Scotland, in Caithness, which rises from LOCHMORE, and falls into the Pentland Frith at THURSO (N^o 2.) into the bay (N^o 4.) It abounds with salmon; and afforded the extraordinary draught of these fish, on the 23d July, 1743.—A. O. S. of no fewer than 2360 of a good size. The river is navigable for 2 miles by vessels of 60 tons.

(2.) THURSO, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Caithness, on the banks of the above river, comprehending the town (N^o 3.) and a considerable part of the adjacent territory, to the extent of 3 miles around it in every direction, except towards the NW. where it is bounded by the sea. Its form is irregular; and it contains about 4000 acres of arable land, besides commonies. The surface is level, interspersed with small eminences, pleasant villas, and fertile and well cultivated fields, watered by the THURSO (N^o 1.) The population, in 1755, was 2963; that of 1797 was 3146; the increase 183; the number of horses in 1797 was 534; of sheep 688; of black cattle,

937; and hogs, 280. There are some relics of Pictish houses; but the chief antiquity is the tomb of Harold, E. of Caithness, who was killed in 1190; lately rebuilt by Sir John Sinclair. Besides whin-stone on the coast, the parish abounds with free-stone quarries. Sulphat of barytes also abounds, as well as coarse slates.

(3.) THURSO, a borough of barony in the above parish (N^o 2.) seated at the head of the bay, (N^o 1.) on the mouth or estuary of the river (N^o 1.) It is irregularly built, but an elegant new town, called *Jane's Town*, is lately erected upon a regular plan. The old church is a strong Gothic building, and is kept in good repair. The old town was anciently a place of considerable trade and importance. It was erected into a borough of barony, in 1633, by a royal charter from King Charles I. with a weekly market, and 5 fairs, &c. It is governed by 2 bailies and 12 counsellors, appointed by Sir J. Sinclair. The chief manufacture is coarse linen, and some woollen cloth. It has also a bleachfield and tannery; a salmon and cod fishery; and a branch of the Bank of Scotland. Thurso is a port of the Custom-house, and has 16 vessels with decks; the harbour admits vessels drawing 10 feet water. Corn and meal are exported from it to the value of 12,000*l.* sterling; and fish to that of 13,824*l.* The patriotic Sir John Sinclair of Ulbster, Bart. is the proprietor. (See RURAL ECONOMY, *Hist.* p. 398: and STATISTICS.) Thurso lies 42 miles NNE. of Dornoch. Lon. 3. 16. W. or 0. W. of Edin. Lat. 58. 36. N.

(4.) THURSO BAY, a small bay on the coast of Thurso, often confounded by geographers with Dunnet Bay. See DUNNET, N^o 5.

(1.) THURY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Oise; 7 miles SE. of Crespy.

(2.) THURY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne; 10 miles SE. of Fargeau.

(1.) THUS, FFANKINCENSE, a solid brittle resin, brought to us in little globes or masses, of a brownish or yellowish colour on the outside, internally whitish or variegated with whitish specks. It is supposed to be the produce of the pine that yields the common turpentine, and to concrete upon the surface of the terebinthinate juice soon after it has issued from the tree. See INCENSE.

(2.) THUS, in geography, a town of Persia, in Chorasán; 200 miles NNW. of Herat.

(3.) * THUS, *adv.* [*thus*, Saxon.] 1. In this manner; in this wise.—It cannot be that they who speak *thus*, should *thus* judge. Hooker.—

The knight him calling, asked who he was?
Who lifting up his head, him answer'd *thus*.
Spenser.

I return'd with similar proof enough,
With tokens *thus*, and *thus*. Shak.

To be *thus* is nothing;
But to be safely *thus*. Shak.

—*Thus* and *thus* have I done. *Jos.* vii. 23.—The Romans used a like wife endeavour, making concord a deity; *thus* seeking peace, not by an oath, but by prayer. *Holyday*.—That the principle that sets on work these organs, is nothing else but the modification of matter *thus* or *thus* posited, is false. *Hale*.—

VOL. XXII, PART II.

I warn thee *thus*, because I know thy temper.
Dryden.

Thus in the triumphs of soft peace I reign.
Dryden.

From his lofty couch he *thus* began. *Dryden*.
2. To this degree; to this quantity.—A counsellor of state in Spain said to his master, I will tell your majesty *thus* much for your comfort, your majesty hath but two enemies; whereof the one is all the world, and the other your own ministers. *Bacon*.—Even *thus* wife, that is, *thus* peaceable were very Heathens; *thus* peaceable among themselves, though without grace; *thus* peaceable by wife nature. *Holyday*.—

Thus far extend, *thus* far thy bounds. *Mil.*
—*Thus* much concerning the first earth. *Burnet*.
—No man reasonably pretends to know *thus* much. *Tilloson*.—If you have come up *thus* far, firmly persevere. *Wake*.

(4.) THUS, in sea language, a word used by the pilot in directing the helmsman or steersman to keep the ship in her present situation when sailing with a scant wind, so that she may not approach too near the direction of the wind, which would shiver her sails, nor fall to leeward, and run farther out of her course.

THUSCIA, an ancient name of ETRURIA, from whence TUSCANY, one of its modern names is derived.

THUYA. See THUJA.

* THWACK. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A heavy hard blow.—

But Talgol first with a hard *thwack*
Twice bruised his head, and twice his back.

Hudibras.
—They place several pots of rice, with cudgels in the neighbourhood of each pot; the monkeys descend from the trees, take up the arms, and belabour one another with a storm of *thwacks*. *Adif.*
* To THWACK. *v. a.* [*thaccian*, Saxon.] To strike with something blunt and heavy; to thresh; to bang; to belabour. A ludicrous word.—

We'll *thwack* him hence with distaffs. *Shak.*
—Nick fell foul upon John Bull, to snatch the cudgel he had in his hand, that he might *thwack* Lewis with it. *Arbuthnot*.—These long fellows, as lightly as they are, should find their jackets well *thwack'd*. *Arbuthnot*.

* THWART. *adj.* [*thawyr*, Saxon; *dwaris*, Dutch.] 1. Transverse; cross to something else.—

Mov'd contrary with *thwart* obliquities.
Milton.

2. Perverse; inconvenient; mischievous.

(1.) * To THWART. *v. a.* 1. To cross; to lie or come cross any thing.—

Swift as a shooting star
In Autumn *thwarts* the night. *Milton*.

Yon stream of light a thousand ways
Upward and downward *thwarting*. *Thomson*.

2. To cross; to oppose; to traverse; to contravene.—

If crooked fortune had not *thwarted* me.
Shak.

Lesser had been
The *thwartings* of your dispositions. *Shak.*

—The proposals of the one never *thwarted* the inclinations of the other. *South*.—

Z z Each

Each *thwarting* other.

The more I begg'd, they *thwarted* me the more.

Neptune aton'd, his wrath shall now refrain,
Or *thwart* the synd of the gods in vain. Pope.

By *thwarting* passions tost. Young.

(1.) * *To THWART. v. n.* To be in opposition to.—It is easy to be imagined what reception any proposition shall find, that shall at all *thwart* with these internal oracles. Locke.

* *THWARTING. n. f.* [from *thwart.*] The act of crossing, &c. as the verb.

* *THWARTINGLY. adv.* [from *thwarting.*] Oppositely; with opposition.

THWART-THE-WAY, an island in the Straits of Sunda. See *SUNDA*, N° 3.

* *THY. pronoun.* [*thin*, Saxon.] Of thee; belonging to thee; relating to thee; the possessive of *thou*. See *THOU*.—

Whatever God did say,

Is all *thy* clear uninterrupted way. Cowley.

Th' example of the heavenly lark,

Thy fellow poet Cowley mark. Cowley.

These are *thy* works, parent of good! Milt.

(1.) *THYA*, a town of Phocis, near Delphi.

(2.) *THYA*, a name of *CYBELE*. See *OPS*.

THYADES, a name of the Bacchantals.

THYAMIS, a river of Epirus. *Pauf.* l. c. 11.

THYANA, an ancient town of Cappadocia.

THYAS, a mistress of Bacchus, the chief of the *THYADES*.

THYATIRA, an ancient city of Asia Minor, in Lydia; originally called *PELOPIA*, formerly very flourishing; (*Liv.* 37. c. 8, and 44.) and famous in the Apostolic age, for its early reception of Christianity; (*Rev.* ii. 18, 19.) It is now called *AKISSAT*, which see.

THYBARNI, an ancient nation of Asia, near Sardis. *Diod.* 17.

THYESTES, the son of *PELOPS*, and brother of *ATREUS*, whose wife he debauched; which was followed by a series of horrid crimes. See *ÆGISTHUS*, *ATREUS*, *CLYTEMNESTRA*, *PELOPIA*, &c.

* *THYINE WOOD. n. f.* A precious wood.—The merchandize of gold and all *thyine wood* are departed from thee. *Rev.* xviii. 12.

THYLÆ. See *THULE*.

(1.) *THYMBRA*, an ancient town of Lydia, near Sardis; famous for a battle fought between Cyrus king of Persia, and Croesus, king of Lydia, in which the latter was defeated. See *CROESUS*, and *CYRUS*.

(2.) *THYMBRA*, in botany, *MOUNTAIN HYSOP*, a genus of plants of the class *Didynamia*, and order *gymnospermia*; and in the natural method ranking in the order of *Verticillate*.

(3.) *THYMBRA*, a district of Troas, where there was a temple of Apollo: whence

THYMBRÆUS, a surname of Apollo.

THYMBRIS, a nymph, the mother of *PAN*.

THYMBRIUS, a river of Troas, running into the Scamander, through *Thymbra*.

(1.) * *THYME. n. f.* [*thym*, Fr. *thymus*, Latin.] A plant.—The *thyme* hath a labiate flower, consisting of one leaf, whose upper-lip is erect, and generally split in two, and the under lip is divided into three parts; out of the flower-cup arises

the pointal, accompanied by four embryos, which afterward become so many seeds, inclosed in a husk, which before was the flower cup; to these marks must be added hard ligneous stalks, and the flowers gathered into heads. *Miller*.

No more, my goats, shall I behold you climb
The steepy cliffs, or crop the flow'ry *thyme*.

Dryden.

(2.) *THYME*, in botany. See *THYMUS*, N° II.

THYMELE, in the Greek theatre. See *THI-*

ATRE, § 8.

THYMIATHIS, a river of Epirus. *Strab.* 7.

THYMOCHARES, an Athenian general, who was defeated by the Spartans.

(1.) *THYMETES*, a Trojan prince, the son of Laomedon, king of Troy, whose wife and son having been killed by order of king Priam, he, in revenge, advised the Trojans to admit the wooden horse of the Greeks, by which Troy was destroyed. *Virg. Æn.* ii. 32.

(2.) *THYMETES*, another Trojan prince, son of Hicetaon, and grandson of Laomedon, who accompanied Æneas into Italy, where he was killed by Turnus. *Æn.* x. 123.

(3.) *THYMETES*, king of Attica, the son of Oxyntus, the last king of the family of *THYSEUS*. He was deposed, because he refused to fight Xanthus, king of Beotia, about A. A. C. 1128.

(1.) *THYMUS*, in Anatomy. See *ANATOMY, Index*. Morgagni observed a milky fluid in the thymus; which Bourgelot also observed in colts. Pozzius the anatomist supposed the use of the thymus was to fill up the space occupied after birth, by the increase and inflation of the lungs. This opinion has been also adopted by Senec, Lieutaud, and some later anatomists.

(II.) *THYMUS, THYME*, in botany; A genus of plants belonging to the class of *didynamia*, and order of *gymnospermia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 42d order, *Verticillate*. The calyx is bilabiate, and its throat closed with soft hairs. There are 11 species; of which two only are natives of Britain; viz.

1. *THYMUS ACINAS, wild basil*, has flowers growing in whirls on single footstalks; the stalks are erect and branched; the leaves acute and serrated.

2. *THYMUS SERPYLLUM, or mother of thyme*, has pale red flowers growing on round heads, terminal: the stalks are procumbent, and the leaves plane, obtuse, and ciliated at the base.

3. *THYMUS VULGARIS, common garden thyme*, is a native of France, Spain, and Italy.

THYNI, or *Bithyni*, an ancient people of Bithynia.

THYODAMAS, or *Theodamas*, a king of Myfia, killed by Hercules.

THYONE, a name of *SEMLE*, after her deification: whence

THYONEUS, a surname of Bacchus.

THYOTH, or *THOTH*. See *HERMES, MERCURY, MYTHOLOGY*, § 10; *POLYTHEISM, TAAUT*, and *THOTH*.

THYRE, a town of Messenia, famous for a battle fought between the Argives and Spartans.

THYREA, an island on the coast of Peloponnesus, near Hermione. *Hered.* vi. 76.

THYREUM, a town of Acarnania.

THYRIDES,

THYRIDES, 3 islands near **TÆNARUS**. *Plin.*

THYRIENSES, the people of **THYREUM**.

THYRSAGETÆ, an ancient nation of **Sarmatia**, who lived chiefly by hunting. *Plin. iv. c. 12.*

(1.) **THYRSUS**, in antiquity, the sceptre of **BACCHUS**, and wherewith they furnished the **Menades** in their **BACCHANALIA**. The **Thyrri** were spears made wholly of wood, entwined with leaves and twigs of the vine and ivy.

(2.) **THYRSUS**, in botany, a mode of flowering resembling the cone of a pine. It is, says *Linnaeus*, a panicle contracted into an oval or egg-shaped form. The lower footstalks, which are longer, extend horizontally, whilst the upper ones are shorter and mount vertically. Lilac and butter-bur furnish examples.

(3.) **THYRSUS**, in geography, a river of **Sardinia**, now called **ORISTAGNI**.

* **THYSELF**, *pronoun reciprocal*. [*thy* and *self*.]
It is commonly used in the oblique cases, or following the verb.—

Thyself and office desitly show. *Shak.*

It shall be so; content *thyself*. *Shak.*

It is poetical or solemn language it is sometimes used in the nominative.—

These goods *thyself* can on *thyself* bestow. *Dryden.*

THYSIUS, Anthony, a celebrated Philologist, born at **Harderwick**, in **Holland**, in 1603. He became professor of poetry and rhetoric, and librarian to the university of **Leyden**. He published, 1. *Compendium Historiæ Bataviæ*; 2. *Exercitationes Miscellaneæ*; and several accurate editions of the *Classici cum notis variorum*.

THYSSOS, an ancient town of **Macedon**, near mount **Athos**.

THYUS, a satrap of **Paphlagonia**, who revolted from **Artaxerxes II.** and was seized by **Datanes**. *Corn. Nep. in Dat.*

TIAGAR, a town of **Hindooostan**, in the **Carnatic**, 50 miles **WSW.** of **Pondicherry**, and 75 **S.** of **Arco**.

TIAGUANACO, or } a town of **S. America**,
TIAGUANCO, } in **Buenos Ayres**, and
jurisdiction of **Omasuio**, where there are said to be some relics of **Antediluvian** buildings. See **DELUGE**, § 7.

TIAMPAN, a cape of **Scotland**, in **Ross-shire**, on the coast of **Stornoway**.

TIANGPOTAO, an island of **Asia**, in **Corea**, in the **Huanghi**, 30 miles in Circum. *Lon.* 142. 19. *E. Ferro.* *Lat.* 37. 20. *N.*

TIANO. See **THEANO**.

TIANTEGNIES, a town of the **French empire**, in the dep. of the **Scheldt**, and ci-devant prov. of **Austrian Flanders**, 6 miles **SW.** of **Tournay**.

(1.) * **TIAR** } *n. f.* [*tiare*, *Fr. tiara*, *Latin.*]
(1.) * **TIARA** } A dress for the head; a diadem.

Of beaming sunny rays a golden *tiar*
Circled his head. *Milton.*

This royal robe, and this *tiara* wore
Old **Priam**. *Dryden.*

A *tiar* wreath'd her head with many a fold.

A bright *tiara* round her forehead ty'd. *Pope.*

(2.) The **TIARA** was an ornament or habit wherewith the ancient **Persians** covered their head; and with which the **Armenians** and kings of **Pontus** are represented on medals; these last, because they were descended from the **Persians**. *Latin* authors call it indifferently *tiara* and *cidaris*. *Strabo* says, the *tiara* was in form of a tower; and the scholiast on *Aristophanes's comedy*, *ΑΧΕΡΩ*, act 1. scene 2. affirms, that it was adorned with peacock's feathers.

(3.) **TIARA** is also the name of the pope's triple crown. The *tiara* and *keys* are the badges of the papal dignity; the *tiara* of his civil rank, and the *keys* of his jurisdiction; for as soon as the pope is dead, his arms are represented with the *tiara* alone, without the *keys*. The ancient *tiara* was a round high cap. *John XXIII.* first encompassed it with a crown. *Boniface VIII.* added a second crown; and *Benedict XII.* a third.

TIARELLA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *decandria*, and order of *di-gynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 13th order, *Succulente*. The calyx is quinque-partite; the corolla pentapetalous, and inserted into the calyx; the petals are entire; the capsule is unilocular and bivalve, the one valve being less than the other. There are two species, viz.

1. **TIARELLA CORDIFOLIA**, with heart-shaped leaves; and

2. **TIARELLA TRIFOLIA**, the three-leaved *tiarella*.

TIARINI, Alexander, a celebrated painter, born at **Bologna**, in 1577; he painted historical pieces and portraits in a fine style. He died in 1668.

TIARP, a town of **Sweden**, in **Westmanland**; 25 miles **N.** of **Upfal**.

TIASA, a river of **Laconia**; so named from a nymph, the daughter of **Eurotus**. *Paus. iii. c. 18.*

TIB, a town of **Persia**, in **Chusistan**, 60 miles **NW.** of **Sufter**.

TIBARENI, 2 ancient nations of **Asia**; 1. in **Cappadocia**, on the banks of the **Thermoodoon**; 2. in **Pontus**. *Mela. i. c. 20.*

TIBARNA, a town of the island of **Cuba**, 25 miles **WSW.** of **Bayamo**.

TIBBERMUIR, **TYBERMORE**, or **TIPPERMUIR**, a parish of **Perthshire**, 8 miles long, and from 1 to 3 broad; **W.** from **Perth**. It comprehends 4,670 Scottish acres; of which 186 are under wood; 196 moss and moor; and the rest arable. The soil is various, dry, and wet, but on the whole fertile; the fields are mostly inclosed with hedges and ditches. But the parish is chiefly famous and important from its various bleach-fields and printworks, particularly those at **HUNTINGTOWER** and **RUTHVEN**. (See these articles.) All these are supplied with water by a canal, which is of great antiquity, having been first dug by the Romans under **AGRICOLA**, in the 2d century, and afterwards improved, and distinctly mentioned in old charters, dated 1244. The population in 1796 was 1280; the increase 292, since 1755.

TIBENDEI, a town of **Russia**, in **Tobolskoi**, 92 miles **SE.** of **Tobolsk**.

TIBER, a great river of **Italy**, much celebrated

Z z 2 by

by the poets, and to which the Romans under Agricola likened our TAY. It runs through the pope's territories, passing by Perugia and Orvieto; and having visited Rome, falls into the Tuscany sea at Ostia, 15 miles below that city.

TIBERIADES, in Roman mythology, the nymphs of the Tiber.

(1.) **TIBERIAS**, in ancient geography, the last town of Galilee, situated on the S. side of the lake Tiberias; built by Herod the Tetrarch, and named in honour of the emperor Tiberius; 30 stadia from Hippus. Jerome says its ancient name was *Chennereth*. It is now called **TABARIA**, which see.

(2.) **TIBERIAS, LAKE, OR SEA OF**. See **GENESARETH**. N° 1.

TIBERINUS, a king of Alba, who was drowned in the *Albula*; on which its name was changed to **TIBER**. See **ROME**, § 2.

TIBERIS. [Lat.] See **TIBER**.

(1.) **TIBERIUS I.** Claudius Nero, the third emperor of Rome, and one of the greatest monsters that ever reigned in it. He was the step-son, colleague, and successor of Augustus. See **ROME**, § 42—43.

(2.) **TIBERIUS II.** was a Thracian by birth, and rose by his merit to the highest offices in the state; and at last **JUSTIN II.** associated him as his colleague in the eastern empire, A. D. 574. On the death of Justin in 578, he became sole emperor; and reigned with great justice and moderation. He defeated the Persians, and died in 582.

(3.) **TIBERIUS, Claudius**, was also the name of the emperors **CLAUDIUS** and **NERO**.

TIBESIS, a river of ancient Scythia, rising from mount *Hæmus*, and falling into the *Ister*. *Herod.* iv. 49.

TIBESTI, a mountainous country of Arabia, inhabited by wild Arabs; 150 miles SSE. of Mourzouk.

(1.) **TIBET**, or **THIBET**, a country of Asia, a part of Independent Tartary. (See **TARTARY**.) N° II.) It extends from the source of the Indus to the borders of China, and from Hindoostan to the deserts of *Cobi*, or *Kobi*, being 1500 miles long from E. to W. but of unequal breadth, the extent of which is not exactly known.

(2.) **TIBET, BOUNDARIES, EXTENT, AND NAMES OF**. Others say Thibet is bounded on the N. by the country of the **MOGULS**, or **MONGULS**; on the E. by China: on the S. and W. by *Ava* and *Hindoostan*, and that it is about 2000 miles broad from N. to S. being bounded on the N. and W. by the deserts of *Kobi*, E. by China, S. by *Affam* and *Burmah*, W. by *Hindoostan* and *Bootan*; while others make *Bootan* a part of Thibet. (See **BOOTAN**.) It is called by the Tartars *Barantala* and *Tangeot*, and by the Chinese *Tsang*. It lies between 81° and 102° Lon. E. and between 26° and 40° Lat. N.

(3.) **TIBET, CLIMATE OF**. The climate is extremely cold and severe. Even in the middle of April, the rivers and lakes are all frozen, and great storms of snow are frequent. *Bootan* is a country of steep mountains, crowned with eternal snow; they are intersected with deep valleys, through which run many torrents. These mountains are

covered with stately trees of various sorts. The valleys and sides of the hills produce crops of wheat, barley, and rice.

(4.) **TIBET, DISEASES OF**. The same disease prevails at the foot of the mountains of Tibet as in Switzerland at the foot of the Alps, a glandular swelling in the throat commonly called *goutte*. The venereal disease is not uncommon in Tibet; and the inhabitants are acquainted with the effects of mercury, and with a method of preparing it, so as to render it a safe and efficacious remedy. They know how to deprive it of its metallic form by mixing it with alum, nitre, and vermilion, and exposing it to a certain degree of heat, which they judge of by weighing the fuel.

(5.) **TIBET, DIVISIONS OF**. Tibet is divided by geographers into 3 extensive parts or districts, but these are not very distinctly marked, viz. the *Upper, Middle, and Lower Tibet*.

i. **TIBET, LOWER**, is that part which borders upon China; but as Mr Cruttwell observes, "the subject is *obscure*, and likely to remain so." But the people are much improved by their vicinity to the Chinese.

ii. **TIBET, MIDDLE**, is that extensive country in the *centre* of Tibet, in which the city and district of *Lassa* are situated. *Lassa* is the capital of it, and of all Tibet. See **LASSA**. This is the principal part of Tibet, and the natives are in a high state of civilization, abating for their absurd religion.

iii. **TIBET, UPPER**, comprehends those extensive territories which lie about the sources of the **GANGES** and **SANPOO**; and is pretty populous between Upper Tibet and Cashgar. There is a district called *Little Tibet*; but Major Rennel, tho' he visited this country, could not learn with certainty, whether this district belongs to Upper Tibet or to Cashgar. See **CASHGAR**.

(6.) **TIBET, INHABITANTS OF**. The inhabitants are stout and warlike, of a copper complexion, in size rather above the middle European stature, quarrelsome, and fond of spirits, but honest. The common people, both in *Bootan* and *Thibet*, are clothed in coarse woollen stuffs of their own manufacture, lined with such skins as they can procure; but the better orders are dressed in European cloth, or China silk, lined with Siberian furs. The use of linen is unknown. The chief food of the inhabitants consists of cheese and butter, mixed with the flour of coarse barley or peas, the only grain which their soil produces; but they are furnished with rice and wheat from abroad. They have plenty of animal food, fish, and game. They have a singular method of preparing their mutton, by exposing the carcass entire, after the bowels are taken out, to the sun and bleak northern winds which blow in Aug. and Sept. without frost, and so dry up the juices and parch the skin, that the meat will keep uncorrupted for the whole year. This meat will generally eat without any other preparation.

(7.) **TIBET, LANGUAGE AND SCIENCE OF**. The language spoken in Tibet is different from that of the Tartars. The astronomers are acquainted with the motions of the heavenly bodies, and able to calculate eclipses; but the lamas are generally ignorant;

ignorant; few of them can read, much less understand their ancient books.

(8.) **TIBET, PLANTS AND MINERALS OF.** The plants are almost all European, great numbers being natives of Britain. The appearance of the hills gives promise of many ores of metal and pyrites. There are inexhaustible quantities of **TINICAL**, (see that article,) and rock salt is plentiful; gold-dust is found in great quantities in the beds of rivers, and sometimes in large masses, lumps, and irregular veins; lead, cinnabar containing a large proportion of quicksilver, copper, and iron, might easily be procured. But they have no better fuel than the dung of animals. A coal mine would be a valuable discovery. We are told, that in some parts of China bordering on Tibet, coal is found and used as fuel.

(9.) **TIBET, RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT OF.** The religion and political constitution of this country are intimately blended together. For since the expulsion of the Eluth Tartars, the kingdom of Tibet has depended on the empire of China, which they call *Cathay*; and there reside two mandarines, with a garrison of 1000 Chinese, at **LASSA**, the capital, to support the government; but their power does not extend far: for in fact the lama, whose empire is founded on personal attachment and religious reverence, governs every thing internally with unbounded authority. As the grand lama must never concern himself about temporal affairs; he appoints a deputy vicegerent or minister under him, called **TIPA**, to whom he entrusts the entire management of all civil and secular affairs. This tipa wears the habit of a lama; but is dispensed with from observing the strict and severe rules of the order. The adoration and worship paid to the grand lama, is beyond all conception degrading, and disgraceful to human nature. They even think his very excrements a divine favour! See **LAMA**, N^o 1.

(10.) **TIBET, SINGULAR CUSTOMS IN.** Polygamy exists in a manner shockingly repugnant to European ideas; for there is a plurality of *husbands*, which is firmly established and even respected there, similar to that of the *Nayres*. (See **NAYRES**.) They expose their dead on the pinnacle of some mountain, to be devoured by wild beasts and birds of prey, or walked away by time and the weather.

TIBETIANS, the inhabitants of Tibet. See **TIBET**, § 6.

TIBIA, in anatomy, the principal bone of the leg. See **ANATOMY**, § 157.

(1.) **TIBISCUS**, an ancient town of Dacia, now called **TEMESWAR**.

(2.) **TIBISCUS**, a river of Dacia, running into the Danube, at the above town.

TIBRIS. [Lat.] See **TIBER**.

TIBULA, an ancient town of Sardinia, now called **Lango**.

TIBULLUS, Aulus Albius, a Roman knight, and a celebrated Latin poet, was born at Rome, 43 B. C. He was the friend of Horace, Ovid, Macer, and other great men in the reign of Augustus. He accompanied Messala Corvinus in his expedition against Corcyra: but falling sick, he quitted the profession of arms, and returned to Rome, where he died before the year 17; when

Ovid expressed his grief in a fine elegy. Tibullus wrote 4 books of elegies, which are still extant. The best edition of Tibullus is that *Notis Variorum* et *Vulpii*, 4to, Patavii, 1749. Grainger published an English version.

TIBUR, an ancient town of Latium, pleasantly situated on the Anio. Here Horace had his villa; and here Adrian built a villa called **Tibur-tina**, inscribed with the names of the provinces; near which Zenobia had a house. (*Treb. Pollio*.) Hither Augustus often retreated. (*Suet.*) Anciently it was the utmost place of banishment. (*Ovid*.) It had a temple of Hercules; with a library. (*A. Gell.*) Now called **TIVOLI**.

TIBUROON, a town and cape of Hispaniola, at the W. extremity of the island, opposite Port Antonio in Jamaica, with a spacious open road between them.

TIBURTINA, a villa of Latium, built by Adrian, near Tibur. See **TIBUR**.

TIBURTUS, a son of Amphiarus, who founded **TIBUR**. *Virg. En. 7.*

(1.) **TICHFIELD**, a small town of England, in Hampshire, seated on a rivulet that runs into the Southampton. In this town there was an ancient abbey, in which the marriage of K. Henry VI. with the princess Margaret of Anjou was celebrated. It was also the place of retreat to which K. Charles I. fled from Hampton-court, in 1647, to the seat of the Earl of Southampton.

(2, 3.) **TICHFIELD**, a river of Hampshire, which falls into a *bay* so named, at the above town.

(4.) **TICHFIELD**, a river of Jamaica, on the N. coast, 12 miles N.E. of Kingston. Lon. 76. 10. W. Lat. 18. 12. N.

TICHIS, a river of ancient Spain, running into the Mediterranean, now called **TACH**.

TICHIUS, the top of mount *Æta*. *Liv. 36. c. 16.*

TICIDA, a poet of the Augustan age, who wrote Epigrams; mentioned by *Ovid. Trist. ii. 433.*

TICINUM, an ancient name of **PAVIA**.

TICINUS, a river of Italy, in Insurbria, rising in mount Adula, traversing the lake Verbanus to the S. and falling into the Po near **TICINUM**. Between this river and the Po Hannibal gained his first victory over the Romans under P. Scipio. It is now called **TEFINO**, which see.

(1.) * **TICK**. *vi. f.* (This word seems contracted from *ticated*, a tally on which debts are scored.) 1. Score; trust.—

Fight upon *tick*. *Hudibras*.—Whoever needs any thing else must go on *tick*, or barter for it. *Locke*.—Paying ready money, that the maids might not run a *tick* at the market. *J. Bull.* 2. [*Tique, Fr. tcke, Dutch.*] The louse of dogs or sheep.—I had rather be a *tick* in a sheep, than such a valiant ignorant. *Shak.* 3. The case which holds the feathers of a bed.

(2.) **TICK**, in entomology. See **ACARUS**.

* **To TICK**. *vi. n.* [from the *Latin*]. 1. To run on score. 2. To trust; to score.—The money went to the lawyers; council wo'n't *tick*. *Arb.*

(1.) **TICKELL**, Thomas, an excellent English poet, son of the Rev. Richard Tickell, born in 1686, at Bridekirk in Cumberland. He was fellow of Queen's college, Oxford, and addressed

to Mr Addison verses on his Opera of *Rafomond*. Addison being made secretary of state, appointed him his under secretary; and Mr Craggs continued him in his post. In 1724, Mr Tickell was appointed secretary to the lords justices in Ireland, which he held for life. He wrote some poems, which met with a favourable reception. He died in 1740.

(2.) TICKELL, Richard, an English poet, and political writer. He published two very popular poems, entitled, 1. *The Project*; and, 2. *The Wreath of Fashion*. But his most admired piece was a pamphlet, entitled *Anticipation*, which came out just two days before the meeting of parliament, in 1779; and in which he imitated the style and sentiments of the leading members of both houses with wonderful precision. He also adapted *The Gentle Shepherd* to the English stage; and wrote *The Carnival of Venice, a comic Opera*. He died in 1793.

(3.) TICKELL, in geography, a town of Yorkshire, in the W. Riding, with a market on Friday, 5 miles S. of Doncaster, and 155 N. by W. of London. It has ruins of a castle and fortifications, which were destroyed during the civil wars. Lon. 1. 11. W. Lat. 53. 27. N.

* TICKEN. TICKING. *n. f.* The fame with tick. A sort of strong linen for bedding. *Bailey.*

TICKERA, *n. f.* a considerable article of merchandize in Fezzan in Africa. It is a preparation of pounded dates, and the meal of Indian corn, formed into a paste, and highly dried in an oven, and is a palatable and salubrious food.

TICKELY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circle of Cicacole; 30 miles NE. of Cicacole, and 70 SW. of Ganjam.

* TICKET. *n. f.* [*etiquet*, Fr.] A token of any right or debt, upon the delivery of which admission is granted, or a claim acknowledged.—There should be a paymaster appointed, which should pay every man according to his captain's ticket. *Spenser.*—In a lottery with one prize, a single ticket is only enriched. *Collier.*—

Disdains all loss of tickets or codille. *Pope.*

TICKILL, or TICKELL. See TICKELL, N^o 3.

* TICKING. See TICKEN.

* TICKLE. *adj.* [I know not whence to deduce the sense of this word.] Tottering; unfixed; unstable; easily overthrown.—The last O'Neal began to stand upon some tickle terms. *Spenser.*—Thy head stands fo tickle on thy shoulders, that a milk-maid, if she be in love, may sigh it off. *Shak.*

The state of Normandy

Stands on a tickle point. *Shak.*

(1.) * To TICKLE. *v. a.* [*stillo*; Lat.] 1. To affect with a prurient sensation by slight touches. How fine this tyrant

Can tickle where she wounds. *Shak.*

—The mind is moved only by tickling some parts of the body. *Bacon.*—There is a sweetness in good verse, which tickles even while it hurts. *Dryden.*—If a straw can tickle a man, it is an instrument of happiness. *Dryden.* 2. To please by slight gratifications.—Dametas, being withal tickled by Mufidorus's praises, had his brain turned. *Sidney.*

Expectation tickling skittish spirits. *Shak.*

Such a nature,

Tickled with good success. *Shak.*

My scorn rebels, and tickles me within. *Dryd.*
To tickle on thy straw, the stupid crowd.

Dryden.

—Such a good as he confesses, is far greater than the tickling of his palate with a glass of wine. *Locke.*

(2.) * To TICKLE. *v. n.* To feel titillation.—

He with secret joy therefore

Did tickle inwardly in every vein. *Spenser.*

* TICKLISH. *adj.* [from tickle.] 1. Sensible to titillation; easily tickled.—The palm of the hand is not ticklish, because it is accustomed to be touched. *Bacon.* 2. Tottering; uncertain; unfixed.—Ireland was a ticklish and unsettled state. *Bacon.*—Did it stand upon to ticklish and tottering a foundation as some men's fancy hath placed it. *Woodward.* 3. Difficult; nice.—

It had been civil in these ticklish times,

To fetch his fools and knaves from foreign climes. *Swift.*

* TICKLISHNESS. *n. f.* [from ticklish.] The state of being ticklish.

TICKSEED, SUNFLOWER. See COREOPSIS.

* TICKTACK. *n. f.* [*tridac*, Fr.] A game at tables. *Bailey.*

TICOLOOSA, a town of Tannassée, 38 miles S. of Knoxville.

TICONDERAGO, a town and fort of New York, built by the French in 1756, on the narrow passage or isthmus between lake George and lake Champlain. It had every advantage of nature and art; being surrounded on three sides by water and formidable rocks; and on the 4th by a swamp and a breast-work erected by the French, 9 feet high. It was famous during the French war of 1756-8. Gen. Abercromby besieged it in 1759, but was defeated; but in 1759, it was taken by Gen. Amherst. During the American war, it was taken by the British troops under Gen. Burgoyne in 1779; but evacuated after the surrender at SARATOGA. It lies 110 miles S. of Montreal, and 185 N. of New York. Lon. 73. 25. W. Lat. 43. 45. N.

TICOUL, a town of Corea, 450 miles NE. of Peking.

TICOUR, a town of France, in the dep. of Moselle, 4 miles S. of Fauquemont, and 6 NW. of Moarhange.

TICSAN, a town of Peru, in Quito.

TICUNAS, an American poison, of which the Abbe Fontana has given a particular account. It is supposed to be the same with that used in Africa and the East Indies. It dissolves very readily even in cold water, and likewise in the vegetable and mineral acids. With sulphuric acid it becomes as black as ink, but not with the rest of the acids. In this acid it also dissolves more slowly than in any of the rest. It does not effervesce with acids or alkalis; neither does it alter milk, nor tinge it, except with the natural colour of the poison: nor does it tinge the vegetable juices either red or green. When examined by the microscope, there is no appearance of regularity or crystallization; but it for the most part appears made up of very small, irregular, roundish bodies, like vegetable juices. It dries without any noise, and has an extremely bitter taste applied to the tongue. The ticunas poison

it

is harmless when put into the eyes; nor is it fatal when taken by the mouth, unless the quantity is considerable. Six grains of the solid poison, dissolved in water, killed a young pigeon which drank it in less than 20 minutes; 5 grains killed a Guinea pig in 25 minutes; 8 grains killed a rabbit in an hour and 8 minutes, &c. In those experiments it was observed that much less poison was required to kill an animal whose stomach was empty, than one that had a full stomach. Three rabbits and two pigeons were killed in less than 35 minutes by taking a dose of 3 grains, each on an empty stomach; but when the experiment was repeated on 5 animals with full stomachs, only one of them died. The most fatal operation of this poison is when mixed with the blood. The smallest quantity, injected into the jugular vein, killed the animal as if by a stroke of lightning. When applied to wounds in such a manner that the flowing of the blood could not wash it away, the animal fell into convulsions and a train of fatal nervous symptoms, which put an end to its life in a few minutes. Yet, notwithstanding these seeming affections of the nerves, the poison proved harmless when applied to the naked nerves themselves, or even to the medullary substance of them slit open. The strength of this poison seems to be diminished, and even destroyed, by mineral acids, but not at all by alkalis or ardent spirits; but if the fresh poison was applied to a wound, the application of mineral acids immediately after could not remove the pernicious effects. So far, indeed, was this from being the case, that the application of nitrous acid to the wounded muscle of a pigeon killed the animal in a short time without any poison at all.

* **TID.** *adj.* [*tidder*, Sax.] Tender; soft; nice.

* **TIDBIT.** *n. f.* [from *tid* and *bit*.] A dainty.

TIDDENHAM, a small town of Gloucestershire, near Chepstow, 7 miles S. of Colford, and 25 SW. of Gloucester. It gives name to a parish, 15 miles in circumference, bounded on 3 sides by the Wye and the Severn. At their junction ruins of an ancient chapel are still visible at low water on the rocks, which was dedicated to *St Thecla* the martyr, who suffered A. D. 47.

* **To TIDDER.** } *v. a.* [from *tid*.] To use ten-

* **To TIDDLE.** } *derly*; to fondle.

(*x.*) * **TIDE.** *n. f.* [*tyd*, Saxon; *tijd*, Dutch and *IOandick*.] 1. Time; season; while.—

Rest their weary limbs a *tide*. *Spenser.*

At the appointed *tide*,

Each one did make his bride.

Spenser.

It in golden letter should be set

Among the high *tides* in the kalendar. *Shak.*

—*New-year's tide* following. *Watson.* 2. Alternate ebb and flow of the sea.—That motion of the water called *tides*, is a rising and falling of the sea; the cause of this is the attraction of the moon, whereby the part of the water in the great ocean which is nearest the moon, being most strongly attracted, is raised higher than the rest; and the part opposite to it being least attracted, is also higher than the rest; and these two opposite rises of the surface of the water in the great ocean following the motion of the moon from East to West, and striking against the large coasts of the continents, from thence rebounds back again, and so

makes floods and ebbs in narrow seas and rivers. *Locke.* 3. Commotion; violent confluence.—In the *tides* of people once up, there want not stirring winds to make them more rough. *Bacon.* 4. Stream; course.—

Thou art the ruins of the noblest man,

That ever lived in the *tide* of times.

Shak.

The rapid currents drive

Towards the retreating sea their furious *tide*.

Milton.

All the gold which Tagus hides,

And pays the sea in tributary *tides*.

Dryden.

Continual *tide*

Flows from th' exhilarating fount.

Philips.

(1.) **TIDE**, or the rising and falling of the waters, is observed on all maritime coasts. There is a certain depth of the waters of the ocean which would obtain if all were at rest: but observation shows that they are continually varying from this level, and that some of these variations are regular and periodical.

(3.) **TIDE**, FACTS OBSERVED RESPECTING THE RISE AND FALL OF THE. 1st, On the shores of the ocean, and in bays, creeks, and harbours, which communicate freely with the ocean, the waters rise up above this mean height twice a-day, and as often sink below it, forming what is called a FLOOD and an EBB, a HIGH and a LOW WATER. The whole interval between high and low water is called a **TIDE**; the water is said to FLOW and to EBB, and the rising is called the FLOOD **TIDE**, and the falling is called the EBB **TIDE**. 2^d, This rise and fall of the waters is variable in quantity. At Plymouth, for instance, it is sometimes 21 feet between the greatest and least depth of the water in one day, and sometimes only 12 feet. These different heights of tide succeed each other in a regular series, diminishing from the greatest to the least, and then increasing from the least to the greatest. The greatest is called a **SPRING TIDE**, and the least is called a **NEAP TIDE**. 3^d, This series is completed in about 15 days. More careful observation shows that two series are completed in the exact time of a lunation. For the spring tide in any place is observed to happen precisely at a certain interval of time (generally between 2 and 3 days) after new or full moon, and the neap tide at a certain interval after half moon; or, to be more accurate, the spring tide always happens when the moon has got a certain number of degrees E. of the line of conjunction and opposition, and the neap tide happens when she is a certain number of degrees from her first or last quadrature. Thus the whole series of tides appear to be regulated by the moon. 4th, **HIGH WATER** happens at *new* and *full moon* when the moon has a certain determined position with respect to the meridian of the place of observation, preceding or following the moon's southing a certain interval of time; which is constant with respect to that place, but very different in different places. 5th, The time of high water in any place appears to be regulated by the moon; for the interval between the time of high water and the moon's southing never changes above three quarters of an hour, whereas the interval between the time of high water and noon changes six hours in the course of a fortnight. 6th, The interval between

tween

tween two succeeding high waters is variable. It is least of all about new and full moon, and greatest when the moon is in her quadratures. As two high waters happen every day, we may call the double of their interval a TIDE DAY, as we call the diurnal revolution of the moon a *lunar day*. The tide day is shortest about new and full moon being then about 24h. 37'; about the time of the moon's quadratures it is 25h. 27'. These values are taken from a mean of many observations made at Barbadoes by Dr Maskelyne. 7th. The tides in similar circumstances are greatest when the moon is at her smallest distance from the earth, or in her perigee, and, gradually diminishing, are smallest when she is in her apogee. 8th. The same remark is made with respect to the sun's distance; and the greatest tides are observed during the winter months of Europe. 9th. The tides in any part of the ocean increase as the moon, by changing her declination, approaches the zenith of that place. 10th. The tides which happen while the moon is above the horizon are greater than the tides of the same day when the moon is below the horizon." There is also a kind of rest or cessation of about half an hour between the FLUX and REFLEX; during which time the water is at its greatest height, called *high water*. The flux is made by the motion of the water of the sea from the equator towards the poles; which, in its progress, striking against the coasts in its way, and meeting with opposition from them, swells, and where it can find passage, as in flats, rivers, &c. rises up and runs into the land. This motion follows, in some measure, the course of the moon; as it loses or comes later every day by about three quarters of an hour, or more precisely, by 48 minutes; and by so much is the motion of the moon slower than that of the sun. It is always highest and greatest in full moons, particularly those of the equinoxes. In some parts, as at Mount St Michael, it rises 80 or 90 feet, though in the open sea it never rises above a foot or two; and in some places, as about the Morea, there is no flux at all. It runs up some rivers above 120 miles. Up the river THAMES it it only goes 80, viz. near to Kingston in Surry. Above London bridge the water flows four hours and ebbs eight; and below the bridge, flows five hours and ebbs seven.

(4.) TIDES, HARDLY KNOWN TO THE EARLIEST AUTHORS OF GREECE. Homer is the earliest profane author who speaks of the tides; but (in the XIIth book of the *Odyssey*) only takes notice of the tides of CHARYBDIS, which rises and retires thrice in every day. Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus speak more distinctly of the tides in the Red Sea. PYTHEAS of Marseilles is the first who says any thing of their cause. According to Strabo he had been in Britain, where he must have observed the tides of the ocean. Plutarch says expressly that Pytheas ascribed them to the moon. It is surprising that Aristotle says so little about the tides. The army of Alexander, his pupil, were startled at their first appearance to them near the Persian Gulph; and we should have thought that Aristotle would be well informed of all that had been observed there. But there are only three passages concerning them in all

Aristotle's writings, and they are very trivial. In one place he speaks of great tides observed in the north of Europe: in another, he mentions their having been ascribed by some to the moon; and in a third, he says that the tide in a great sea exceeds that in a small one.

(5.) TIDES, LITTLE UNDERSTOOD BY THE ROMANS, OR EVEN BY MANY LEARNED MODERNS. The conquest and the commerce of the Romans gave them more acquaintance with tides; Cæsar speaks of them in the 4th book of his *Gallie War*. Strabo, after Posidonius, classes the phenomena into *daily, monthly, and annual*. He observes, that the sea rises as the moon gets near the meridian, whether above or below the horizon, and falls again as the rises or falls; also, that the tides increase at the time of new and full moon, and are greatest at the summer solstice. Pliny explains the phenomena at some length; and says, that both the sun and moon are their cause, dragging the waters along with them (B. II. c. 97). Seneca (*Nat. Quest.* III. 28.) speaks of the tides with correctness; and Macrobius (*Sonn. Scip.* I. 6.) gives a very accurate description of their motions. Such phenomena however could not but exercise human curiosity as to their cause. Plutarch (*Plaut. Phil.* III. 17), Galileo (*Syst. Mund.* Dial. 4.), Riccioli in his *Almagest*, ii. p. 374, and Gassendi, ii. p. 27, have collected most of the notions of their predecessors on the subject; but they are of so little importance, that they do not deserve our notice. Kepler speaks more like a philosopher (*De Stella Martis*, and *Epit. Astron.* p. 555.) He says that all bodies attract each other, and that the waters of the ocean would all go to the moon were they not retained by the attraction of the earth; and then goes on to explain their elevation under the moon and on the opposite side, because the earth is less attracted by the moon than the nearer waters, but more than the waters which are more remote.

(6.) TIDES, NEWTON'S DISCOVERY OF THE CAUSE OF THE. The honour of a complete explanation of the tides was reserved to Sir Isaac Newton. He laid hold of this class of phenomena as the most incontestible proof of universal gravitation, and has given a most beautiful and synoptical view of the whole subject; contenting himself, however, with merely exhibiting the chief consequences of the general principle, and applying it to the phenomena with singular address. But the wide steps taken by this great philosopher in his investigation, leave ordinary readers frequently at fault: many of his assumptions require the greatest mathematical knowledge to satisfy us of their truth. The academy of Paris therefore proposed to illustrate this among other parts of the principles of natural philosophy, and published the theory of the tides as a prize problem. This produced three excellent dissertations, by M^r Laurin, Dan. Bernoulli, and Euler. Aided by these, and chiefly by the second, we shall here give a physical theory, and accommodate it to the purposes of navigation, by giving the rules of calculation. We have demonstrated in our dissertations on the physical principles of the celestial motions, that it is an unexcepted fact, that every particle of matter in the solar system is actually

actually deflected toward every other particle; and that the deflection of a particle of matter toward any distant sphere is proportional to the quantity of matter in that sphere directly, and to the square of the distance of the particle from the centre of that sphere inversely; and having found that the heaviness of a piece of terrestrial matter is nothing but the supposed opponent to the force which we exert in carrying this piece of matter, we conceive it as possessing a property, or distinguishing quality, manifested by its being *gravis* or heavy. This is heaviness, or GRAVITY; and the manifestation of this quality, or the event in which it is seen, whether it be directly falling, or deflected in a parabolic curve, or stretching a coiled spring, or breaking a rope, or simply pressing on its support, is *gravitatio*, GRAVITATION; and the body is said to gravitate. When all obstacles are removed from the body, as when we cut the string by which a stone is hung, it moves directly downwards, *tendit ad terram*. By some metaphysical process, this *nixus ad motum* has been called a TENDENCY in our language, and is used to signify the energy of any active quality in those cases where its simplest and most immediate manifestation is prevented by some obstacle. The stretching the string in a direction perpendicular to the horizon, is a full manifestation of this tendency. This tendency, this energy of its heaviness, is therefore named by the word which distinguishes the quality called *gravitation*. But Sir Isaac Newton discovered that this deflection of a heavy body differs in no respect from that general deflection observed in all the bodies of the solar system. - For 16 feet; which is the deflection of a stone in one second, has the very same proportion to $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch, which is the simultaneous deflection of the moon, that the square of the moon's distance from the centre of the earth has to the square of the stone's distance from it, namely, that of 3600 to 1. Thus we are enabled to compare all the effects of the mutual tendencies of the heavenly bodies with the tendency of *gravity*, whose effects and measures are familiar to us. If the earth were a sphere covered to a great depth with water, the water would form a concentric spherical shell; for the gravitation of every particle of its surface would then be directed to the centre, and would be equal. The curvature of its surface therefore would be every where the same, that is, it would be the uniform curvature of a sphere. See *ASTRONOMY, Index, at TIDES; ATTRACTION, GRAVITATION, § 2, 3; GRAVITY, § 2; NEWTONIAN PHILOSOPHY, Sect. III—VI; PROCESSION OF THE EQUINOXES, &c.*

(7.) *TIDES, REMARKS ON THE IRREGULARITY OF THE.* The waters of the ocean have their equilibrium disturbed by the unequal gravitation of their different particles to the sun or to the moon; and this equilibrium cannot be restored till the waters come in from all parts, and rise up around the line joining the centres of the earth and of the luminary. The spherical ocean must acquire the form of a prolate spheroid generated by the revolution of an ellipse round its transverse axis. The waters will be highest in that place which has the

VOL. XXII. PART II.

luminary in its zenith, and in the antipodes to that place; and they will be most depressed in all those places which have the luminary in their horizon. Mr Ferguson, in his *Astronomy*, assigns another cause of this arrangement, *viz.* the difference of the centrifugal forces of the different particles of water, while the earth is turning round the common centre of gravity of the earth and moon. This, however, is a *mistake*. It would be just if the earth and moon were attached to the ends of a rod, and the earth kept always the same face toward the moon. It is evident that its absolute quantity may be discovered by our knowledge of the proportion of the disturbing force to the force of gravity. Now this proportion is known; for the proportion of the gravitation of the earth's centre to the sun or moon, to the force of gravity at the earth's surface, is known; and the proportion of the gravitation of the earth's centre to the luminary, to the difference of the gravitations of the centre and of the surface, is also known, being very nearly in the proportion of the distance of the luminary to twice the radius of the earth. We must therefore take the subject more generally, and show the proportion and directions of gravity in every point of the spheroid. We need not, however, again demonstrate that the gravitation of a particle placed any where without a perfect spherical shell, or a sphere consisting of concentric spherical shells, either of uniform density, or of densities varying according to some function of the radius, is the same as if the whole matter of the shell or sphere were collected in the centre. This has been demonstrated in the article *ASTRONOMY*. We need only remind the reader of some consequences of this theorem which are of continual use in the present investigation. 1st, The gravitation to a sphere is proportional to its quantity of matter directly, and to the square of the distance of its centre from the gravitating particle inversely. 2^d, If the spheres be homogeneous and of the same density, the gravitations of particles placed on their surfaces, or at distances which are proportional to their diameters, are as the radii; for the quantities of matter are as the cubes of the radii, and the attractions are inversely as the squares of the radii; and therefore the whole

gravitations are as $\frac{r^3}{r^2}$, or as r . 3^d, A particle placed within a sphere has no tendency to the matter of the shell which lies without it, because its tendency to any part is balanced by an opposite tendency to the opposite part. Therefore, 4th, A particle placed any where *within* a homogeneous sphere gravitates to its centre with a force proportional to its distance from it. It is a much more difficult problem to determine the gravitation of particles to a spheroid. To do this in general terms, and for every situation of the particle, would require a train of propositions which our limits will by no means admit. The ratio of the axes may be obtained and ascertained by knowing the ratio of the gravitation at the pole to that of the equator. See *SPHERE, SPHEROID, and PROJECTION OF THE SPHERE*. The gravitation of the moon to the earth is to the disturbing force of the sun as 178,725 to 1 very nearly. The lunar

A a a

gravitation

gravitation is increased as the approaches the earth in the reciprocal duplicate ratio of the distances. The disturbing force of the sun diminishes in the simple ratio of the distances; therefore the weight of a body on the surface of the earth is to the disturbing force of the sun on the same body, in a ratio compounded of the ratio of 178,725 to 1; the ratio of 3600 to 1, and the ratio of 60 to 1; that is, in the ratio of 38,604,600 to 1. If the mean radius of the earth be 209,34500 feet, the difference of the axis, or the elevation of the pole of the watery spheroid produced by the gravitation to the sun, will be $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{38604600}{178725} \times \frac{60}{3600}$ feet, or very nearly 244 inches. This is the tide produced by the sun on a homogeneous fluid sphere. It needs no proof that if the earth consists of a solid nucleus of the same density with the water, the form of the solar tide will be the same. But if the density of the nucleus be different, the form of the tide will be different, and will depend both on the density and on the figure of the nucleus. If the nucleus be of the same form as the surrounding fluid, the whole will still maintain its form with the same proportion of the axis. If the nucleus be spherical, its action on the surrounding fluid will be the same as if all the matter of the nucleus by which it exceeds an equal bulk of the fluid were collected at the centre. In this case, the ocean cannot maintain the same form; for the action of this central body being proportional to the square of the distance inversely, will augment the gravity of the equatorial fluid more than it augments that of the circumpolar fluid; and the ocean, which was in equilibrio (by supposition), must now become more protuberant at the poles. It may, however, be again balanced in an elliptical form, when it has acquired a just proportion of the axes. The process for determining this is tedious, but precisely similar to the preceding. In the dissertations by Clairault and Boscovich on the Figure of the Earth, this curious problem is treated in the most complete manner. The earth is not a SPHERE, but swelled out at the equator by the diurnal rotation. But the change of form is so very small in proportion to the whole bulk, that it cannot sensibly affect the change of form afterwards induced by the sun on the waters of the ocean. For the disturbing force of the sun would produce a certain protuberance on a fluid sphere; and this protuberance depends on the ratio of the disturbing force to the force of gravity at the surface of this sphere. If the gravity be changed in any proportion, the protuberance will change in the same proportion. Therefore if the body be a spheroid, the protuberance produced at any point by the sun will increase or diminish in the same proportion that the gravity at this point has been changed by the change of form. Now the change of gravity, even at the pole of the terrestrial spheroid, is extremely small in comparison with the whole gravity. Therefore the change produced on the spheroid will not sensibly differ from that

produced on the sphere; and the elevations of the waters above the surface, which they would have assumed independent of the sun's action, will be the same on the spheroid as on the sphere. For the same reason, the moon will change the surface already changed by the sun, in the same manner as the world have changed the surface of the undisturbed ocean. Therefore the change produced by both these luminaries in any place, will be the same when acting together as when acting separately; and it will be equal to the sum, or the difference of their separate changes, according as these would have been in the same or in opposite directions. The difference between a *lunar day* and a *sidereal day* is called the *PRIMUM* or the *RETARDATION* of the tides. This is evidently equal to the time of the earth's describing in its rotation an angle equal to the motion of the high water in a day from the sun. The smallest of these retardations is to the greatest as the difference of the disturbing forces to their sum. Of all the phenomena of the tides, this seems liable to the fewest and most inconsiderable derangements from local and accidental circumstances. It therefore affords the best means for determining the proportion of the disturbing forces. By a comparison of a great number of observations made by Dr MASKELYNE at St Helena and at Barbadoes (places situated in the open sea), it appears that the shortest tide-day is 24h. 37', and the longest is 25h. 27'. This gives $M-S: M+S=37: 89$, and $S: M=1: 4.96$; which differs only 1 part in 124 from the proportion of 2 to 5, which Daniel Bernoulli collected from a variety of different observations. We shall therefore adopt the proportion of 2 to 5 as abundantly exact. It also agrees exactly with the phenomena of the nutation of the earth's axis and the precession of the equinoxes. It follows, that while the moon moves uniformly from $56^{\circ} 47'$ W. elongation to $56^{\circ} 47'$ E. or from $123^{\circ} 13'$ E. to $123^{\circ} 13'$ W. the tide-day is shorter than the lunar day; and while the moves from $56^{\circ} 47'$ E. to $123^{\circ} 13'$, or from $123^{\circ} 13'$ W. to $56^{\circ} 47'$, the tide day is longer than the lunar-day. The time of high water, when the sun and moon are in the equator, is never more than 47 minutes different from that of the moon's southing (+ or - a certain fixed quantity, to be determined once for all by observation.) There is now no difficulty in determining the hour of high water corresponding to any position of the sun and moon in the equator. The following table of Bernoulli's exhibits these times for every 10th degree of the moon's elongation from the sun. The first or leading column is the moon's elongation from the sun or from the point of opposition, at the time of high water. The 2d is the minutes of time between the moon's southing and the place of high water. The marks + and - distinguish whether the high water is before or after the moon's southing. The 3d is the hour and minute of high water. The two remaining columns express the heights of the tides and their daily variations.

m. s.	m. b.	s. b.	M. S.	M. v.
0	0	0	1000	13
10	11½—	0' 28½	987	38
20	22 —	0' 58	949	62
30	31½—	1' 28½	887	81
40	40 —	2' —	806	91
50	45 —	2' 35	715	105
60	46½—	3' 13½	610	92
70	40½—	3' 59½	518	65
80	25 —	4' 55	453	24
90	0	6' —	429	—
100	+	7' 5	453	24
110	40½+	8' 0½	518	65
120	46½+	8' 40½	610	92
130	45 +	9' 25	715	105
140	40 +	10' —	806	91
150	31½+	10' 31½	887	81
160	22 +	11' 2	949	62
170	11½+	11' 31½	987	38
180	0	12' —	1000	13

The tide is the height of high water above low water. This is the interesting circumstance in practice. Many circumstances render it almost impossible to say what is the elevation of high water above the natural surface of the ocean. In many places the surface at low water is above the natural surface of the ocean. This is the case in rivers at a great distance from their mouths. This may appear absurd, and is certainly very paradoxical; but a little attention to the motion of running waters will explain this completely. Whatever checks the motion of water in a canal must raise its surface. Water in a canal runs only in consequence of the declivity of this surface: Therefore a flood tide coming to the mouth of a river checks the current of its waters, and they accumulate at the mouth. This checks the current farther up, and therefore the waters accumulate there also; and this checking of the stream, and consequent rising of the waters, is gradually communicated up the river to a great distance. The water rises everywhere, though its surface still has a slope. In the mean time, the flood tide at the mouth passes by, and an ebb succeeds. This must accelerate even the ordinary course of the river. It will more remarkably accelerate the river now raised above its ordinary level, because the declivity at the mouth will be so much greater. Therefore the waters near the mouth, by accelerating, will sink in their channel, and increase the declivity of the canal beyond them. This will accelerate the waters beyond them; and thus a stream more rapid than ordinary will be produced along the whole river, and the waters will sink below their ordinary level. Thus there will be an ebb below the ordinary surface as well as a flood above it, however sloping that surface may be. Hence we cannot tell what is the natural surface of the ocean by any observations made in a river, even though near its mouth. Yet even in rivers we have regular tides, subjected to all the varieties deduced from this theory. But the geometrical construction of this problem not only explains all the interesting circumstances of the

tides, but also points them out, almost without employing the judgment, and exhibits to the eye the gradual progress of each phenomenon. But on these we cannot enlarge. On the whole, the solar force does not vary much, and may be retained as constant without any great error. But the change of the moon's force has great effects on the tides both as to their time and their quantity. I. As to their time. 1. The tide day following a spring tide is 24h. 27' when the moon is in perigee, but 24h. 33' when she is in apogee. (See APOGEE and PERIGEE.) 2. The tide day following neap tide is 25h. 15', and 25h. 40' in these two situations of the moon. 3. The greatest interval of time between high water and the moon's southing is 35' and 61'; the angle γ being $9^{\circ} 45'$ in the first case, and $15^{\circ} 15'$ in the second. II. As to their heights. 1. If the moon is in perigee when new or full, the spring tide will be 8 feet instead of 7, which corresponds to her mean distance. The very next spring tide happens when she is near her apogee, and will be 6 feet instead of 7. The neap tides happen when she is at her mean distance, and will therefore be 3 feet. But if the moon be at her mean distance when new or full, the two succeeding spring tides will be regular or 7 feet, and one of the neap tides will be 4 feet and the other only 2 feet.

(8.) TIDES, TABLES OF THE, WITH FARTHER REMARKS. Mr BERNOLLI gives the following table of the time of high water for the chief situations of the moon, viz. her perigee, mean distance, and apogee. It may be had by interpolation for all intermediate positions with as great accuracy as can be hoped for in phenomena which are subject to such a complication of disturbances. The first column contains the moon's elongation from the sun. The columns P, M, A, contain the minutes of time which elapse between the moon's southing and high water, according as she is in perigee, at her mean distance, or in apogee. The sign—indicates the priority, and + the posteriority, of high water to the moon's southing.

D and ☉	P.	M.	A.
0	0	0	0
10	9½	11½	14
20	18	22	27½
30	26	31½	39½
40	33	40	50
50	37½	45	56
60	38½	46½	58
70	33½	40½	50½
80	22	25	31
90	0	0	0
	+	+	+
100	21	25	31
110	33½	40½	56½
120	38½	46½	58
130	37½	45	56
140	33	40	50
150	26	31½	39½
160	18	22	27½
170	9½	11½	14
180	0	0	0

The reader will probably be making some comparison

parison in his own mind of the deductions from this theory with the actual state of things. He will find some considerable resemblances; but he will also find such great differences as will make him very doubtful of its justness. In very few places does the high water happen within $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an hour of the moon's southing, as the theory leads him to expect; and in no place whatever does the spring-tide fall on the day of new and full moon, nor the neap tide on the day of her quadrature. These always happens 2 or 3 days later. By comparing the difference of high water and the moon's southing in different places, he will hardly find any connecting principle. This shows evidently that the cause of this irregularity is local, and that the justness of the theory is not affected by it. By considering the phenomena in a navigable river, he will learn the real cause of the deviation. A flood tide arrives at the mouth of a river. The true theoretical tide differs in no respect from a wave. Suppose a spring tide actually formed on a fluid sphere, and the sun and moon then annihilated. The elevation must sink, pressing the under waters aside, and causing them to rise where they were depressed. The motion will not stop when the surface comes to a level; for the waters arrived at that position with a motion continually accelerated. They will therefore pass this position as a pendulum passes the perpendicular, and will rise as far on the other side, forming a high water where it was low water, and a low water where it was high water; and this would go on for ever, oscillating in a time which mathematicians can determine, if it were not for the viscosity, or something like friction, of the waters. If the sphere is not fluid to the centre, the motion of this wave will be different. The elevated waters cannot sink without diffusing themselves likewise, and occasioning a great horizontal motion, in order to fill up the hollow at the place of low water. This motion will be greatest about half way between the places of high and low water. The shallower we suppose the ocean the greater must this horizontal motion be. The resistance of the bottom (though perfectly smooth and even) will greatly retard all the way to the surface. Still, however, it will move till all be level, and will even move a little farther, and produce a small flood and ebb where the ebb and flood had been. Then a contrary motion will obtain; and after a few oscillations, which can be calculated, it will be insensible. If the bottom of the ocean (which we still suppose to cover the whole earth) be uneven, with long extended valleys running in various directions, and with elevations reaching near the surface, it is evident that this must occasion great irregularities in the motion of the undermost waters, both in respect of velocity and direction, and even occasion small inequalities on the surface, as we see in a river with a rugged bottom and rapid current. The deviations of the under currents will drag with them the contiguous incumbent waters, and thus occasion great superficial irregularities. Now a flood arriving at the mouth of a river, must act precisely as this great wave does. It must be propagated up the river (or along it, even though perfectly level) in a certain time, and we shall have high water at all the different places

in succession. This is distinctly seen in all rivers. It is high water at the mouth of the Thames at three o'clock, and later as we go up the river, till at London bridge we have not high water till three o'clock in the morning, at which time it is again high water at the Nore. But, in the mean time, there has been low water at the Nore, and high water about half way to London; and while the high water is proceeding to London, it is ebbing at this intermediate place, and is low water there when it is high water at London and at the Nore. Did the tide extend as far beyond London as London is from the Nore, we should have three high waters with two low waters interposed. The most remarkable instance of this kind is the Maragnon or Amazon river in S. America. It appears by the observations of Condamine and others, that between Para, at the mouth of the river, and the conflux of the Madera and Maragnon, there are 7 coexistent high waters, with six low waters between them. Nothing can more evidently show that the tides in these places are nothing but the propagation of a wave. The velocity of its superficial motion, and the distance to which it will insensibly go, must depend on many circumstances. A deep channel and gentle acclivity will allow it to proceed much farther up the river, and the distance between the successive summits will be greater than when the channel is shallow and steep. If we apply the ingenious theory of Chev. Buat, we may tell both the velocity of the motion and the interval of the successive high waters. It may be imitated in artificial canal, and experiments of this kind would be very instructive. We have said enough at present for our purpose of explaining the irregularity of the times of high water in different places, with respect to the moon's southing. But we now see clearly, that something of the same kind must happen in all great arms of the sea which are of an oblong shape, and communicate by one end with the open ocean. The general tide in this ocean must proceed along this channel, and the high water will happen on its shores in succession. This also is distinctly seen. The tide in the Atlantic ocean produces high water at new and full moon at a later and later hour along the S. coast of Great Britain, in proportion as we proceed from Scilly islands to Dover. In the same manner it is later and later as we come along the east coast from Orkney to Dover. Yet even in this progress there are considerable irregularities, owing to the sinuosities of the shores, deep indented bays, prominent capes, and extensive ridges and valleys in the channel. A similar progress is observed along the coasts of Spain and France, the tide advancing gradually from the south, turning round Cape Finisierre, running along the N. coast of Spain, and along the W. and N. coasts of France. The attentive consideration of these facts will not only satisfy us with respect to this difficulty, but will enable us to trace a principle of connection amidst all the irregularities that we observe. And if we note the difference between the time of high water of spring tide, as given by theory, for any place, and the *observed time* of high water, we shall find this interval to be very nearly constant through the whole series of tides during a lunation. Suppose

Suppose this interval to be 40 hours. We shall find every other phenomenon succeed after the same interval. And if we suppose the moon to be in the place where she was 40 hours before, the observation will agree pretty well with the theory, as to the succession of tides, the length of tide day, the retardations of the tides, and their gradual diminution from spring to neap tide. We say *pretty well*; for their still remain several small irregularities, different in different places, and not following any observable law. These are therefore local, and owing to local causes, as we shall point out. There is also a general deviation of the theory from the real series of tides. The neap tides, and those adjoining, happen a little earlier than the corrected theory points out. Thus at Brest (where more numerous and accurate observations have been made than at any other place in Europe), when the moon changes precisely at noon, it is high water at 3h. 28'. When the moon enters her 2d quarter at noon, it is high water at 8h. 40', instead of 9h. 48', which theory assigns. Something similar, and within a very few minutes equal to this, is observed in *every* place on the seacoast. This is therefore something general, and indicates a real defect in the theory. But this arises from the same cause with the other general deviation, viz. that the greatest and least tides do not happen on the days of full and half moon, but a certain time after. We shall attempt to explain this. We set out with the supposition, that the water acquired in an instant the elevation competent to its equilibrium. But this is not *true*. No motion is instantaneous, however great the force; and every motion and change of motion produced by a sensible or finite force increases from nothing to a sensible quantity by infinitely small degrees. Time elapses before the body can acquire any sensible velocity; and in order to acquire the same sensible velocity by the action of different forces acting similarly, a time must elapse inversely proportional to the force. An infinitely small force requires a finite time for communicating even an infinitely small velocity; and a finite force, in an infinitely small time, communicates only an infinitely small velocity; and if there be any kind of motion which changes by insensible degrees, it requires a finite force to prevent this change. Thus a bucket of water, hanging by a cord lapped round a light and easily moveable cylinder, will run down with a motion uniformly accelerated; but this motion will be prevented by hanging an equal bucket on the other side, so as to act with a finite force. This force prevents only infinitely small accelerations. It is therefore an *INFINITESIMAL* of the first order, and may be restored in an instant, or the continuation of the depression prevented by a certain finite force. The weight of the rope makes it hang in an oblong curve just as the force of the moon raises the waters of the ocean. Turn the rollers slowly, and the rope unwinding at one side, and winding up on the other side of the roller, will continue to form the same curve; but turn the roller the other way very briskly, and the rope will now hang in a curve considerably from the perpendicular; so that the force of gravity may in an instant undo the infinitely small elevation

produced by the turning. This phenomenon has puzzled many persons not unaccustomed to such discussions. But another view of this matter leads to the same conclusion. There can be no doubt that the interval between high and low water is not sufficient for producing all the accumulation necessary for equilibrium in an ocean so very shallow. The horizontal motion necessary for gathering together so much water along a shallow sea would be prodigious. Therefore it never attains its full height; and when the waters, already raised to a certain degree, have passed the situation immediately under the moon, they are still under the action of accumulating forces, although these forces are now diminished. They will continue rising, till they have so far passed the moon that their situation subjects them to depressing forces. If they have acquired this situation with an accelerated motion, they will rise still farther by their inherent motion, till the depressing forces have destroyed all their acceleration, and then they will begin to sink again. It is in this way that the nutation of the earth's axis produces the greatest inclination, not when the inclining forces are greatest, but three months after. (See *NUTATION*.) It is thus that the warmest time of the day is a considerable while after noon, and that the warmest season is considerably after midsummer. The warmth increases till the momentary waste of heat exceeds the momentary supply. Hence we conclude, that it may be demonstrated, that, in a sphere fluid to the centre, the time of high water cannot be less, and may be more, than three lunar hours after the moon's southing. As the depth of the ocean diminishes, this interval also diminishes. It is perhaps impossible to assign the distance at which the summit of the ocean may be kept while the earth turns round its axis. We can only see, that it must be less when the accumulating force is greater, and therefore less in spring tides than in neap tides; but the difference may be insensible. All this depends on circumstances which we are little acquainted with; many of these circumstances are local; and the situation of the summit of the ocean, with respect to the moon, may be different in different places. Nor have we been able to determine theoretically what will be the height of the summit. It will certainly be less than the height necessary for perfect equilibrium. The result of all this reasoning is, that we must always suppose the summit of the tide is at a certain distance *E.* of the place assigned by the theory. Mr Bernoulli concludes, from a very copious comparison of observations at different places, that the place of high water is about 20° to the eastward of the place assigned by the theory. Therefore the table formerly given will correspond with observation, if the leading column of the moon's elongation from the sun be altered accordingly. We insert it again in this place, with this alteration, and add three columns for the times of high water. Thus changed it will be of great use. We have now an explanation of the acceleration of the neap tides, which should happen 6 hours later than the spring tides. They are in fact tides corresponding to positions of the moon, which are 20° more, and not the real spring and neap tides.

These

There do not happen till two days after; and if the really greatest and least tides be observed, the least will be found 6 hours later than the first.

Elong. of Moon.	High Water before or after Moon's South'g.			Time of High Water.		
	Perig.	M. D.	Apog.	Perig.	M. Dist.	Apog.
0	18 a.	12 a.	27½	0'18	0'22	0'27½
10	9½ a.	11½	14	0'49½	0'51½	0'54
20	0 a.	0	0	1'20	1'20	1'20
30	9½ b.	11½ b.	14 b.	1'50½	1'48	1'46
40	18 b.	22	37½	2'22	2'18	2'12
50	26	31½	39½	2'54	2'48	2'40
60	33	40	50	3'27	3'20	3'10
70	37½	45	56	4'02½	3'55	3'44
80	38½	46½	58	4'41½	4'33	4'22
90	33½	40½	50½	5'26½	5'19	5'09
100	24	35	31	6'19	6'15	6'09
110	0	0	0	7'20	7'20	7'20
120	22 a.	25 a.	31 a	8'21	8'25	8'31
130	33½ a.	40½	50½	9'13½	9'20	9'30
140	38½	46½	58	9'58½	10'06	10'18
150	37½	45	56	10'37½	10'45	10'56
160	33	40	50	11'13	11'20	11'30
170	26	31½	29½	11'46	11'51	11'59
180	18	22	27½	0'18	0'22	0'27

This table is general; and exhibits the times of high water, and their difference from those of the moon's south'g. in the open sea, free from all local obstructions. If therefore the time of high water in any place on the earth's equator (for we have hitherto considered no other) be different from this table (supposed correct), we must attribute the difference to the distinguishing circumstances of the situation. Thus every place on the equator should have high water on the day that the moon, situated at her mean distance, changes precisely at noon, at 2½ p. m. because the moon passes the meridian along with the sun by supposition. Therefore, to make use of this table, we must take the difference between the first number of the column, entitled time of high water, from the time of high water at full and change peculiar to any place, and add this to all the other numbers of that column. This adapts the table to the given place. Thus, to know the time of high water at *Leith* when the moon is 50° E. of the sun, at her mean distance from the earth, take 2½ from 4h. 30', there remains 4'08. Add this to 2h. 48', and we have 6h. 56' for the hour of high water. (The hour of high water at new and full moon for Edinburgh is marked 4h. 30' in Maskelyne's tables, but we do not pretend to give it as the exact determination. This would require a series of accurate observations.) It is by no means an easy matter to ascertain the time of high water with precision. It changes so very slowly, that we may easily mistake the exact minute. The best method is to have a pipe with a small hole near its bottom, and a float with a long graduated rod. The water gets in by the small hole, and raises the float, and the smallness of the hole prevents the sudden and irregular starts which waves would occasion. Instead of observing the moment of high water, observe the height of the rod a-

bout half an hour before, and wait after high water till the rod comes again to that height: take the middle between them. The water rises sensibly half an hour before the top of the tide, and quickly changes the height of the rod, so that we cannot make a great mistake in the time. Bernoulli has made a very careful comparison of the theory thus corrected, with the great collection of observations preserved in the *Depot de la Marine*, at Brest and Rochefort; (See *Cassini Mem. Acad. Paris*, 1734), and finds the coincidence very great, and far exceeded any rule which he had ever seen. Indeed we have no rules but what are purely empirical, or which suppose a uniform progression of the tides. The heights of the tides are much more affected by local circumstances than the regular series of their times. The regular spring tide should be to the neap tide in the same proportion in all places; but nothing is more different than this proportion. In some places the spring tide is not double the neap tide, and in other places it is more than quadruple. This prevented Bernoulli from attempting to fix the proportion by means of the height of the tides. Newton had, however, done it by the tides at Bristol, and made the lunar force almost five times greater than the solar force. But this was very ill-founded, for the reason now given. Yet Bernoulli saw, that in all places the tides gradually decreased by a similar law with the theoretical tides, and has given a very ingenious method of accommodating the theory to any tides which may be observed. The result cannot be far from the truth. The following table is calculated for the three chief distances of the moon from the earth.

Elong. of Moon.	Height of the Tide.		
	Moon in Perig.	Moon in M. D.	Moon in Apog.
0	0'99A + 0'15B	0'88A + 0'12B	0'79A + 0'08B
10	1'10A + 0'04B	0'97A + 0'03B	0'87A + 0'01B
20	1'14A + 0'00B	0'90A + 0'00B	0'90A + 0'00B
30	1'10A + 0'04B	0'97A + 0'03B	0'87A + 0'01B
40	0'99A + 0'15B	0'88A + 0'12B	0'79A + 0'08B
50	0'85A + 0'32B	0'75A + 0'25B	0'68A + 0'18B
60	0'67A + 0'53B	0'59A + 0'41B	0'53A + 0'29B
70	0'46A + 0'75B	0'41A + 0'59B	0'37A + 0'41B
80	0'28A + 0'96B	0'25A + 0'75B	0'23A + 0'53B
90	0'13A + 1'13B	0'12A + 0'88B	0'11A + 0'62B
100	0'03A + 1'24B	0'03A + 0'97B	0'03A + 0'87B
110	0'00A + 1'28B	0'00A + 1'00B	0'00A + 0'90B
120	0'03A + 1'24B	0'03A + 0'97B	0'03A + 0'87B
130	0'13A + 1'13B	0'12A + 0'88B	0'11A + 0'62B
140	0'28A + 0'96B	0'25A + 0'75B	0'23A + 0'53B
150	0'46A + 0'75B	0'41A + 0'59B	0'37A + 0'41B
160	0'67A + 0'53B	0'59A + 0'41B	0'53A + 0'29B
170	0'85A + 0'32B	0'75A + 0'25B	0'68A + 0'18B
180	0'99A + 0'15B	0'88A + 0'12B	0'79A + 0'08B

This table is corrected from the retardation arising from the inertia of the waters. Thus when the moon is 20° from the sun, the mean distance tide is 1'00A + 0'00B, which is the theoretical tide corresponding to conjunction or opposition.

(9.) TIDES, THEORY OF THE. We have now given

ven in sufficient detail the phenomena of the tides along the equator, when the sun and moon are both in the equator, shewing both their times and their magnitude. When we recollect that all the sections of an oblong spheroid by a plane passing through an equatorial diameter are ellipses, and that the compound tide is a combination of two such spheroids, we perceive that every section of it through the centre, and perpendicular to the plane in which the sun and moon are situated, is also an ellipse, whose shorter axis is the equatorial diameter of a spring tide. This is the greatest depression in all situations of the luminaries; and the points of greatest depression are the lower poles of every compound tide. When the luminaries are in the equator, these lower poles coincide with the poles of the earth. The equator, therefore, of every compound tide is also an ellipse; the whole circumference of which is lower than any other section of this tide, and gives the place of low water in every part of the earth. In like manner, the section through the 4 poles, upper and lower, gives the place of high water. These two sections are terrestrial meridians or hour circles, when the luminaries are in the equator. Hence it follows, that all that we have already said as to the times of high and low water may be applied to every place on the surface of the earth, when the sun and moon are in the equator. But the heights of tide will diminish as we recede from the equator. The heights must be reduced in the proportion of radius to the cosine of the latitude of the place. But in every other situation of the sun and moon all the circumstances vary exceedingly. It is true, that the determination of the elevation of the waters in any place whatever is equally easy. The difficulty is, to exhibit for that place a connected view of the whole tide, with the hours of flood and ebb, and the difference between high and low water. This is not indeed difficult; but the process by the ordinary rules of spherical trigonometry is tedious. When the sun and moon are not near conjunction or opposition, the shape of the ocean resembles a *turnip*, which is flat and not round in its broadest part. Before we can determine with precision the different phenomena in connection, we must ascertain the position or attitude of this turnip; making on the surface of the earth both its elliptical equators. One of these is the plane passing through the sun and moon, and the other is perpendicular to it, and marks the place of low water. And we must mark in like manner its first meridian, which passes through all the four poles, and marks on the surface of the earth the place of high water. The position of the greatest section of this compound spheroid is often much inclined to the earth's equator; nay, sometimes is at right angles to it when the moon has the same right ascension with the sun, but a different declination. In these cases the ebb tide on the equator is the greatest possible; for the lower poles of the compound spheroid are in the equator. Such situations occasion a very complicated calculus. We must therefore content ourselves with a good approximation. And first, with respect to the times of high water. It will be sufficient to conceive the sun and moon as always in one plane, viz. the ecliptic. The ex-

bits of the sun and moon are never more inclined than $5\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. This will make very little difference; for when the luminaries are so situated that the great circle through them is much inclined to the equator, they are then very near to each other, and the form of the spheroid is little different from what it would be if they were really in conjunction or opposition. It will therefore be sufficient to consider the moon in three different situations. 1. In the equator. The point of highest water is never farther from the moon than 15° , when she is in apogee and the sun in perigee. Therefore, to have the time of high water, multiply the numbers of the columns which express the difference of high water and the moon's southing by $28\frac{1}{2}$, and the products give the real difference. It is more difficult to find the time of low water; and we must either go through the whole trigonometrical process or content ourselves with a less perfect approximation. The trigonometrical process is not indeed difficult. But it will be abundantly exact to consider the tide as accompanying the moon only. Hence the two tides of one lunar day may be considerably different and it is proper to distinguish them by different names, as a *superior tide* which happens when the moon is above the horizon during high water, and the *inferior tide*. From this construction we may learn in general, 1. When the moon has no declination, the durations and also the heights of the superior and inferior tides are equal in all parts of the world. 2. When the moon has declination, the duration and also the height of a superior tide at any place is greater than that of the inferior; or is less than it, according as the moon's declination and the latitude of the place are of the same or opposite names. This is a very important circumstance. It frequently happens that the inferior tide is found the greatest when it should be the least; which is particularly the case at the Nore. This shows, without further reasoning that the tide at the Nore is only a branch of the regular tide. The regular tide comes in between Scotland and the continent; and after travelling along the coast, reaches the Thames, while the regular tide is just coming in again between Scotland and the continent. 3. If the moon's declination is equal to the colatitude of the place, or exceeds it, there will be only one tide in a lunar day. It will be a superior or an inferior tide, according as the declination of the moon and the latitude of the place are of the same or opposite kinds. Thus the difference of the durations of the superior and inferior tides of the same day increase both with the moon's declination and with the latitude of the place. The heights of the tides are affected no less remarkably by the different situations of the moon, and of the place of observation. Therefore at high water, which by the theory is in the place directly under the moon, the height of the tide is as the square of the cosine of the moon's zenith or nadir distance. Hence we derive a construction which solves all questions relating to the height of the tides with great facility, free from all the intricacy and ambiguities of the algebraic analysis employed by Bernoulli. 1. The greatest tides happen when the moon is in the zenith or nadir of the place of observation. 2. When the

MOON

moon is in the equator, the superior and inferior tides have equal height. 3. If the place of observation is in the equator, the inferior and superior tides are again equal, whatever is the moon's declination. 4. The superior tides are greater or less than the inferior tides according as the latitude and declination are of the same or of opposite names. 5. If the colatitude be equal to the declination, or less than it, there will be no inferior tide, or no superior tide, according as the latitude of the place, and declination of the moon, are of the same or opposite names; and the low water of its only tide is the summit of the inferior tide. 6. At the pole there is no daily tide; but there are two monthly tides, and it is low water when the moon is in the equator. *N. B.* The moon's declination never exceeds 30° . Therefore $\cos. 2 MQ$ is always a positive quantity, and never less than $\frac{1}{2}$, which is the cosine of 60° . While the latitude is less than 45° , $\cos. 2 \text{ lat.}$ is also a positive quantity. When it is precisely 45° the cosine of its double is 0; and when it is greater than 45° , the cosine of its double is negative. Hence we see, 1. That the medium tides are equally affected by the northern and southern declinations of the moon. 2. If the latitude of the place is 45° , the medium tide is always $\frac{1}{2} M$. This is the reason why the tides along the coasts of France and Spain are so little affected by the declination of the moon. 3. If the latitude is less than 45° , the mean tides increase as the moon's declination diminishes. All that we have now said may be said of the solar tide. Also the same things hold true of spring tides. But to ascertain the effects of declination and latitude on other tides, we must make a much more complicated construction, even though we suppose both luminaries in the ecliptic. For in this case the two depressed poles of the watery spheroid are not in the poles of the earth; and therefore the sections of the ocean, made by meridians, are by no means ellipses. The inaccuracies are not so great in intermediate tides, and respect chiefly the time of high water and the height of low water. The exact computation is very tedious and peculiar, so that it is hardly possible to give any account of a regular progress of phenomena; and all we can do is, to ascertain the precise heights of detached points. For which reasons, we must content ourselves with the construction already given. It is the exact geometrical expression of Bernoulli's analysis, and its consequences now related contain all that he has investigated. Thus have we obtained a general, though not very accurate view of the phenomena which must take place in different latitudes and in different declinations of the sun and moon, provided that the physical theory which determines the form and position of the watery spheroid be just. We have only to compute, by a very simple process of spherical trigonometry, the place of the pole of this spheroid. If we were to compare this theory with observation, without farther consideration, we should still find it unfavourable, partly in respect of the heights of the tides, and more remarkably in respect of the time of low water. We must again consider the effects of the inertia of the waters, and recollect, that a regular theoretical tide dif-

fers very little in its progress from the motion of a wave. Even along the free ocean, its motion much resembles that of any other wave. All waves are propagated by an oscillatory motion of the waters, precisely similar to that of a pendulum. It is well known, that if a pendulum receive a small impulse in the time of every descent, its vibrations may be increased to infinity. Did the successive actions of the sun or moon just keep time with the natural propagation of the tides, or the natural oscillations of the waters, the tides would also augment to infinity; but there is an infinite odds against this exact adjustment. It is much more probable that the action of to-day interrupts or checks the oscillation produced by yesterday's action, and that the motion which we perceive in this day's tide is what remains and is compounded with the action of to-day. This being the case, we should expect that the nature of any tide will depend much on the nature of the preceding tide. Therefore we should expect that the superior and inferior tides of the same day will be more nearly equal than the theory determines. The whole course of observation confirms this. In latitude 45° , the superior and inferior tides of one day may differ in the proportion of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, and the tides corresponding to the greatest and least declinations of the moon may differ nearly as much. But the difference of superior and inferior tides, as they occur in the list of Observations at Rochefort, is not the third part of this, and the changes made by the moon's declination is not above one half. Therefore we shall come much nearer the true measure of a spring tide, by taking the arithmetical mean, than by taking either the superior or inferior. We should expect less deviation from the theory in the gradual diminution of the tides from spring tide to neap tide, and in the gradual changes of the medium tide by the declination of the moon; because the successive changes are very small; and when they change in time, that is, diminish after having for some time augmented, the change is by insensible degrees. This is most accurately confirmed by observation. The vast collection made by Cassini of the observations at Brest being examined by Bernoulli, and the medium of the two tides in one day being taken for the tide of that day, he found a considerable agreement between them. He found no less agreement in the changes of the medium tides by the moon's declination. In like manner, the changes produced by the different distances of the moon from the earth, were found abundantly conformable to the theory, although not so exact as the other. This difference or inferiority is easily accounted for: When the moon changes in her mean distance, one of the neap tides is uncommonly small, and therefore the successive diminutions are very great, and one tide sensibly affects another. The same circumstance operates when the changes in apogee, by reason of a very large spring tide. And the changes corresponding both to the sun's distance from the earth and his declination agreed almost exactly. All these things considered together, we have abundant reason to conclude, that not only the theory itself is just in principle (which no intelligent naturalist can doubt), but also that

on the data which are assumed in the application are properly chosen; that is, that the proportion of 2 to 5 is very nearly the true proportion of the mean solar and lunar forces. If we now compute the medium tide for any place in succession, from spring tide to neap tide, and still more, if we compute the series of times of their occurrence, we shall find as great an agreement as can be desired. Not but that there are many irregularities; but these are evidently so anomalous, that we can ascribe them to nothing but circumstances which are purely local. We have been considering the tides of an ocean completely to cover the earth. How may these be determined which happen in a small and confined sea, such as the CASPIAN or the BLACK SEA? The determination in this case is very simple. As no supply of water is supposed to come into the basin, it is susceptible of a tide only by sinking at one end and rising at the other. It is evident that there will be high water, or the greatest possible rise when the basin comes to that position where the tangent is most of all inclined to the diameter, and therefore three lunar hours after the moon's southing; at the same time it will be low water at the other end. It is plain that the rise and fall must be exceedingly small, and that there will be no change in the middle. The tides of this kind in the Caspian Sea, in latitude 45° , whose extent in longitude does not exceed 8° , are not above 7 inches; a quantity so small, that a slight breeze of wind is sufficient to check it, and even to produce a rise of the waters in the opposite direction. We have not learnt that tides have been observed in this sea.

(10.) **TIDES, VARIETY OF, IN DIFFERENT SEAS.** The tide should be much greater, though still very small, in the MEDITERRANEAN SEA. Accordingly, tides are observed there, but still more remarkably in the ADRIATIC. We do not know that tides have been observed in the great lakes of North America. These tides, though small, should be very regular. It would be low water on one side of the shore x when it is high water on the other side of this partition. If the tides in the EUXINE and CASPIAN Seas, or in the AMERICAN LAKES which are near each other, could be observed, this phenomenon should appear, and would be one of the prettiest examples of universal gravitation that can be conceived. Something like it is to be seen at GIBRALTAR. It is high water on the E. side of the rock about 10 o'clock at full and change, and it is high water on the W. side, not a mile distant, at 12. This difference is perhaps the chief cause of the singular current which is observed in the mouth of the Straits. There are 3 currents observed at the same time, which change their directions every 12 hours. The small tide of the Mediterranean proceeds along the Barbary shore, which is very uniform all the way from Egypt, with tolerable regularity. But along the N. side, where it is greatly obstructed by Italy, the islands, and the E. coast of Spain, it sets very irregularly; and the perceptible high water on the Spanish coast differs 4 hours from that on the S. coast. Thus one tide ranges round EUROPA POINT, and another along the shore near Ceuta, and there is a third current

in the middle, different from both. Its general direction is from the Atlantic Ocean into the Mediterranean Sea, but it sometimes comes out when the ebb tide in the ATLANTIC is considerable. Suppose the moon over the middle of the Mediterranean. The surface of the sea will be level, and it will be half tides at both ends, and therefore within the Straits of Gibraltar. But without the Straits it is within half an hour of high water. Therefore there will be a current setting in from the Atlantic. About 3 and an half hours after, it is high water within, and half ebb without. The current now sets out from the Mediterranean: 3 hours later, it is low water without the Straits and half ebb within; therefore the current has been setting out all this time: 3 hours later, it is half flood without the Straits and low water within, and the current is again setting in, &c. Were the earth fluid to the centre, the only sensible motion of the waters would be up and down, like the waves on the open ocean, which are not brushed along by strong gales. But the shallowness of the channel makes a horizontal motion necessary, that water may be supplied to form the accumulation of the tide. When this is formed on a flat shelving coast, the water must flow in and out, on the flat and sands, while it rises and falls. These horizontal motions must be greatly modified by the channel or bed along which they move. When the channel contracts along the line of flowing water, the wave, as it moves up the channel, and is checked by the narrowing shores, must be reflected back, and keep a top of the waters still flowing in underneath. Thus it may rise higher in these narrow seas than in the open ocean. This may serve to explain a little the great tides which happen on some coasts, such as the coast of Normandy. At ST MALO the flood frequently rises 50 feet. But we cannot give any thing like a full or satisfactory account of these singularities. In the Bay of FUNDY, and particularly at ANNAPOLIS ROYAL, the water sometimes rises above 100 feet. This seems quite inexplicable by any force of the sun and moon, which cannot raise the waters of the free ocean more than eight feet. These great floods are unquestionably owing to the proper timing of certain oscillations or currents adjoining, by which they unite, and form one of great force. Such violent motions of water are often seen on a small scale in the motions of brooks and rivers; but we are too little acquainted with hydraulics to explain them with any precision. We have seen that there is an oscillation of waters formed under the sun and moon, (See OSCILLATION); and that in consequence of the rotation of the earth, (See ROTATION), the inertia and the want of perfect fluidity of the waters, and obstructions in the channel, this accumulation never reaches the place where it would finally settle if the earth did not turn round its axis. The consequence of this must be a general current of the waters from E. to W. This may be seen in another way. The moon in her orbit round the earth has her gravity to the earth diminished by the sun's disturbing force, and therefore moves in an orbit less incurvated than she should describe independent of the

sun's action. She therefore employs a longer time. If the moon were so near the earth as almost to touch it, the same thing would happen. Therefore, suppose the moon turning round the earth, almost in contact with the equator, with her natural undisturbed periodic time, and that the earth is revolving round its axis in the same time, the moon would remain continually above the same spot of the earth's surface (suppose the city of Quito), and a spectator in another planet would see the moon always covering the same spot. Now let the sun act. This will not affect the rotation of the earth, because the action on one part is exactly balanced by the action on another. But it will affect the moon. It will move slower round the earth's centre, and at a greater distance. It will be left behind by the city of Quito, which it formerly covered. And as the earth moves round from W. to E. the moon, moving more slowly, will have a motion to the W. with respect to Quito. In like manner, every particle of water has its gravity diminished, and its diurnal motion retarded; and hence arises a general motion or current from E. to W. This is very distinctly perceived in the ATLANTIC and PACIFIC OCEANS. It comes round the Cape of Good Hope, ranges along the coast of Africa, and then sets directly over to America, where it meets a similar stream which comes in by the N. of Europe. Meeting the shores of America, it is deflected both to the S. along the coast of Brazil, and to the N. along the N. American shores, where it forms what is called the GULF STREAM, (See AMERICA, § 6, and MEXICO, § IV.) because it comes from the Gulf of Mexico. This motion is indeed very slow, this being sufficient for the accumulation of 7 or 8 feet on the deep ocean; but it is not altogether insensible. We may expect differences in the appearances on the W. shores of Europe and Africa, and on the W. coast of America, from the appearances on the E. coasts of America and of Asia; for the general current obstructs the waters from the W. shores, and sends them to the E. shores. Also when we compare the wide opening of the N. extremity of the Atlantic Ocean with the narrow opening between Kamtschatka and America, we should expect differences between the appearances on the W. coasts of Europe and of America. The observations made during the circumnavigations of Captain Cook and others show a remarkable difference. (See COOK, N° III.) All along the W. coast of N. America the inferior tide is very trifling, and often is not perceived. In the very same manner, the disturbing forces of the sun and moon form a tide in the fluid air which surrounds this globe, consisting of an elevation and depression, which move gradually from E. to W. Neither does this tide ever attain that position with respect to the disturbing planets which it would do were the earth at rest on its axis. Hence arises a motion of the whole air from E. to W. and this is the principal cause of the TRADE WINDS. They are a little accelerated by being heated, and therefore expanding. They expand more to the W. than to the E. because the air expands on that side into air which is now cooling and contracting. These winds very evidently follow the sun's motion, tend-

ing more to the S. or N. as he goes S. or N. Were this motion considerably affected by the expansion of heated air, we should find the air rather coming northward and southward from the torrid zone, in consequence of its expansion in that climate. We repeat it, it is almost solely produced by the aerial tide, and is necessary for the very formation of this tide. We cannot perceive the accumulation. It cannot affect the barometer, as many think, because, though the air becomes deeper, it becomes deeper only because it is made lighter by the gravitation of the sun. Instead of pressing more on the cistern of the barometer, we imagine, that it presses less; because like the ocean, it never attains the height to which it tends. It remains always too low for *equilibrium*, and therefore it should press with less force on the cistern of a barometer. There is an appearance precisely similar to this in the planet JUPITER. He is surrounded by an atmosphere which is arranged in zones or belts, probably owing to climate differences of the different latitudes, by which each seems to have a different kind of sky. Something like this will appear to a spectator in the moon looking at this earth. The general weather and appearance of the sky is considerably different in the torrid and temperate zones. Jupiter's belts are not of a constant shape and colour; but there often appear large spots and tracts of clouds, which retain their shape during several revolutions of Jupiter round his axis. To judge of his rotation by one of these, we should say that he turns round to 955. There is also a brighter spot which is frequently seen, occupying one certain situation on the body of Jupiter. This is surely adherent to his body, and is either a bright coloured country, or perhaps a tract of clouds hovering over some volcano. This spot turns round in 951½. And thus there is a general current in his atmosphere from E. to W. Both the motion of the air and of the water tend to diminish the rotation of the earth round its axis; for they move slower than the earth, because they are retarded by the luminaries. They must communicate this retardation to the earth, and must take from it a quantity of motion precisely equal to what they want, in order to make up the equilibrated tide. In all probability this retardation is compensated by other causes; for no retardation can be observed. This would have altered the length of the year since the time of Hipparchus, giving it a smaller number of days. We see causes of compensation. The continual washing down of soil from the elevated parts of the earth must produce this effect, by communicating to the valley on which it is brought to rest the excess of diurnal velocity which it had on the mountain top.

(II.) TIDES, WHIMSICAL AND ABSURD THEORY OF. Mr *Saint Pierre*, in his *Studies of Nature* scorns the Newtonian theory of the tides, as erroneous in principle, and as quite insufficient for explaining the phenomena; and he ascribes all phenomena of the tides to the liquefaction of the ices and snows of the circumpolar regions, and the greater length of the polar than of the equatorial axis of the earth. The argument which he employs to prove that the earth is a *prolate spheroid*

spheroid, is a direct demonstration of the truth of the *contrary opinion*; and the melting of the ice and snows at the poles cannot produce the smallest motion in the waters. Were there even 10 times more ice and snow floating on the northern sea than there is, and were it all to melt in one minute, there would be no *flux* from it; for it would only fill up the space which it formerly occupied in the water. Of this any person may be convinced, who shall put a handful of snow squeezed hard into a jar of water, and note the exact height of the water. Let the snow melt, and he will find the water of the same height as before.

(1.) * *To TIDE*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To drive with the stream.—

Their images, the relics of the wreck,
Torn from the naked pap, are *tided* back.

Dryden.

(2.) * *To TIDE*. *v. n.* To pour a flood; to be agitated by the tide.—

Sent them, rolling, to the *tiding* Humber.

Philips.

* *TIDEGATE*. *n. s.* [*tide* and *gate*.] A gate thro' which the tide passes into a basin. *Bailey.*

TIDEMAN, Philip, an eminent painter born at Hamburg, in 1657. He studied under Laireff, and painted subjects of allegory and fabulous history with great propriety. He died in 1705.

* *TIDESMAN*. *n. s.* [*tide* and *man*.] A tide-waiter or custom-house officer, who watches on board of merchant ships till the duty of goods be paid, and the ships unloaded. *Bailey.*

TIDESWALL, or } a town of England, in Der-
TIDESWELL, } byshire, so named from a well that ebbs and flows like the *tide*. It has a handsome church and a free school, with a market on Wednesday. It lies 22 or 23 miles NNW. of Derby, and 158 N. of London. Lon. 1. 46. W. Lat. 53. 15. N.

TIDEWA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 62 miles NE. of Uddevalla.

(1.) * *TIDE-WAITER*. *n. s.* [*tide* and *wait*.] An officer who watches the landing of goods at the customhouse.—Nothing left for Irishmen but vicarages and *tide-waiters* places. *Swift.*

(2.) * *TIDE-WAITERS*, or *TIDESMEN*, are inferior officers of the customhouse, who attend upon ships until the customs be paid; so named from their returning with the *tide*.

TIDEY, or } a river of England, in Cornwall,
TIDI, } which runs past St Germans, and falls into the Hamoaze, near Saltaft.

* *TIDILY*. *adv.* [from *tidy*.] Neatly; readily.

* *TIDINESS*. *n. s.* [from *tidy*.] Neatness; cleanliness.

* *TIDINGS*. *n. s.* [*tidan*, Saxon, to happen, to beise; *tidende*, Islandick.] News; an account of something that has happened; incidents related.—

Saw the signs that deadly *tidings* spake.

Spenser.

—I shall make my master glad with these *tidings*.
Shak.

The *tidings* brought from heav'n. *Milton.*

What *tidings* dost thou bring? *Addison.*

—The messenger of these glad *tidings* was the eternal Son of his bosom. *Rogers.*

TIDLA, a river of Sweden, in W. Gothland, which runs into Lake Wenner, near Marlefstadt.

TIDORE, or } an island of Asia, in the Indian
TIDORE, } Ocean, one of the *MOLUCCAS*: E. of Gilola, and S. of Ternate. It is 17 miles in circumference, and the air is salubrious. It is strong by nature, being surrounded with rocks and thick woods. It is 30 miles in circumference, and abounds in cloves and other spices. *TADURA* is the capital. Lon. 126. 2. E. Lat. 1. 6. N.

* *TIDY*. *adj.* [*tidt*, Islandick.] 1. Seasonable.—
If weather be laire and *tidie*. *Tusser.*

2. Neat; ready.—

Before my eyes will trip the *tidy* lads. *Gay.*

3. It seems to be here put by mistake or irony for *untidy*.—Thou whorefon *tidy* Bartholomew bear-pig. *Shak.*

* *TIE*. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Knot; fastening. 2. Bond; obligation.—The rebels cast away the lesser *tie* of respect. *Bacon.*

Vows, oaths, and contracts, they devise,
And tell us they are sacred *ties*. *Waller.*

3. A knot of hair.—

The well swoln *ties* an equal homage claim.

Tourg.

* *To TIE*. *v. a.* [*tian*, *tigan*, Sax.] 1. To bind; to fasten with a knot.—*Tie* the line to the cart. 1 Sam. vi. 7.—Thousands of men and women, *tied* together in chains. *Knolles*. 2. To knit; to complicate.—We do not tie this knot with an intention to puzzle the argument; but the harder it is *tied*, we shall feel the pleasure more sensibly when we come to loose it. *Burnet*. 3. To hold; to fasten; to join so as not easily to be parted.—

In bond of virtuous love together *tied* *Fairf*.
—The intermediate ideas *tie* the extremes firmly together. *Locke*.—The whole chain that *ties* them to first self-evident principles. *Locke*. 4. To hinder; to obstruct: with *up* intensive.—

Death that hath ta'en her hence to make me
wait,

Ties up my tongue. *Shak.*

You have my promise, and my hasty word
Refrains my tongue, but *ties* not up my sword.

Waller.

—Honour and good-nature may *tie up* his hands.

Addison. 5. To oblige; to constrain; to refrain; to confine.—It shall not be preferred as a thing wherunto they will *tie* their masters. *Hocker*.—

He'll not feel wrongs

Which *tie* him to an answer. *Shak.*

—Cannot he *tie* us to perform them to him? *Stillingfleet*.—They *tie* themselves strictly to unity of place. *Dryden*.—

Not *tied* to rules of policy. *Dryden.*

—No one seems less *tied up* to a form of words. *Locke*.—The mind should, by several rules, be *tied* down to this. *Locke*.—They are ever *tied* down to the present moment. *Atterbury*.—A healthy man ought not to *tie* himself up to strict rules. *Arbutnot*. 6. It may be observed of *tie*, that it has often the particles *up* and *down* joined to it, which are, for the most part, little more than emphatical, and which, when united with this word, have, at least consequentially, the same meaning.

TIEBAS, a town of Spain, in Navarre, 5 miles SE. of Pampeluna.

TIEL, a strong town of Holland, in the department

B b b 2

partment of the Rhine, and ci-devant province of Dutch Guelderland, and late district of Lower Betau. It is seated on the Wahal, which descends it on one side, and the other is surrounded by a marsh; 17 miles W. of Nimeguen, and 38 NE. of Bois-le-duc. Lon. 5. 16. E. Lat. 51. 36. N.

TIELERWERT, an island of Holland, in the Wahal, and in the dep. of the Rhine.

(1.) **TIELLEN**, a sea port town and harbour of Ireland, on the N. side of Donegal Bay, 7 miles ESE. of Tiellen head.

(2.) **TIELLEN HEAD**, a cape of Ireland, on the N. side of the entrance into Donegal Bay, and on the SW. extremity of that county, 25 miles W. of Donegal. Lon. 8. 25. W. Lat. 54. 40. N.

TIEM, a town of Asia, in the kingdom of Laos, on the Mecon, 90 miles SSE. of Lantchan.

(1.) **TIEN**, a town of Ana, in Corea.

(2, 3.) **TIEN**, 2 towns of China, of the 2d rank: 1. in Quang-fi, on the N. bank of the Pofoi, 120 miles SSW. of Pekin: 2. in Quang-tong, 960 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 129. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 24. 50. N.

TIEN-CHIN, a large and handsome town of China, in Pekin, seated on the Chang, with a strong fort and good harbour.

TIEND. *n. s.* in Scots law. See **TEIND**.

TIENGEN, a town of Germany, in Suabia, late capital of a ci-devant lordship so named, 29 miles E. of Bafil, and 36 W. of Constance. In 1499, it was burnt by the Swifs. Lon. 25. 54. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 40. N.

TIENHO, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Quang-fi.

TIENHOVEN, 2 towns of Holland: 1. in the department of Delft, and late province of S. Holland, 6 miles E. of Schoonhoven: 2. in the department of the Rhine, and late province of Utrecht, $\frac{7}{8}$ miles N. of Utrecht.

TIEN-KIONG, a town of China, in Se-tchuen.

TIEN-KOU, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Quang fi, 20 miles N. of King-yuen.

TIEN-PE, a town of China, in Canton, of the 3d rank.

TIEN-SUNG, a mountain of China, in the prov. of Yun-nan, famous for its beautiful marble. See **TALI**.

TIEN TONG, a town of Asia, in Siam, 350 miles SSW. of Juthia.

TIEN-TSANG, a town of Thibet, 268 miles SSE. of Hami.

TIEN-TSIN-OUEI, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Pe-tcheli, 63 miles SE. of Pekin.

(1.) * **TIER**. *n. s.* [*tiere, teirie*, old Fr. *tuyer*. Dutch.] A row; a rank.—Fornovius discharged a tier of great ordnance amongst the thickest of them. *Knolles*.

(2.) **TIER**. See **COILING**.

TIERACHE, a ci-devant province of France, the most western division of PICARDY.

(1.) * **TIERCE**. *n. s.* [*tiers, tiercier*, Fr.] A vessel holding the third part of a pipe.—

Go now deny his tierce.

Ben Jonson.

Wit, like tierce claret.

Dorset.

(2.) **TIERCE**, or **TEIRCE**, is a measure of liquid things, as wine, oil, &c. containing 42 gallons.

(3.) **TIERCE**, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire; 4 miles S. of Chateaufort, and 9 NNW. of Angers.

TIERCED. *adj.* in heraldry, denotes the shield to be divided by any part of the partition lines: as party, coupé, tranchy, or tally, into three equal parts of different colours or metals.

* **TIERCET**. *n. s.* [from *tiers*, Fr.] A triplet; three lines.

TIERKELLY, a town of Ireland, in Down, Ulster; 2 miles NE. of Rathfriland; with a mineral well.

TIERPIED, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel; 3 miles E. of Avranches, and 12 WNW. of Mortain.

(1.) **TIERRA**. [Span. from *terra*, Lat.] EARTH. See **TERRA** and **TERRE**, &c.

(2.) **TIERRA DEL ESPIRITU SANTO**, the largest and most western of the NEW HEBRIDES Islands, in the S. Pacific Ocean. (See **ESPIRITU**, N° 3; and **HEBRIDES**, N° 2.) It is 120 miles in circumference; is very high and mountainous; yet it is fertile, and, except the cliffs and rocks, abounds with plantations of trees, fruits, &c. Lon. 165. 0. E. Lat. 16. 0. S.

(3.) **TIERRA DEL FUEGO**, one or several islands at the S. extremity of America; so named from a volcano on the largest of them. (See **FUEGO**, N° 2.) They are barren and mountainous.

TIESSA, a river of Laconia, running into the Eurotus. *Paus.* iii. c. 18.

TIESSERBACH, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Neckar, near Nuttingen, in Wirtemberg.

TIETAR, a river of Spain, which runs into the Tajo, near Talavan, in Estremadura.

TIETCHOU, a town of Asia, in Kokonor, 688 miles SE. of Hami.

TIFATA, a mountain of Italy, in Campania, near Capua. *Stat. Sylv.* 4.

TIFER, a town of Süria, 3 miles S. of Cilley.

TIFERNUM, 3 ancient towns of Italy: 1. called also *Metaurense*, near the Metaurus, in Umbria: 2. called *Samniticum*, in the country of the Samnites: and 3. called *Tiberinum*, seated on the Tiber. *Liv.* x. c. 14. *Plin.* iii. 14.

TIFERNUS, a mountain and river of Italy, in the country of the ancient Samnites. *Liv.* x. c. 30. *Mela*, ii. c. 4.

TIFESULT, a town of Fez, 12 miles NE. of Saltee.

* **TIFF**. *n. s.* [A low word, I suppose without etymology.] 1. Liquor; drink.—

With icanty offals, and small acid tiff. *Poet.*

2. A fit of peevishness or fullness; a pet.

* **To TIFF**. *v. n.* To be in a pet; to quarrel. A low word.

* **TIFFANY**. *n. s.* [*tiffet*, to dress up, old Fr. *Skinner*.] Very thin silk.—The smock of sulphur will not black a paper, and is commonly used by women to whiten *tiffanies*. *Brown*.

TIFFAUGES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vendée; 6 miles W. of Mortagne, and 9 E. of Montaigu.

TIFESH, a town of Algiers, 40 miles S. of Bona; anciently called *Theweste*.

TIFFLIS. See **TEFFLIS**.

TIGA, and } two islands in the E. Indian Sea,
TIGAON, } near the NNW. coast of Borneo: the

the first in Lon. 130. E. Ferro. Lat. 6. 25. N. the latter in Lon. 128. 42. E. Lon. Lat. 6. 10. N.

* **TIGE**. *n. f.* [in architecture.] The shaft of a column from the atragal to the capital. *Bailey.*

TIGELLINUS, a Roman courtier, infamous for his intrigues at the court of Nero, who promoted him to the highest honours; but being at last detected in a conspiracy against Nero, he was ordered to kill himself, A. D. 68. *Tac. Hist. i. 72.*

TIGELLIUS, a Sardinian, who became a favourite of J. Cæsar, Anthony, and Cleopatra, by his buffoonery, mimicry, and fine voice; but Horace represents him as a despicable character. *1 Sat. ii. 3, &c.*

(1.) * **TIGER**. *n. f.* [*tigre*, Fr. *tigris*, Latin.] A fierce beast of the leonine kind.—

Then imitate the action of the *tiger*. *Shak.*

The arm'd rhinoceros, or Hyrcanian *tiger*. *Shak.*

The steer,

At whose strong chest the deadly *tiger* hangs.

Thomson.

(2.) **TIGER**, in zoology. See **FELIS**, N° XXVII.

(3.) **TIGER**, AMERICAN. See **FELIS**, N° XXII.

(4.—6.) **TIGER CAT**. See **FELIS**, N° I, II, and XXI.

(7.) **TIGER WOLF**, the name by which the hyæna is called at the Cape of Good Hope. See **HYÆNA**.

* **TIGHT**. *adj.* [*dicht*, Dutch.] 1. Tenise; close; not loose.—If the pikes fill them not very *tight*. *Moxon*.—This running knot holds too *tight*. *John Bull*.—Every joint was well grooved; which kept my closet too *tight* that very little water came in. *Swift*. 2. Free from fluttering rags; less than neat.—

A *tight* maid.

Dryden.

—The girl was a *tight* clever wench. *Arbutnot*.—

I'll spin and card, and keep our children *tight*.

Gay.

Rather *tight* than great:

Swift.

* **TO TIGHTEN**. *v. a.* [from *tight*.] To straiten; to make close.

* **TIGHTER**. *n. f.* [from *tighten*.] A ribband or string by which women straiten their clothes.

* **TIGHTLY**. *adv.* [from *tight*.] 1. Closely; not loosely. 2. Neatly; not idly.—

Sirrah, bear you these letters *tightly*. *Shak.*

—*Tightly*, I say, go *tightly* to your business. *Dryd.*

* **TIGHTNESS**. *n. f.* [from *tight*.] 1. Closeness; not looseness.—The firmness and *tightness* of their union. *Woodward*. 2. Neatness.

TIGILSKOI, a town of Russia, in Kamtschatka; 80 miles W. of Ukinskoi. Lon. 175. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 20. N.

TIGLATH-PILESER, king of Assyria. See **ASSYRIA**, § 2.

TIGNALE, a town of Corsica; 30 miles SE. of Corte.

TIGNES, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy, and late prov. of Tarentaise; 3 miles SE. of St Maurice.

TIGRAMMANES, an ancient name of the Phrygians. See **PHYRGIA**, N° I.

(1.) **TIGRANES**, I. a famous king of Armenia, who conquered CAPPADOCIA and SYRIA; and

reigned for some years in prosperity; but having afterwards married Cleopatra, a daughter of MITHRIDATES VII. king of Pontus, he joined him against the Romans, and beheaded a Roman ambassador; but was soon after obliged to fly from his dominions, by Lucullus, who pursued and defeated him near Mount Taurus. He was afterwards defeated by Pompey, who, however, allowed him to retain Armenia, Syria, and some other parts of his dominions, for a bribe of 60,000 talents. He died in Armenia.

(2.) **TIGRANES II.** a son of the preceding, revolted against his father, and fled to the Romans, who made him king of Sophene; but having afterwards insulted Pompey, he was sent in chains to Rome where he died.

(3.—6.) **TIGRANES** was the name of other four kings of the same family: 1. Of Armenia, put to death by Tiberius: 2. Another made by king Tiberius: 3. Another promoted by Nero: and, 4. The last flourished in the reign of Theodosius the Great.

TIGRANOCERTA, the capital of ancient Armenia, built by Tigranes I. during the Mithridatic war, on a hill between the sources of the TIGRIS and mount Taurus. Lucullus took it, not without difficulty; but found immense riches in it; particularly 8000 talents in money. *Tac. Ann. v. 15. c. 4.* It is now called *Sered* by the Arabs, but *Sultania* by the Turks and other Europeans. See **SULTANIA**.

TIGRE, a kingdom of Africa, the largest and most populous province of Abyssinia. It was, during many ages, the seat of the court. Tigre is bounded on the E. by the territories of the Baharnagash, of which the river Mareb is the boundary on the E. and the Tacazze on the W. It is about 200 miles long from N. to S. and 120 broad from W. to E. All the merchandise sent across the Red Sea to Abyssinia, or from Abyssinia across the Red Sea, must pass through this province, as the governor has his choice of it as it goes along. Thus the province itself is very wealthy.

TIGRES, a river of Peloponnesus.

* **TIGRESS**. *n. f.* [from *tiger*.] The female of the tiger.—It is reported of the tigress, that several spots rise in her skin when she is angry. *Addison.*

TIGRINA, the *Margay* of Buffon. See **FELIS**, N° XXVI.

(1.) **TIGRIS**, a river of Asia, which rises near the Euphrates, in the mountains of Armenia; separates Diarbeck from Erzerum, and Chusistan from Irac Arabic; passes by Diarbekir, Gezira, Mouful, Bagdad, Gorno, and Bassorah; and joining the EUPHRATES, falls into the Persian Gulf, below Bassorah.

(2.) **TIGRIS**, in zoology. See **FELIS**, N° XXVII.

TIGUILLACA, a town of Buenos Ayres.

TIGURINI, an ancient warlike nation of Helvetia, who inhabited the countries or cantons now called SWITZ, ZURICH, SCHAUFFHAUSEN, and ST GALL. (*Ges. de B. Gal.*) Their capital was **TIGURUM**.

TIGURUM, the capital of the **TIGURINI**.

TIGY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Loiret; and ci-devant duchy of Orleans.

TIHAN,

TIHAN, a town of Hungary, 20 miles SW. of Stulweiffenburg.

TIJOLA, a town of Spain, in Grenada, 5 miles SW. of Purchena.

(1.) * **TIKE**. *n. f.* [*tik*, Swedish; *teke*, Dutch; *tique*, Fr.] 1. The house of dogs or sheep. See **TICK**.—Lice and *tikes* are bred by the sweat. *Bacon*. 2. It is in *Shakespeare* the name of a dog, in which sense it is used in Scotland. [from *tijk*, Runic, a little dog].—

Hound or spaniel, brache or hym,

Or bobtail *tike*, or trundle tail. *Shak.*

(2.) **TIKE** or **DOG**. See **CANIS**, N^o I. § vi.

TIKIOB, a town of Denmark, in the isle of Zealand, 4 miles SW. of Helsingør.

TIKITHOCK, a town and settlement on the E. coast of Labrador. Lon. 60. 5. W. Lat. 56. 15. N.

TIL, a town of Persia, in Adirbeitzan, 60 miles W. of Tauris.

TILA, or **TILA NAIR**, one of the **LIPARI** islands, 6 miles SSW. of Stromboli.

TILATZEL, an ancient nation of Thrace.

TILAVEMPTUS, a river of Italy, running into the Adriatic, W. of Aquileia.

TILBORG, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Dommel and Scheidt, and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Brabant; 10 miles S. of Bois-le-duc: famous for its cloth manufactures.

(1, 2.) **TILBURY, EAST**, a small town and parish of England, in Essex, seated near the mouth of the Thames, E. of the **FORT** (N^o 3.) It is the place where the emperor Cladius crossed the Thames, in pursuit of the Britons. Near this town, or within its parish, is a field, called *Cave Field*, in which is a horizontal subterraneous passage to one of the spacious ancient caves in the adjoining parish of **CHADWELL**.

(3.) **TILBURY FORT**, a fort of Essex on the Thames, in the parish of West Tilbury, (N^o 4.) opposite Gravend. It is a regular fortification, and is reckoned the *key* to London. It was planned by Sir Martin Beckman, chief engineer to K. Charles II. It has 2 moats, the innermost of which is 180 feet broad, with a good counterscarp, a covered way, ravelins, and terrils. Its chief strength on the land side consists in this, that upon an emergency, it can lay the whole level ground under water. On the side next the river there is a strong curtain, with a fine gate, called the *Water gate*, in the middle; and the ditch is palisaded. Before this curtain is a platform, instead of a counterscarp: on which are planted 26 guns, from 14 to 40 pounders; with smaller ones between them. The bastions and curtains are also planted with guns. This fort lies 28 miles E. by S. of London.

(4, 5.) **TILBURY, WEST**, a town and parish of Essex, seated on the Thames, N. of the **FORT**, (N^o 3.) at the spot, where 4 Roman roads meet. About A. D. 530, it was the see of bishop *Ceddæ*, or *St Chad*, who converted the E. Saxons. It has a famous mineral spring, discovered in 1717.

* **TILE**. *n. f.* [*tile*, Saxon; *tegel*, Dutch; *tuile*, Fr. *tegola*, Italian.] Thin plates of baked clay used to cover houses.—The roof is all *tile*, or lead, or stone. *Bacon*.—Earth turned into brick serveth

for buildings as stone doth; and the like of *tile*. *Bacon*.—

In at the window he climbs, or o'er the *tiles*. *Milton*.

Worse than all the clatt'ring *tiles*. *Dryden*.

—*Tile* pins, made of oak or fir, they drive into holes made in the plain *tiles*, to hang them upon their lathing. *Moxon*.

* To **TILE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cover with tiles.—Mosa groweth upon ridges of houses *tiled*. *Bacon*.—

A lyric ode wou'd slate, a catch

Wou'd *tile*, an epigram would thatch. *Swift*.

2. To cover as tiles.—

The muscle, finew, and vein,

Which *tile* this house, will come again. *Dodd*.

* **TILER**. *n. f.* [*tuiler*, Fr. from *tile*.] One whose trade is to cover houses with tiles.—A Flemish *tiler*, falling from the top of a house upon a Spaniard, killed him; the next of the blood prosecuted his death; nothing would serve him but *lex talionis*: whereupon the judge said to him, he should go up to the top of the house, and then fall down upon the *tiler*. *Bacon*.

TILFOSSIUS, 1. a mountain of Borotia; 2. a fountain at the tomb of Terebas. *Paus. Bæot. 33*.

TILGHMAN'S ISLAND, an island of Maryland, in the Chesapeake; 25 miles SE. of Annapolis.

TILIA, **LIME** or **LINDEN TREE**, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polyandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the *Columniferae*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the corolla pentapetalous; the berry is dry, globose, quinquelocular, quinquevalve, and opening at the base. There are 4 species, viz.

1. **TILIA ALBA**, the *aubite lime tree*.

2. **TILIA AMERICANA**, the *American Linden tree*; grows plentifully in America.

3. **TILIA EUROPÆA**, the *European*, or common *Lime tree*, is generally supposed to be a native of Britain; but Mr Coxse says, that Mr Pennant told him, that it was imported into England before 1652. The leaves are heart shaped, with the apex produced, and serrated on the edges; the flowers grow in a thin umbel, from three to nine together, of a whitish colour and a fragrant smell; very grateful to bees. The wood is light, smooth, and of a spongy texture, used for making lasts and tables for shoemakers, &c. Ropes and bandages are made of the bark, and mats and rustic garments of the inner rind, in Carniola and some other countries.—The lime tree contains a gummy juice, which being repeatedly boiled and clarified, produces a substance like sugar.

4. **TILIA PUBESCENS**.

(1.) * **TILING**. *n. f.* [from *tile*.] The roof covered with tiles.—They let him down through the *tiling* with his couch before Jesus. *Luke v. 19*.

(2.) **TILING**, *part. n. f.* A new method has been invented, by which one half of the quantity generally used for that purpose is sufficient. The tiles are made square, with the hook at one of the angles, so that when fastened to the lath, they hang down diagonally, and every tile is covered 1-5th part on two sides by the superior row.

TILINGUS.

TILINGIUS, Matthias, a learned German physician, born in Westphalia. He became professor of medicine at Rinteln, and physician to the court of Hesse-Cassel. He wrote, 1. *Curiosa Rhabbari Disquisitio*, 4to. 2. *Lilii Albi descriptio*, 8vo. 3. *De Laudano opiato*, 8vo. 4. *Opio-Cinnabaris Mineralis*, 8vo. He died in 1615.

TILIUM, an ancient town of Sardinia, now called ARGENTERA.

(1.) * **TILL**. *n. f.* A money box in a shop.—They break up counters, doors, and *tills*.

Swift.

(2.) * **TILL**. *conjunction*. 1. To the time when. Woods and rocks had ears

To rapture, *till* the savage clamour drown'd
Both harp and voice. *Milton.*

—The unity of place we neither find in Aristotle, Horace, or any who have written of it, *till* in our age the French poets first made it a precept of the stage *Dryden*. 2. To the degree that.—Meditate so long *till* you make some act of prayer. *Taylor*.—

To this strange pitch their high assertions flew.
Till Nature's self scarce look'd on them as two.

Cowley.

Goddeffs, spread thy reign *till* Iſis elders reel.

Pope.

(3.) * **TILL**. *prep.* [*till*, Saxon.] To the time of.—

Unhappy *till* the last.

Cowley.

(4.) **TILL**, in geography, a river of England, in Northumberland, which runs into the Tweed; 2 miles NE. of Coldstream.

(5.) **TILL**. *n. f.* in agriculture and mineralogy, a peculiar species of soil, commonly distinguished by the epithets of *cold* and *wet*. See **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Cl. I. Chap. IV. Order III. Gen. IV. Sp. 4: and **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part I. Sect. III.

(6.) * **TILL** NOW. To the present time.—Pleasure not known *till* now. *Milton.*

(7.) * **TILL** THEN. To that time.—

The earth *till* then was desert.

Milton.

* To **TILL**. *v. a.* [*tylian*, Saxon; *tenlen*, Dutch.] To cultivate; to husband; commonly used of the husbandry of the plow.—

This paradise I give thee, count it thine,

To *till*, and keep, and of the fruit to eat. *Milt.*

Send him from the garden forth, to *till*. *Milt.*

—The husbandman *tilleth* the ground. *Law.*

* **TILLABLE**. *adj.* [from *till*.] Arable; fit for the plow.—The *tillable* fields are hilly. *Carew.*

TILLÆA, in botany, a genus of plant belonging to the class of *tetrandria*, the order of *tetragynia*, and in the natural system ranging under the 13th order, *Succulente*. The calyx has 3 or 4 divisions; the petals are 3 or 4, and equal; the capsules 3 or 4, and polyspermous. There are 4 species; of which one only,

TILLÆA MUSCOSA, or *procumbent tillæa*, is a native of England, and is not mentioned among the Scottish plants. It has prostrate stems, almost erect, generally red, and grow longer after flowering. The parts of fructification are always three. The leaves grow in pairs, and are fleshy. It is found on dry heaths in Norfolk and Suffolk, and flowers in May and June.

(1.) * **TILLAGE**. *n. f.* [from *till*.] Husbandry; the act or practice of plowing or culture.—*Tillage*

will enable the kingdom for corn for the natives, and to spare for exportation. *Bacon.*

A sweaty reaper from his *tillage* brought.

Milton.

—Incite them to improve the *tillage* of their country. *Milton*.—

Whose harden'd hands did long in *tillage* toil.

Dryden.

—That there was *tillage* Moses intimates. *Woodw.*

(2.) **TILLAGE**. See **PLOUGH**; and **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part II. Sect. I. II. and VIII. &c.

TILLANDSIA, the large barren wild pine of the West Indies; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants. It is called *Caragatua* by Father Plumier, and is a parasitic plant, and ought perhaps, in strict propriety, to be denominated an *aquatic*: for although it is suspended in the air among the branches of lofty trees, to whose boughs it is fastened by its numerous roots; yet it is not indebted to those boughs, like the mistletoe and other parasitic plants, for nourishment, but merely for support; being supplied with other means to preserve its existence: For the leaves, which much resemble those of the pine apple, but are larger, surround this plant in a circular manner; each leaf being terminated near the stalk with a hollow bucket, which contains about half a pint of water. It is by these numerous small reservoirs of water that the roots, as well as every other part of this plant, are supplied with nourishment, without the help of any earth.

TILLANJONG, one of the NICOBAR islands, in the Indian Sea. Lon. 94. 9. E. Lat. 8. 40. N.

(1.) **TILLE**, a river of France, which runs into the Saone; 3 miles below Auxonne.

(2.) **TILLE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Oise; 3 miles N. of Beauvais.

* **TILLEMANS**, Peter, a celebrated landscape painter, born at Antwerp. He came to England in 1708, and was much employed by the nobility and gentry. He died in 1734.

(1.) **TILLEMONT**, Lewis Sebastian Nain DE. See **NAIN**.

(2.) **TILLEMONT**. See **TIRLEMONT**.

TILLENENSEE, a lake of Prussia; 8 miles W. of Lick.

(1.) * **TILLER**. *n. f.* [from *till*.] 1. Husbandman; ploughman.—The good husbandry of the *tiller*. *Carew*—Cain was a *tiller* of the ground. *Gen.* iv. 2.—

While husks elude the *tiller's* care. *Prior.*

2. The rudder of a boat. 3. The horse that goes in the thill. Properly **THILLER**. 4. A till; a small drawer.—

Each *tiller* there with love epistles lin'd.

Dryden.

(2.) **TILLER OF A SHIP**, a strong piece of wood fastened in the head of the rudder, and in small ships and boats called the *helm*.

To **TILLER**. *v. a.* in agriculture. See **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part II. Sect. III.

(1.) **TILLI**, John Count of, an illustrious general, born at Bussels, and educated under the Jesuits. He displayed great courage in Hungary, in a battle with the Turks: and in 1620, commanded the troops under duke Maximilian, at the battle of Prague. He showed equal skill and humanity

dity in the various German wars that followed: but was at last defeated by Gustavus Adolphus, and mortally wounded in defending the passage of the Lech. He died at Ingoldstadt, in 1652.

(2.) **TILLI**, Michael Angelo, F. R. S. a learned physician, and botanist; born at Florence in 1655, and educated at Pisa. He was made physician to the grand duke; professor of medicine in the university of Pisa; superintendent of the botanic garden, and F. R. S. of London. His chief work is *Catalogus Horti Pisani*: in fol. 1723. He died at Florence in 1740, aged 85.

TILLICOUNTRY, a parish of Scotland, in Clackmannanshire, of an oblong form, 6 miles long, and from one to two broad, containing about 6000 Scots acres, of which 4000 are among the Ochil Hills, and the remaining 2000 form the low arable ground at the foot of the mountains. The soil is generally dry and fertile, though stony and full of quartz; and produces excellent crops of all the usual grain and roots. On the banks of the DOVAN, which bounds it on the N. the soil is clayey, the surface beautiful, and the climate mild. Large flocks of sheep are pastured on the Ochils. In the DOVAN are sometimes found the pearl mussels; and various minerals and metals are found in the parish; as granite, basalt, shorl, flint, sulphur, mica, silver, lead, copper, cobalt, antimony, and arsenic. Iron stone abounds, and is wrought by the *Dodian Iron Company*; and the low grounds abound with coal. This parish has been famous for several centuries for its manufacture of *serge*. The population, in 1793, was 909; the increase since 1755. The villages of *Coal-naughton*, *Earlstown*, and *Westertown*, contains above 210 each. *Tillicoultry*, the seat of James Bruce, Esq. of Kinross, and *Harviefton*, the seat of Jo. Taitt, Esq. are the only feats.

TILLIERES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure; 6 miles NE. of Verneuil, and 12 W. of Dreux.

(1.) **TILLING**, *part. n. f.* [from *To till*.] in agriculture. See **TILLAGE**, and **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part II. &c.

(2.) **TILLING**, in geography, a town of Sweden, in Upland; 23 miles SE. of Upfal.

(3.) **TILLING HILLS**, hills of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, which bound the parish of **SHORTS** on the E.

TILLOT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vosges; 12 miles SE. of Plombieres, and 10½ of Remiremont.

TILLOTSON, John, a celebrated Abp. of Canterbury, the son of Robert Tillotson of Sowerby, in Halifax, Yorkshire, clothier; was born there in 1630. He studied in Clare-hall, Cambridge; and in 1656 became tutor to the son of Edmund Prideaux, Esq. of Ford abbey. He was next curate to Dr Hacket, vicar of Cheshunt, Hertfordshire. In 1663, he was appointed rector of Ketton, in Suffolk; in 1664, preacher to Lincoln's Inn. He was greatly admired in London, by all the divines of the city. In 1666, he took the degree of D. D. at Cambridge; in 1669, was made prebendary of Canterbury; in 1672, was admitted dean of that cathedral; and three years after, was made a prebendary of St Paul's, London. In 1679, he converted Charles earl of

Shrewsbury, from Popery; yet in 1670, he refused to sign the clergy's address to Charles II. on the bill of exclusion. In 1689, he was initiated dean of St Paul's; made clerk of the closet to William and Mary; and appointed a commissioner to prepare matters to be laid before the convocation, for a comprehension of all Protestants; but this attempt was frustrated by the bigotry of some members. In 1691, he was consecrated Abp. of Canterbury. In 1694, he was seized with a palsy, of which he died in his 65th year. One folio volume of his sermons was published in his life-time. Those which came abroad after his death, from his chaplain Dr Barker, made two volumes in folio, the copy of which was sold for 2500l. and this was the only legacy he left to his family, his extensive charity having consumed his yearly revenues as constantly as they came in. But K. William gave two grants to his widow; amounting to 600l. a-year. He wrote some other works; and also published Dr Barrow's works, and Dr Wilkin's Treatise of the principles and Duties of Natural Religion, with a vol. of Sermons.

TILLURIUM, or **TELLURIUM**, *n. f.* [from *tel-lus*, Lat. *earth*.] one of the ten *new* metals, lately discovered by the industry of modern chemists. See **METALLURGY**, Part I. Sect. I. For a particular account of the ores, alloys, analysis, properties, and phenomena of this new metal, see **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. VII. Ord. XIII. Gen. I. Sp. 1—3. Part III. Chap. IV. § XIII. Chap. V. § 12.

(1.) **TILLY**, Count. See **TILLI**, N° 1.

(2.) **TILLY**, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure; 6 miles SE. of Grand Andelys.

(3.) **TILLY**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuse; 9 miles S. of Verdun, and 17½ N. of St Michiel.

(4.) **TILLY**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Austrian Brabant; 6 miles W. of Gemblours.

(5.) **TILLY LA CAMPAGNE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados; 4½ miles SSE. of Caen, and 13 N. of Falaise.

(6.) **TILLY LOCH**, a lake of Scotland, in Fifeshire, between the parishes of Beath and Dunfermline, one mile long, and half a mile broad.

(7.) **TILLY VEROLLE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados, 6 miles S. of Bayeux, and 9 W. of Caen.

* **TILLYFALLY**. } *adj.* A word used formerly when any thing said was rejected as trifling or impertinent.—Am not I of her blood? *tillyvalley* lady. *Shak.*—*Tillyfally*, Sir John, never tell me. *Shak.*

* **TILMAN**. *n. f.* [from *till* and *man*.] One who tills, an husbandman.—

Good shepherd, good *tilman*, good Jack and good Gil. *Tusser.*

TILOX, a cape of Corsica, on the NW. coast.

TILPUSSUS, a mountain of Bœotia.

TILSIT, a large and rich city of Prussia, in Lithuania, with a castle built in 1289. It has a good trade in provisions, butter, lint-seed, &c. and contains about 7000 inhabitants. It is seated on the S. bank of the Memel, 50 miles NE. of Königsberg.

Sberg, and 95 SSW. of Mittau. Lon. 22. 8. E. Lat. 55. 8. N.

(1.) * *TILT. n. f.* [*tyld*, Saxon.] 1. A tent; any support of covering over head.—

The roof of linen

Intended for a shelter!

But the rain made an afs

Of *tilt* and canvas. *Denham.*

2. The cover of a boat.—

—It is a small vessel, like in proportion to a Gravelend *tilt*-boat. *Sandys.*—

The rowing crew,

To tempt a fare, clothe all their *tilts* in blue. *Gay.*

3. A military game at which the combatants run against each other with lances on horseback.—

His study is his *tilt* yard. *Shak.*

—He never saw him but once in the *tilt*-yard. *Shak.*—He placed images in the *tilt* yard at Constantinople. *Knolles.*—

What *tilts* and tourneys at the feast were seen. *Dryden.*

In *tilts* and tournaments the valiant frowe. *Prior.*

4. A thrust.—Dexterously put to death with the *tilt* of his lance. *Addison.* 5. Inclination forward; as, *the vessel is a tilt*, when it is inclined that the liquor may run out.

(2.) *TILT*, a small but rapid river of Perthshire in Athol; which rises on the borders of Mar, and runs into the *Garry*, near Blair castle, where it forms several romantic cataracts, particularly one called the *Yorkshire Cascade*, which is surrounded with the most beautiful scenery.

(1.) * *To TILT. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cover like a tilt of a boat. 2. To carry as in tilts or tournaments.—

Ajax

Screen'd Laertes' son,

When the insulting Trojans urg'd him fore

With *tilted* spears. *Philips.*

3. To point as in tilts.—

Sons against fathers *tilt* the fatal lance. *Pbilips.*

4. [*Tillen*, Dutch.] To turn up so as to run out; as, the barrel is *tilted*; that is, lean'd forward.

(2.) * *To TILT. v. n.* 1. To run in tilts, or tournaments.—

To describe races and games,

Or *tilting* furniture, emblazon'd shields. *Milton.*

2. To fight with rapiers.—

Swords out and *tilting* one at other's breaks: *Shak.*

Now we set up for *tilting* in the pit. *Dryden.*

—It is not yet the fashion for women of quality to *tilt*. *Collier.*—

Satire's my weapon, but I'm too discreet

To run a muck, and *tilt* at all I meet. *Pope.*

3. To rush as in combat.—Some say the spirits *tilt* violently. *Collier.* 4. To play unsteadily.—

Rode *tilting* o'er the waves. *Milton.*

The fleet swift *tilting* o'er the surges flew. *Pope.*

5. To fall on one side.—The trunk of the body is kept from *tilting* forward by the muscles of the back. *Grew.*

* *TILT. n. f.* [from *tilt*.] One who tilts; VOL. XXII. PART II.

one who fights.—A puiſny *tilter*, that ſpurs his horſe on one ſide, breaks his ſtaff like a noble gooſe. *Shak.*—

He uſ'd the only antique philters,

Deriv'd from old heroick *tilters*. *Hudibras:*

Let me alone to match your *tilters*. *Granville.*

(1.) * *TILTH. adj.* [from *till*.] Arable; tilled. I know not how this word can be ſo uſed.—

He beheld a field,

Part arable and *tilth*. *Milton.*

(2.) * *TILTH. n. f.* [from *till*.] Huſbandry; culture.—

Bourn, bound of land, *tilth*, vineyard, none

No uſe of metal, corn, or wine, or oil. *Shak:*

—Give the fallow lands their ſeaſons and their *tilth*. *Drayton.*—

Her plenteous womb

Expreſſeth its full *tilth* and huſbandry. *Shak:*

TILTING. part. n. f. [*tilt*.] See *TOURNAMENT*.

TILURUS, a river of Dalmatia, now called *Cettina*.

TIM, a town of Ruſſia, in Kuſſkoi; 44 miles E. of Kuſſk. Lon. 55. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 1. 25. N.

TIMÆA, the wife of AGIS I. king of Sparta, who was debauched by Alcibiades, by whom ſhe had a ſon; who was rejected from the ſucceſſion to the throne, although Agis declared him legitimate on his death-bed. *Plut. in Ag.*

(1.) *TIMÆUS*, the ſon of Andromachus, an ancient hiſtorian of Sicily, born at Taurominium; who flouriſhed about A. A. C. 262, in the time of Agathocles. He wrote a hiſtory of Sicily, and of the wars of Pyrrhus, and other works, which were much eſteemed, but his works are loſt. He was baniſhed by Agathocles; and died aged 96.

(2.) *TIMÆUS*, a famous Pythagorean philoſopher, was born at Locris in Italy, and lived before Plato. There is ſtill extant a ſmall treatiſe of his on *Nature and the Soul of the World*, written in the Doric dialect.

(3.) *TIMÆUS*, a Greek ſophiſt and lexicographer, who wrote *Lexicon vocum Platoniarum*.

TIMAGENES, a Greek hiſtorian of Alexandria, who flouriſhed about A. A. C. 54. He was brought to Rome by Gabinus, and ſold as a ſlave to Sylla's ſon. His abilities procured him his liberty, and gained the favour of Auguſtus, which he returned by impertinence; on which the emperor diſmiſſed him; and he in revenge burnt the admired hiſtory he had written of his reign. *Plut.*

TIMAHOE, a town of Ireland, in Queen's County, Leinſter.

TIMAN, or } a town of Terra Firma, in Po-
TIMANA, } payan, capital of a territory ſo named, abounding in fruits and paſtures; ſeated on a river, 130 miles ESE. of Popayan. Lon. 73. 55. W. Lat. 1. 35. N.

TIMANTHES, a famous painter of Sicyon, who lived in the reign of Philip II. of Macedon. His painting of the ſacrifice of IPHIGENIA was much and juſtly admired, wherein he repreſented all the ſpectators in extreme grief, but covered the face of Agamemnon, as eſcuming the father's grief impoſſible to be expreſſed by the pencil. This painting carried off the prize from PARRHASIUS.

C c c

S I U A.

sius. His *AXES* *enraged* for the loss of Achilles's arms was also much admired.

TIMAVO, a river of Carniola, running into the gulf of Triest.

TIMAVUS, a river of Italy, falling into the Adriatic by 7 months. *Mela*, ii. 4.

(1) * **TIMBER**. *n. f.* [*tymbrion*, Sax. *to build*.]

1. Wood fit for building.—
I learn'd of lighter *timber* cotes to frame.

Spenser.

—For ships no nation doth equal England for the oaken *timber* wherewith to build them. *Bacon*.—

The third of greens, and *timber* newly fell'd.

Dryden.

—Hardly any countries are destitute of *timber*. *Woodward*.—They plant quick and *timber* trees. *Mortimer*.—

Who set the twigs, shall he remember,

That is in haste to sell the *timber*? *Prior*.

2. The main trunk of a tree.—

We take

From every tree, lop, bark, and part o' th' *timber*. *Shak.*

3. The main beams of a fabric. 4. Materials, ironically.—Such dispositions are the fittest *timber* to make polticks of. *Bacon*.

(2.) **TIMBER**. See **STRENGTH OF MATERIALS**, and **TREE**.

(3, 4.) **TIMBER**, in geography, a town and river of Prussian Lithuania; 6 miles W. of Insterburg.

(1.) * **To TIMBER**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] **To** light on a tree. A cant word.—The one took up in a thicket, the other *timbered* upon a tree hard by. *L'Estrange*.

(2.) * **To TIMBER**. *v. a.* **To** furnish with beams or *timber*.

* **TIMBERED**. *adj.* [from *timber*; *timbré*, Fr.] Built; formed; contrived.—He left the succession to his second son; not because he thought him the best *timbered* to support it. *Wotton*.—Many heads that undertake learning, were never squared nor *timbered* for it. *Brown*.

TIMBERS. *n. f. plur.* the ribs of a ship, or the incurved pieces of wood, branching outward from the keel in a vertical direction, so as to give strength, figure, and solidity, to the whole fabric. See **SHIP-BUILDING**.

* **TIMBERSOW**. *n. f.* A worm in wood; perhaps the wood louse.—Divers creatures, are of this kind; as earth-worms, *timbersows*, snails. *Bacon*.

TIMBER-YARD. *n. f.* A yard or area, where *timber* is laid up to be prepared for building.

* **TIMBRE**. *n. f.* [*timbre*, Fr. *tympanum*, Lat.] A kind of musical instrument played by pulsation.—

The damsels they delight,

When they their *timbrels* smite. *Spenser.*

In their hands sweet *timbrels* all upheld on high. *Spenser.*

Prattle with *timbrels*, organs, flutes. *Sandys.*

Let weeping Nilus hear the *timbral* sound. *Pope.*

(1.) * **TIME**. *n. f.* [*tima*, Saxon; *tym*, Erse.]

1. The measure of duration.—This consideration of duration, as set out by certain periods, and

marked by certain measures or epochs, is that which most properly we call *time*. *Locke*.—

Time is like a fashionable host. *Shak.*

Come what come may

Time the hour runs through the roughest day. *Shak.*

—Nor will polished amber, although it send forth a gross exhalation, be found a long time defective upon the exactest scale. *Brown*.—*Time*, which consisteth of parts, can be no part of infinite duration, or of eternity; for then there would be infinite *time* past to-day, which to-morrow will be more than infinite.—*Time* is one thing, and infinite duration is another. *Grew*. 2. Space of time.—Daniel desired that he would give him *time*. *Dan*. ii. 16.—If a law be enacted to continue for a certain time, when that *time* is elapsed, the law ceaseth without any farther abrogation. *White*.—

He for the *time* remain'd stupidly good. *Miln.*

—No time is allowed for digressions. *Swift*. 3. Interval.—Perfumes you can take but at *times*. *Bacon*.

4. Life considered as employed, or destined to employment.—A great devourer of his *time*. *Fell*.—Those who are masters of themselves, their *time*, and their fortune. *Law*.

5. Season; proper time.—There is a *time* to every purpose. *Ecclus*. iii. 1.—They were cut down out of *time*. *Job* xxii. 16.—The *time* of figs was not yet. *Mar*. xi. 13.—Knowing the *time*, that it is high *time* to awake out of sleep. *Rom*. xiii. 11.—

Her lord expir'd before his *time*. *Dryden.*

I hope I come in *time*. *Dryden.*

—The *time* will come when we shall be forced to bring our evil ways to remembrance. *Calamy's Sermons*. 6. A considerable space of duration; continuance; process of time.—

In *time* you may command a regiment. *Dryd.*

—In *time* the mind reflects on its own operations. *Locke*.—One imagines, that the terrestrial matter which is showered down along with rain will in *time* bury all things under ground. *Woodward*.—I have resolved to take *time*. *Swift*. 7. Age; part of duration distinct from other parts.—They shall be given into his hand until a *time* and *times*. *Dan*. vii. 25.—It seems more favourable for our *times* to ascribe the same unto the constellation of Leo. *Brown*.—The poets and painters, in ancient *times*, have studied nature. *Dryden*. 8. Past time.—I was the man in th' moon when *time* was. *Shak*. 9. Early time.—Stanley at Bosworth field, though he came *time* enough to save his life, yet he staid long enough to endanger it. *Bacon*.—It is *time* enough yet to set about these duties. *Rogers*. 10. Time considered as affording opportunity.—The earl lost no *time*, but marched day and night. *Clarend*.—He continued his delights till all the enemy's horse were passed; nor did them pursue in any *time*. *Clarendon*.—I would ask any man that means to repent at his death, how he knows he shall have an hour's *time* for it? *Duty of Man*.

Time is lost, which never will renew. *Dryd.*

11. Particular quality of some part of duration.—Comets, importing change of *times* and states. *Shak.*

All the prophets in their age, the *times*

Of great Messiah sing. *Milton*

—If any reply, that the *times* and manners of men

will

will not bear such a practice, that is an answer from the mouth of a professed *time-server*. *South.* 23. Particular time.—

Give order, that no sort of person

Have, any *time*, recourse unto the princes. *Shak.*

—What *time* the fire devoured two hundred and fifty men. *Num.* xxvi. 10.—

The work on me must light, when *time* shall be.

A *time* will come.

—These reservoirs of snow from *time* to *time* supply Naples. *Addison.* 13. Hour of childbirth.—

She was within one month of her *time*. *Clarendon.*

—I blamed her for walking abroad when she was so near her *time*. *Addison.* 14. Repetition of any thing, or mention with reference to repetition.—

Four *times* he crosses the car of night. *Milt.*

—Many *times* I have read of the like. *Heylyn.*

Many hundred thousand million million *times* bigger. *Bentley.*—Lord Oxford, I have now the third *time* mentioned in this letter, expects you. *Swift.*

15. Musical measure.—

Ha, ha! keep *time*. How four sweet musick is

When *time* is broke and no proportion kept.

You by the help of tune and *time*

Can make that song which was but rhyme. *Waller.*

They with th' harmonious spheres keep *time*.

Keep *time* with their own trumpet's measure, And yield them most excessive pleasure. *Prior.*

(2.) **TIME**, a succession of phenomena in the universe, or a mode of duration marked by certain periods or measures, chiefly by the motion and revolution of the sun. The general idea which *time* gives in every thing to which it is applied, is that of limited duration. Thus we cannot say of the Deity, that he exists in *time*; because eternity, which he inhabits, is absolutely uniform, neither admitting limitation nor succession. See METAPHYSICS, *Self.* XIII. XV. and XXXV.; and NEWTONIAN PHILOSOPHY, *Self.* III. *Schol.* I.

(3.) **TIME**, in music, is an affection of sound, by which it is said to be long or short, with regard to its continuance in the same tone or degree of tune. Musical *time* is distinguished into common or *duple* *time*, and *triple* *time*.

i. **TIME**, COMMON, } or *Duple*, is when the

i. **TIME**, DOUBLE, } notes are in a *duple* duration of each other, viz. a semibreve equal to two minims, a minim to two crotchets, a crotchet to two quavers, &c. It is of two kinds. The first when every bar or measure is equal to a semibreve, or its value in any combination of notes of a less quantity. The *2d* is where every bar is equal to a minim, or its value in less notes. The movements of this kind of measure are various, but there are 3 common distinctions: the first *slow*, denoted at the beginning of the line by the mark

C; the *2d* *brisk*, marked thus C; and the *3d* *very brisk*, thus marked D.

ii. **TIME** TRIPLE is when the durations of the notes are triple of each other; that is, when the semibreve is equal to three minims, the minim to three crotchets, &c. and it is marked T.

* **TO TIME**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To adapt to the *time*; to bring or do at a proper *time*. *Time* all the beginnings and onsets of things. *Bacon.*—Congruous *timings* give them due weight. *Hammond.*—The *timing* of things is a main point. *L'Estrange.*

Mercy is good, but kings mistake its *timing*.

—Conviction should be strong, and well *timed*.

Addison. 2. To regulate as to *time*.—

Who overlook'd the oars, and *tim'd* the stroke.

3. To measure harmonically.—

He was a thing of blood, whose every motion Was *tim'd* with dying cries.

* **TIMEFUL**. *adj.* [*time* and *full*.] Seasonable;

timely; early.—He interrupts all offer of *timeful* return towards God. *Raleigh.*

(1.) **TIME-KEEPER**. *n. f.* [*time* and *keeper*.] See CLOCK, DIAL, HOROLOGIUM, WATCH, &c.

(2.) **TIME-KEEPER**, HARRISON'S. See HARRISON and LONGITUDE.

(3.) **TIME-KEEPER**, RITTENHOUSE'S IMPROVEMENT OF **THE**. The following remarks on the improvement of *time-keepers*, by David Rittenhouse, LL.D. late President of the American Philosophical Society, are extracted from their *Transactions*. "The invention and construction of *time-keepers*, may be reckoned among the most successful exertions of human genius. Pendulum clocks especially have been made to measure *time* with astonishing accuracy. The least and least of the causes of inequality, worthy of notice, is that arising from *unequal density* of the air, which by varying the actual weight of the pendulum, will accelerate or retard its motion. The effects arising from this cause will be found very small: for if we suppose the greatest range of the barometer to be three inches, which indicates a change of density in the air of above one-10th of the whole; and supposing lead, of which pendulums are generally made, to be 8,200 times heavier than air, the variations of the actual weight of a pendulum may be one 88,000th part of its whole weight, and consequently the change of its rate of going one 176,000th part. And, as there are 86,400 seconds in a day, the clock may vary in its rate of going, from this cause, about $\frac{1}{2}$ a second in 24 hours. The barometer seems to point out a remedy for this cause of irregularity by means of that instrument. But my design is to describe a very different and extremely simple method, which, though only a matter of curiosity at present, may at some future *time* be found useful; especially as the variation above mentioned is governed solely by the actual density of the surrounding air, and the barometer can only give the weight of any entire column, which does not strictly correspond with the density of its base; whereas the method I propose depends on the *real density* of the air surrounding the pendulum, and nothing else. Let AB (*Plate CCCXXXIX.*) be a pendulum vibrating on the point A, and removed from the perpendicular line DE. Let the inflexible rod be continued from BA to C, and let a body C, of equal dimensions with the pendulum B, but as hollow and light as possible, be fixed on the rod, making AC equal to AB. Now it is evident that B will be pressed up-

wards by a force equal to the weight of its bulk in air, and its descent retarded. But the body C will be equally pressed upwards, and consequently the motion of the pendulum towards the perpendicular will be as much accelerated. These two forces therefore will destroy each other, and the pendulum will perform its vibrations in equal times, whether the air be light or heavy, dense or rare. I have for greater perspicuity described the most simple case, but perhaps not the most eligible; for if we can enlarge the vessel or body C in any proportion, the distance of its centre from A may be diminished at the same rate. However plausible the above may appear in theory, no doubt difficulties will occur when we attempt to reduce it into practice. But I am persuaded they will not be found insuperable. The only experiment I have hitherto made on this subject has been merely to shew that a pendulum can be made in this manner which shall vibrate quicker in a dense medium than in one more rare, contrary to what takes place with common pendulums. I made a compound pendulum on the principles above mentioned, of about one foot in its whole length. This pendulum on many trials, made in the air 37 vibrations in a minute. On immersing the whole in water, it made 59 vibrations in the same time, showing evidently that its motion was quicker in so dense a medium as water than in the air. When the lower bob, or pendulum only was plunged in water, it made no more than 44 vibrations in a minute; the remaining 15 being solely the effect of the pressure of the water against the upper vessel C."

* **TIMELESS.** *adj.* [from *time*.] 1. Unseasonable; done at an improper time.—

Nor fits it to prolong the heav'nly feast

Timeless, indecent, but retire to rest. *Pope.*

2. Untimely; immature; done before the proper time.—

A pack of sorrows, which would press you down,

If unprevented, to your *timeless* grave. *Shak.*

The bloody office of his *timeless* end. *Shak.*

TIMELFIOERD, a bay of the North Sea, on the coast of Norway, 32 miles W. of Romsdal.

(1.) * **TIMELY.** *adj.* [from *time*.] Seasonable; sufficiently early.—

Now spur the lated traveller apace

To gain the *timely* inn. *Shak.*

Happy were I in my *timely* death. *Shak.*

His *timely* care

Hath unbefought provided. *Milton.*

Ill show my duty by my *timely* care. *Dryden.*

(2.) * **TIMELY.** *adv.* [from *time*.] Early; soon.

The beds i' th' east are soft, and thanks to you,

That call'd me *timelier* than my purpose hither. *Shak.*

Sent to forewarn

Us *timely* of what else might be our loss. *Milt.*

Timely advis'd, the coming evil shun. *Prior.*

TIMENS, a town of Norway, in the prov. of Christianland, 15 miles S. of Stavenger.

* **TIMEPLEASER.** *n.s.* [time and please.] One who complies with prevailing opinions whatever they be.—

Timepleasers, flatterers, foes to nobleness. *Sbat.*

TIMERYCOTTA, a town and fortress in the Decan of Hindoostan, in the province of Golconda, 64 miles SE. of Hyderabad, 95 W. of Masulipatam. Lon. 79. 26. E. Lat. 15. 20. N.

* **TIMESERVING.** *n.s.* [time and serve.] Mean compliance with present power.—Trimming and *timeserving* are but two words for the same thing. *South.*

TIMESIUS, a native of Clazomenæ, who founded ABDERA. *Herodot.* i. 168.

TIMESQUE, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Darah, 30 miles S. of Taflet.

TIME-TABLE. See *MUSIC*, § 45.

TIM-HAM, a town of China, in Petcheli.

TIMI, a town of Nepal. See *NEPAL*.

* **TIMID.** *adj.* [timide, French; timidus, Lat.] Fearful; timorous; wanting courage; wanting boldness.—

Poor is the triumph o'er the *timid* hare. *Thomson.*

* **TIMIDITY.** *n.s.* [timidité, Fr. timiditas, Lat. from *timid*.] Fearfulness; timorousness; habitual cowardice.—The hare figured *timidity* from his temper. *Brown.*

TIMMISHAMAIN, a lake of Canada.

TIMOAN, an island in the E. Indian Sea, inhabited by Malays, where European ships obtain wood and water. The anchorage is good all round it. Lon. 104. 25. E. Lat. 1. 58. N.

TIMOCHARES, a celebrated astronomer of Alexandria, who flourished about A. A. C. 294. He and Aristillus attempted to determine the places of the stars, and to trace the course of the planets.

TIMOCLEA, a Theban lady, sister of Theagenes, who was killed at Cheronea. One of Alexander's soldiers attempting to ravish her, when under pretence of showing him a treasure hid in a draw well, she tumbled him into it. Alexander commended her virtue, and prohibited his soldiers from hurting the Theban ladies. *Plut.*

TIMOCREON, a comic poet of Rhodes, who gained prizes at Olympia; about 476 B. C.

TIMOK, a river of Servia, which rises in mount Hæmus, and runs into the Danube.

TIMOLEON, a celebrated Corinthian general, who restored the Syracusans to their liberty, and drove the Carthaginians out of Sicily. See *SYRACUSE*, § 11, 12.

(1.) **TIMON**, the *Misanthrope*, or the *Man-hater*, a famous Athenian, who lived about 420 B. C. We have many sayings of his spleen recorded, but no facts of his life.

(2.) **TIMON** the *Septic*, was a Phliasian, a disciple of Pyrrho, and lived in the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus. He took little pains to invite disciples to his school. He was fond of rural retirement; and was much addicted to wine. The fragments of his satirical poem *Silli*, are in the *Pœsis Philosophica* of Stephens. Timon lived to the age of 90.

TIMONCHIO, a river of Maritime Austria, in Vicenza, which runs into the Baglione.

TIMONEERS. *n.s. plur.* See *STEERING*.

TIMONVILLE, a town of France, in the dep.

of the Mofelle; 9 miles W. of Morhange, and 12 SE. of Metz.

TIMOO, a district of Savu. See SAVU.

TIMOPHEEVA, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi, on the Ilim; 32 miles NW. of Verchomanik.

(1.) **TIMOR**, the god of Fear. See FEAR and FAVOR.

(2.) **TIMOR**, in geography, an island of Asia, in the E. Indian sea, S. of the Moluccas, and E. of Java, 150 miles long, and 37 broad. It abounds in sandal wood, wax, and honey; and the Dutch have a fort in it.

(3.) **TIMOR**, one of the **MOIUCCA** isles.

TIMORLAND, an island in the Indian Ocean, between Timor and New Guinea. Lon. of the S. point 135. 54. E. Lat. 8. 15. S.

* **TIMOROUS**. *adj.* [*timor*, Latin.] Fearful; full of fear and scruple.—*Timorous* beliefs will never try it. *Brown*.—

The infant flames, whilst yet they were concealed

In *tim'rous* doubts, with pity I beheld. *Prior*.

* **TIMOROUSLY**. *adv.* [from *timorous*.] Fearfully; with such fear.

We would have had you heard

The traitor speak, and *tim'rously* confess. *Shak*.

—They but *timorously* ventured on term. *Locke*.—

Let dastard souls be *timorously* wise. *A. Phil*.

* **TIMOROUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *timorous*.] Fearfulness.—The clergy, through the *timorousness* of many among them, were refused to be heard. *Swift*.

TIMOTHEUS, one of the most celebrated poet-musicians of antiquity, was born at Miletus, an Ionian city of Caria, 346 years B. C. He was contemporary with Philip II. of Macedon and Euripides; and not only excelled in lyric and dithyrambic poetry, but in his performance upon the cithara. Pausanias says, he perfected that instrument by the addition of 4 new strings to the 7 it had before; but Suidas says it had 9 before, and that Timotheus only added two. See LYRE, § 3. A *senatus consultum* is preserved at full length in Boethius, whereby the kings and the ephori of Sparta passed censure on Timotheus for adding these strings; and obliged him to cut them all, leaving only 7 tones; and banished him from the city. Suidas attributes to him 19 nomes, or canticles, in hexameters; 36 proems, or preludes; 18 dithyrambics; 21 hymns; the poem in praise of Diana; one panegyric; three tragedies, the Persians, Phinidas, and Laertes; to which must be added, *Niobe*, and a poem on the birth of Bacchus. Stephen of Byzantium makes him author of 18 books of nomes, or airs, for the cithara, to 3000 verses, and of 1000 *Προίμια*, or preludes, for the nomes of the flutes. Timotheus died in Macedonia, according to Suidas, aged 97; though the Marbles say at 90; and Stephen of Byzantium fixes his death in the 4th year of the 105th Olympiad, two years before the birth of Alexander the Great; whence it appears, that this Timotheus was not the famous player on the flute so much esteemed by that prince, and of whom we have no authentic account.

(2.) **TIMOTHEUS**, or } an eminent evangelist of

(1.) **TIMOTHY**, } the apostolic age, born at Lystra, in Asia. His father was a Greek, but

his mother *Eunice* and his grand-mother *Lois*, were Jewesses, and educated him in the true religion. He became an early convert, and a great favourite of St Paul; whom he accompanied to Philippi, Thessalonica, and Berea. The Episcopalian and Papists say he was the first *bishop* of Ephesus; but this is contested by the Presbyterians. See SCOTLAND, § 96. He was stoned to death A. D. 97.

(2, 3.) **TIMOTHY**, FIRST and SECOND EPISTLES TO, 2 canonical books of the New Testament, written by St Paul. See SCRIPTURE, Sec. X.

(4.) **TIMOTHY**, or } in botany. See RURAL
TIMOTHY GRASS, } ECONOMY, Part I. Sec. VI.

TIMOU, a town of Tibet, 25 m. SE. of Lassa.

* **TIMOUS**. *adj.* [from *time*.] Early; timely; not innate. Obsolete.—By a wife and *timous* inquisition. *Bacon*.

TIMOXENA, the wife of Plutarch.

TIMUR REG. See TAMERLANE.

(1.) * **TIN**. *n. f.* [*ten*, Dutch.] 1. One of the primitive metals called by the chemists *Jupiter*.—Quicksilver, lead, iron, and *tin*, have opacity or blackness. *Peacocks* on *blazoning*.—*Tin* ore sometimes holds about one sixth of *ith*. *Woodward*. 2. Thin plates of iron covered with tin.

(2.) **TIN**, one of the 12 METALS. See METALLURGY, Part I. Sec. I. Part II. Sec. VII. Part III. Sec. VIII.; and MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. VII. Ord. VII. Gen. I. and II. Part III. Chap. IV. § VII. and Chap. V. § 7.

(3.) **TIN**, CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF. See CHEMISTRY, Index.

(4.) **TIN**, MEDICAL PROPERTIES OF. See MEDICINE, Index.

(5.) **TIN**, ORES OF. See METALLURGY, and MINERALOGY, as above.

(6.) **TIN**, POISONOUS QUALITY OF. See POISON, § 7.

(7.) **TIN**, TRADE IN. An advantageous commerce has been lately opened between Cornwall and the East Indies and China. In 1791 about 3000 tons of tin were raised in Cornwall; of which 2200 tons were sold in the European market for L. 72 each, and 800 tons carried to India and China at L. 62 per ton. See CORNWALL.

* *To TIN*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover with tin.—A plate of iron *tinned* over. *Boyle*.—It may be *tinned* by nailing single plates of tin over it. *Mortimer*.—New *tinning* a saucepan is chargeable. *Swift*.

(1.) **TINA**, a town of European Turkey, in Bosnia, seated on the Tis; 37 miles NW of Spalatro. Lon. 17. 9. E. Lat. 44. 28. N.

(2.) **TINA**, an island in the Grecian Archipelago, anciently called **TINOS**: one of the CYCLADES, on the W. of Nicaria; 17 miles long, and 8 broad. It is defended by a fort seated on a rock. It is a bishop's see of the Roman church, though there are also 200 Greek priests. It has about 5000 troops. The chief commodity is silk: about 16,000 lb. are produced annually; and they make silk stockings and gloves, which are universally admired. St NICOLÒ is the capital. Lon. 25. 24. E. Lat. 37. 30. N.

TIN-BEATER, *n. f.* one who beats tin into thin plates. See BEATER, § 2.

(1.)

(1.) * **TINCAL.** *n. f.* A mineral.—The *tincal* of the Persians seems to be the chrysocholla of the ancients, and what our borax is made of. *Woodw.*

(2.) **TINCAL**, the name by which crude or impure borax is called. See **BORAX** and **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

TINCHEBRAY, a town of France, in the dep. of Orme, memorable for the defeat of Robert, D. of Normandy, in 1103, by his brother Henry I. of England, who put out his eyes, and kept him prisoner for life thereafter. (See **ENGLAND**, § 21.) It is 10½ miles N. of Domfront, and 22 W. of Falaise.

TINCO, a town of Spain, in Asturia; 20 miles NW. of Oviedo.

* **TINCT.** *n. f.* [from the verb:] Colour; stain; spot.—

That great med'cine hath

With his *tint* bedd' thee. *Shak.*

—The first scent of a vessel last, and the *tint* the wool first appears of. *Ben Jonson*.—

Of ev'ning *tint*

The purple streaming amethyst is thine. *Thomf.*

* To **TINCT**, *v. a.* [*tinctus*, Latin; *teint*, Fr.]

1. To stain; to colour; to spot; to die.—A small quantity of saffron will *tint* *Bacon*.—Some were *tinted* blue. *Brown*.—I distilled some of the *tinted* liquor. *Boyle*.—They would not suffer the whiter parts of the soul to be *tinted* by the reflection of one sin. *Decay of Piety*. 2. To imbue with a taste.—We have artificial wells made in imitation of the natural, as *tinted* upon vitriol, sulphur, and steel. *Bacon*.

(1.) * **TINCTURE.** *n. f.* [*teinture*, Fr. *tinctura*, from *tinctus*, Lat.] 1. Colour or taste superadded by something.—An insensible passage from bright colours to dimmer. Italian artisans call the middle *tinctures*. *Wotton*.

By *tincture* or reflection they augment. *Milt.*

It takes a *tincture*

From every channel. *Denham*.

—Like a coloured glass casts its own colour and *tincture* upon all images. *South*.—To begin the practice of an art with a light *tincture* of the rules, is to expose ourselves to the scorn of those who are judges. *Dryden*.—Malignant tempers will discover their natural *tincture* of mind. *Addison*.—Few have an early *tincture* of religion. *Addison*.—

O! give each future morn a *tincture* of thy white. *Prior*.

All manners take a *tincture* from our own. *Pope*.

—It will give a sovereign *tincture* to all your studies. *Watts*. 2. Extract of some drug made in spirits.—In *tinctures* drawn from vegetables, the superfluous spirit of wine distilled off leaves the extract of the vegetable. *Boyle*.

(2.) **TINCTURES**, in pharmacy. See **PHARMACY**, *Index*.

* To **TINCTURE.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To imbue or impregnate with some colour or taste.

He *tinctures* rubies with their rosy hue. *Blackm.*—A little black paint will *tincture* twenty gay colours. *Watts*. 2. To imbue the mind.—Early were our minds *tinctured* with a sense of good and evil. *Atterbury*.

* To **TIND.** *v. a.* [*tendgan*, Gothic; *tendan*, Saxon.] To kindle; to set on fire.

TINDA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Woolly.

TINDAL, Dr Matthew, a famous English writer, the son of the rev. John Tindal of Beer-Ferres in Devonshire, born about 1657. He studied at Lincoln college, Oxford, and was afterwards elected fellow of All-Souls. In 1683, he took the degree of LL.D. and in the reign of James II. declared himself a Roman Catholic; but soon renounced that religion. After the revolution he published several pamphlets in favour of government, the liberty of the press, &c. His *Rights of the Christian Church asserted*, occasioned his having a violent contest with the high-church clergy; and his treatise *Christianity as old as the Creation*, published in 1730, made much noise, and was answered by several writers, particularly by Dr Conybeare, Mr Forster, and Dr Leland. Dr Tindal died at London in August 1733. He left in MS. a second volume of his *Christianity as old as the Creation*; the preface to which has been published.

TINDALE, William. See **TYNDALE**.

* **TINDER.** *n. f.* [*tyndra*, *tendre*, Saxon.] Any thing eminently inflammable placed to catch fire.

Strike on the *tinder*, ho! *Shak.*

—Adding, as it were, fire to *tinder*. *Hakewill*.—

Where sparks and fire do meet with *tinder*.

Suckling.

Because Irish linen will soon turn to *tinder*.

Swift.

* **TINDERBOX.** *n. f.* [*tinder* and *box*.] The box for holding *tinder*.—

The *tinderbox* of all his fellows. *Hudibras*.

—Making lanterns and *tinderboxes*. *Atterbury*.

(1.) * **TINE.** *n. f.* [*tinne*, Islandick.] 1. The tooth of a harrow; the spike of a fork.—They destroy moles by traps that fall on them, and strike sharp *tines* or teeth through them. *Mort*. 2. Trouble; distress.—

In funeral complaints and wailful *tine*. *Spens.*

(2.) **TINE**, in geography. See **TYNE**.

(1.) * To **TINE.** *v. a.* [*tynan*, Saxon.] 1. To kindle; to light; to set on fire.—

Coals of contention and hot vengeance *tind*.

Spenser.

Tine the flant lightning.

Milton.

The priest with holy hands was seen to *tine*

The cloven wood, and pour the ruddy wine.

Dryden.

(2.) * To **TINE.** *v. n.* 1. To rage; to smart.

Spenser. 2. To fight.—

Eden stain'd with blood of many a band

Of Scots and English both, that *tined* on his

strand.

Spenser.

TINEA, a river of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late Piedmontese; which rises in the Alps, and runs into the Var, 12 miles N. of Nice.

TINEH, a town of Egypt, 65 miles N. of Suez, and 85 NNE. of Cairo.

TINELLI, Tiberius, an eminent historical and portrait painter, born at Venice in 1586. Lewis XII. conferred on him the order of St Michael. He died in 1638.

TINEMOUTH, or rather **TYNEMOUTH**, a seaport town of England, in Northumberland, seated at the mouth of the **TYNE**, 9 miles E. of Newcastle. It has a castle on a very high rock, which

which is inaccessible on the sea side, and is well mounted with cannon. There is a bar across the mouth of the Tyne, which is not above 7 feet deep at low water. There are also dangerous rocks about it, called the *Black Middins*. But to guide ships into the harbour by night, there are light-houses erected, and maintained by the Trinity House at Newcastle. Here ships take in their loadings of coals and other articles from Newcastle. It has also salt works. It lies 280 miles N. of London. Lon. $0. 16. W.$ Lat. $55. 6. N.$

TINENTO, an island near the coast of Genoa, at the entrance of the Gulf of Spezia; 8 miles S. of Spezia.

TINEVELLY. See **PALAMCOTTA**.

TINFEDA, a town of Africa, in Biledulgerid.

TING, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in the prov. of Pe-tcheli, on the Tam, 107 miles SW. of Peking.

TINGAU, a town of Suabia; 7 miles NE. of Kempten.

TING-CHAN, a town of Aña, in Corea.

* **To TINGE**. *v. a.* [*tingo*, Lat.] To impregnate or imbue with a colour or taste.—His virtues are *tinged* by a certain extravagance. *Addison*.—Capable of being *tinged* with any colour whatever. *Newton*.—If the eye be *tinged* with any colour, as in the jaundice, so as to *tinge* pictures in the bottom of the eye with that colour, all objects appear *tinged* with the same colour. *Newton*.—

To tinge the chyle's insipid tide. *Prior*.
—The infusions of rhubarb and saffron *tinge* the urine with a high yellow. *Arbutnot*.

* **TINGENT**. *adj.* [*tingens*, Lat.] Having the power to tinge.—It has less the *tingent* property. *Boyle*.

TINGIANI, or **TINGLIANOS**, a people of Manilla, who live a very savage life, yet they are very brave, humane, and courteous. See **MANILLA**, N^o 1.

TINGIS, an ancient sea-port town of Mauritania Tingitana, said to have been built by the giant ANTEUS. Sertorius the Roman general took it, and Plutarch says he opened the tomb of the founder, and found in it a skeleton 60 cubits long. It is now called **TANGIER**.

TINGITANA, in ancient geography, a district of MAURITANIA, which comprehended a considerable part of Fez and Morocco. It was so named from TINGIS its capital.

(1.) * **TINGLASS**. *n. f.* [*tin* and *glass*]. Bismuth.
(2.) **TINGLASS**, and all such names for metals as convey a false idea are now obsolete. See **BISMUTH**; **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*, at **BISMUTH**; and **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. VII. Cl. IV. Ord. XII. Gen. I.—III. Part III. Chap. IV. § 12. and Ch. V. § 12.

* **To TINGLE**. *v. n.* [*tingelen*, Dutch.] 1. To feel a sound, or the continuance of a sound, in the ears. This is perhaps rather *tinkle*.—The ears of them that hear it shall *tingle*. *Bible*.—When our ear *tingleth*. *Brown*. 2. To feel a sharp quick pain with a sensation of motion.—

The pale boy senator yet *tingling* stands. *Pope*.
3. To feel either pain or pleasure with a sensation of motion.—The sense of this word is not very well ascertained.—

They suck pollution through their *tingling* veins. *Tichel*.

—In a palsy, sometimes the sensation or feeling is either totally abolished, or dull with a sense of *tingling*. *Arbutnot*.

TINGLIANOS. See **MANILLA**, N^o 1; and **TINGIANI**.

TINGO, a river of Italy, in the duchy of Ancona; which runs into the Adriatic, 3 miles N. of Fermo.

TINGRI, a town of Tibet, 114 miles S. of Zuetrye.

TINGTCHEOU, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in Fo-kien; 870 miles S. of Peking.

TINGWALL, **WEISDALE**, and **WHITENESS**, 3 united parishes of Shetland, in Mainland; 20 miles long and 7 broad, but much intersected by small friths; so that no part is above 3 miles from the sea. The soil is fertile, but poorly manured. The chief harbours are **SCALLOWAY** and **Laxforth**. The islands of **HAVERA**, **Oxna**, and **TRONDRAY**, &c. belong to this parish. The population, in 1797, was 1745; increase 329, since 1755. There are relics of Pictish houses and Romish chapels; and **Scalloway Castle**, built by Patrick Earl of Orkney, in 1601, is a fine ruin. Mr Scott of Scalloway has an elegant modern seat.

TINGWALLA, an island of Sweden, in Lake Wenner; on which the town of **CARLSTADT** is built.

TING-YUEN, 4 towns of China, of the 3d rank, in Kiang-nan, Kiang-si, Se-tchuen, and Yun-nan.

TINIA, a river of Italy, in Umbria, running into Clitumnus. *Strab.* 5. *Sil. Ital.* 8. 454.

TINIAN, one of the **MARIANA ISLANDS**; 12 miles long, 6 broad, and 40 in circumference. When visited by Lord Anson, in 1724, it had about 30,000 inhabitants, but has now none, the Spaniards having carried them all off to people their other islands. Lon. 146. 0. E. Lat. 15. 0. N.

TINIMA, a town of Cuba; 23 miles W. of Bahamo.

TININGBURG, a town of Hungary; 15 miles N. of Presburg.

TINISK, a town of Bohemia, in Koniggratz; 10 miles SE. of Koniggratz.

TINJULEEN, a town of Morocco, 103 miles SE. of Morocco.

* **To TINK**. *v. n.* [*tinnio*, Lat. *tincian*, Welsh.] To make a sharp shrill noise.

(1.) * **TINKER**. *n. f.* [from *tinke*, because their way of proclaiming their trade is to beat a kettle, or because in their work they make a tinkling noise.] A mender of old bras.—Am not I by profession a *tinker*. *Shak*.—

The coin may mend a *tinker's* kettle. *Prior*.
(2.) **TINKERS**, or **GYPSIES**. See **GYPSIES**.

* **To TINKLE**. *v. n.* [*tinter*, Fr. *tinnio*, Latin.] 1. To make a sharp quick noise; to clink.—They make a *tinkling* with their feet. *Isa*.—

A javelin faintly *tinkl'd* on the brazen shield. *Dryden*.

The sprightly horse
Moves to the musick of his *tinkling* bells. *Dodley*.
2. It seems to have been improperly used by *Pope*.—

The

- The grots that echo to the *sinkling* tills. *Pope*.
 3. To hear a low quick noise.—
 And his ears *tinkled*, and the colour fled.

Dryden.

* **TINMAN**. *n. f.* [*tin* and *man*.] A manufacturer of tin, or iron tinned over.—

Did'st thou never pop

Thy head into a *tinman's* shop.

Prior.

TINMOUTH, or **TYNEMOUTH**. See **TINMOUTH**.

* **TINNER**. *n. f.* [from *tin*; *tin*, Saxon.] One who works in the tin mines.—The Cornish men, many of them could for a need live under-ground that were *tinner*s. *Bacon*.

(1.) **TINNING**. *part. n. f.* the covering or lining of any thing with melted tin, or with tin reduced to very fine leaf. Looking-glasses are foliated or *tinned* with thin plates of beaten tin, by a process described under **FOLIATING**. Kettles, sauce-pans, and other kitchen utensils, which are usually made of copper, are tinned, if of new copper, should first be cleaned or scoured with salt and sulphuric acid diluted with water. This, however, is not always done; some workmen contenting themselves with scouring it with sand perfectly dry, or with scales of iron. Powdered rosin is then strewed over it; and when the vessel or utensil is considerably heated, melted tin is poured into it, and rubbed with flax coiled hard over the surface to be coated. This tin may be either pure, such as that known by the name of *grain tin*; or a composition consisting of two parts of tin and one of lead. For very obvious reasons, we should certainly prefer the pure tin; but the generality of workmen give the preference to the composition, because the surface coated with it appears more brilliant. The tin is not always put into the vessel in a liquid state; for some workmen drew it in small pieces over the surface to be coated, and then heat the vessel till the tin melt, when they rub it as formerly. In tinning old vessels which have been tinned before, the process is somewhat different. In these cases, the surface is first scraped with an instrument proper for the purpose, or scoured with the scales of iron, from a blacksmith's shop; it is then strewed over with sal ammoniac in powder, instead of rosin, or an infusion of sal ammoniac in stale urine is boiled in it till the urine be evaporated, and it is then tinned with pure tin; the composition of tin and lead being in this case never used. The tin, while liquid, is rubbed into the surface with a piece of sal ammoniac, instead of a bundle of flax. When iron vessels are to be tinned, they are first cleaned with muriatic acid, after which the process is the same as in the tinning of old copper.

(2.) **TINNING OF COPPER**. To prevent the poisonous effects of copper, culinary vessels made of that metal are usually covered with tin on the inside. In preparing them for this operation, the vessels are first scraped clean and bright. They are next rubbed with sal ammoniac, to clean them more completely. They are then heated and sprinkled with powdered rosin, which prevents the surface of the copper from being oxydized or calcined. The melted tin is then poured on, and spread about. It is however, justly complained,

that one *single* tinning of copper vessels is not sufficient to preserve them from the action of the air, moisture, and saline substances; because these vessels, even when well tinned, are observed to be liable to rust. This may be remedied by a thicker covering of tin. A manufacture of this kind was some years ago established at Edinburgh. The method is to make the surface of the copper very rough, upon a rough faced anvil, or by a machine contrived on purpose, and the tin put upon it in this state; after which the copper, with the tin on it, is hammered quite smooth. It was objected to this invention and *real improvement*, even by the celebrated Fourcroy himself, that the degree of heat, often superior to that of boiling water, to which such vessels are exposed, would melt the tin, and leave the copper uncovered. But this objection is void of foundation, for tin will not melt with any degree of heat while it is covered by water. To prevent every such consequence, some propose an alloy of silver or platinum; but the proposal is not necessary, and besides would prove too expensive for culinary vessels.—Vessels that are only lined with a *single* covering of tin require a *very small* quantity of that metal, a vessel of 9 inches diameter, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches deep, requiring no more than the surprising small quantity of 21 grains of tin to cover it perfectly. Only in using these vessels, care should be taken to allow no corrosive or solvent liquid to remain long in them after using; and when any particle of the tin begins to wear off, the vessel should be tinned all over *anew*, which will cost a mere trifle.

(1.) **TINNIS**, a very high mountain of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, in the parish of **CASTLE-TOWN**.

(2.) **TINNIS**, a river of Roxburghshire, which rises in the above mountain, and runs into the Liddel.

TINNITUS AURIUM, a noise in the ears like the continued sound of bells, very common in many disorders, particularly in nervous fevers.

* **TINNY**. *adj.* [from *tin*.] Abounding with tin.—Those arms of sea that thrust into the *tinny* strand. *Drayton*.

TINO, an island on the coast of Genoa, at the entrance of the Gulf of Spezia.

(1.) **TINOS**. See **TINA**, N° 2: This island, besides **ST NICOLO** and **TINOS** contains above 30 villages.

(2.) **TINOS**, a town in the island of Tina, reckoned its 2d capital.

* **TINPENNY**. *n. f.* A certain customary duty anciently paid to the tithingmen. *Bailey*.

TIN-PLATE. *n. f.* [*tin* and *plate*.] called in Scotland **WHITE-IRON**, is a thin plate of iron covered with tin, to which it is united by chemical affinity. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

TINSEDA, a town of Africa, in Dara.

* **TINSEL**. *n. f.* [*étincelle*, French.] 1. A kind of shining cloth.—

A *tinzel* vail her amber locks did shroud.

Fairfax.

—Cloth of gold and cuts, underborne with a bluish *tinzel*. *Shak.*—

By *Thetis'* *tinzel* slipper'd feet.

Milton.

2. Any thing shining with false lustre; any thing showy and of little value.—

* **TO TIN**—

Who can discern the *tinſel* from the gold?

Dryden.

—If the man will too curiouſly examine the ſuperficial *tinſel* good, he undeceives himſelf to his own coaſt. *Norris.*

No glittering *tinſel* of May fair. *Swift.*
Ye *tinſel* infects, whom a court maintains.

Pope.

* To *TINSEL*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To decorate with cheap ornaments; to adorn with luſtre that has no value.—

Scorns all her *tinſel'd* metaphors of pelf.

Cleaveland.

She, *tinſel'd* o'er in robes of varying hues.

Pope.

TINSHALY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow and province of Leinſter, 38 miles from Dublin.

* **TINT**. *n. f.* [*teinte*, Fr. *tinta*, Ital.] A dye; a colour.—

Or blend inauteous *tint* the colour'd maſs.

Pope.

Their vigour ſickens, and their *tints* decline.

Harte.

—Brilliancy of *tints*. *Reynolds.*

TINTA, a town of Peru, in Cuſco.

TINTENIAC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ille and Vilaine, 10½ miles SSE. of Dinan; and 20 S. of St Malo.

(1.) **TINTO**, [*Gaelic*, *i. e.* the hill of fire,] a high hill or rather ridge of hills, in Lanarkſhire, between the pariſhes of Carmichael and Symington, extending above two miles from E. to SW. Near the E. end of the ridge, there is a circular cairn, the top of which is 2351½ feet above the ſea level; and 1740 feet above that of the Clyde, which runs about a mile from its baſe. From its *Gaelic* name, the top had been uſed as a telegraphic watch tower.

(2.) **TINTO**, a river of Spain, in Seville, ſo named from its waters being *tinged* with a yellow colour. They have a petrifying quality. No fiſh live in it: nor will any quadrupeds drink except goats, whoſe fleſh acquires a better flavour. It retains theſe qualities till it paſſes Niebia, when by the influx of many rivulets, they are annihilated. It falls into the Atlantic at Huelva, and is navigable by large veſſels 9 miles above it.

TINTORETTO, James Robuſti, a celebrated painter, born at Venice, in 1512. He was the diſciple of Titian, who, fearing he would become a powerful rival, diſmiſſed him. His ſon and daughter were alſo good artiſts. He died in 1594.

TINWALD, a pariſh of Scotland, in Dumfriſſhire, united to that of **TRAILFLAT**, in 1650: the two forming a rectangular figure, 6 miles long, and 4 broad, lying on the E. bank of **LOCHER MOSS**, which ſeparates it from Dumfriſſhire, and watered by the river *Ar*. The greater part of the ſoil is arable; that on the S. is a rich dry loam, producing great crops of all kinds. A part of a great Roman road paſſes through it, from Brunſwick to Dunſcore. The population, in 1790, was 850; increaſe 55 ſince 1755.

* **TINWORM**. *n. f.* An infect. *Bailey.*

* **TINY**. *adj.* [*tint*, *tynd*, Daniſh.] Little; ſmall;

VOL. XXII. PART II.

puny, A burleſque word.—Any pretty little *tiny* kickſhaws. *Shak.*

When that I was a little *tiny* boy. *Shak.*

Thy pigmy children, and thy *tiny* ſpouſe.

Swift.

TINZEDA, a town of Africa, in Biledulgerid, ſeated on a river ſo named, in a country fertile in dates, corn, barley, indigo, &c. Lon. 6. 13. W. Lat. 27. 30. N.

TINZUELA, a large and ſtrong town of Biledulgerid, ſeated on the Dras. Lon. 5. 43. W. Lat. 28. 15. N.

TION, a river of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont. Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy; which runs from the lake of Annecy to the Siera.

TIOOKEA, the name given by the natives to **KING GEORGE'S ISLANDS**.

TIORN, an iſland in the North Sea, near the W. coaſt of Sweden; 27 miles in circuit, containing 3 pariſhes, and abounding with good paſture.

* **TIP**. *n. f.* [*tip*, *tipken*, Dutch.] Top; end; point; extremity.—

The *tip* no jewel needs to wear,

The *tip* is jewel of the ear.

Sidney.

—They touch the beard with the *tip* of their tongue, and wet it. *Bacon.*

Thrice upon thy fingers *tip*.

Milton.

—All the pleaſure dwells upon the *tip* of his tongue. *South.*—Thirty clandestine marriages that have not been touched by the *tip* of the tongue.

Addiſon.—Fine *tip* of an ear and pretty elbow.

Pope.
* To **TIP**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To top; to end; to cover on the end.—

In his hand a reed

Stood waving, *tipp'd* with fire.

Milton.

With truncheon *tipp'd* with iron head. *Hudib.*

Weigh the paws, when *tipp'd* with gold. *Add.*

Quartos, octavos ſhape the leſſ'ning pyre, And laſt a little Ajax *tips* the ſpire. *Pope.*

Tell how the moon-beam trembling falls,

And *tips* with ſilver all the walls. *Pope.*

Tips with jet.

Thomſon.

2. To ſtrike ſlightly; to tap.—

—She

Tips the wink before the cuckold's face.

Dryden.

—The jackanapes *tipped* me the wink. *Tatler.*
A third rogue *tips* me by the elbow. *Swift.*

Then *tips* their forehead in a jeer,

As who ſhould ſay, ſhe wants it here. *Swift.*

Tipping him with half a crown. *Swift.*

TIPA. *n. f.* the viceroy, deputy, or prime miniſter of the Grand Lama of Tartary, who manages all his ſecular buſineſs. See **LAMA**, N^o 1; and **TIBET**, § 9.

TIPERA. See **TIPRA**.

TIPHA, an ancient town of Boeotia, now called Teſſ. See **TEFF**.

(1.) **TIPHSAH**, a city of Iſrael, in the W. of Ephraim, near Tirzah, and 6 miles from Samaria. It was deſtroyed by Menahem, and the people maſſacred.

(2.) **TIPHSAH**, a city of Syria, on the Euphrates; E. of Syria, and 600 miles NW. of Babylon. It was the NE. border of Solomon's dominions.

D d d

TIPING,

TIPING, a town of Asia, in Corea; 25 miles SE. of Kingkitao.

(1.) **TIPPERARY**, a county of Ireland in the prov. of Munster, bounded on the W. by those of Fimerick and Clare, on the E. by Kilkenny and Queen's County, S. by Waterford, and NNE. by King's county and the territory of the ancient O'Carols. It extends about 42 miles in length, and 27 in breadth, containing 599,500 acres, divided into 12 baronies, in which are several market-towns and boroughs. It sends 2 members to parliament. The N. part of it is mountainous and cold; but in the south the air is milder, and the soil much more fertile, producing plenty of corn, and good pasture for the numerous herds of cattle and flocks of sheep with which it abounds. The N. part is called **ORMOND**. A district in this county was anciently called the *County of the Holy Cross of Tipperary*, from a famous abbey in it styled *Holy Cross*, on account of a piece of Christ's cross that was said to be preserved there. This abbey and district enjoyed also special privileges in former times. The remains of the abbey, or rather the spot where it stood, are still held in great veneration, and much resorted to by the Roman Catholics.

(2.) **TIPERARY**, the capital of the above county, lies 20 miles SE. of Limerick, and 9. W. of Cahel.

* **TIPPET**. *n. f.* [*tappet*; Sax.] Something worn about the neck.—He had a *tippet* of fine linen. *Bacon*.

* **TIPPLE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Drink; liquor.—While the *tipple* was paid for, all went merrily on. *L'Estrange*.

(1.) * **TIPPLE**. *v. a.* To drink in luxury or excess.—

He *tipples* palmestry, and dines
On all her fortune telling lines. *Cleveland.*
A peel'd sic'd onion eats, and *tipples* verjuice. *Dryden*.

Thoughtful of drink, and eager in a dream,
Tipples imaginary pots of ale. *Philips*.

(2.) * **To TIPPLE**. *v. n.* [*tepl*. a dug, old Teutonic.] To drink luxuriously; to waste life over the cup.—

Let us grant it is not amiss to sit,
And keep the turn of *tippling* with a slave. *Shak.*

* **TIPPLED**. *adj.* [from *tipple*.] Tipsy; drunk. *Half tipped* at a rainbow feast. *Dryden*.

* **TIPPLER**. *n. f.* [from *tipple*.] A sottish drunkard; an idle drunken fellow.

TIPPOO, or **TIPPOO SAIB**, a celebrated Indian prince, the son of Hyder Ali, and like his father, a great opponent of the British interest in Hindoostan, was born about 1749. He was taught several of the European languages, and was very fond of writing. During the life of his father, he was universally esteemed, but after his accession to the throne, is said to have become capricious and even cruel. Of his death, and the partition of his dominions, an account is given under the article **INDIA**, § 29.

(1.) **TIPRA**, or **TIPERA**, a kingdom consisting of a mountainous district of Hindoostan, seated on the E. of Bengal, on the borders of Meckley. The people were formerly independent, but afterwards became subject to Aracan. They are

afflicted with the *gaitre*. They are of very singular manners, but most horribly savage and barbarous.

(2, 3.) **TIPRA**, a town and river in the above kingdom. Lon. 110. 0 E. Ferro. Lat. 24. 20. N.

TIPSA, a town of Africa, in Algiers; 75 miles SE. of Constantina.

(1.) * **TIPSTAFF**. *n. f.* [*tip* and *staff*.] 1. An officer with a staff tipped with metal. 2. The staff itself so tipped.—One held in his hand a *tipstaff* of a yellow cane, tipped at both ends with blue. *Bacon*.

(2.) The **TIPSTAFF** is an officer who attends the judges with a kind of staff *tipped* with silver, and takes into his charge all prisoners who are committed or turned over at the judge's chambers.

* **TIPSY**. *adj.* [from *tipple*.] Drunk; overpowered with excess of drink.—

The riot of the *tipsy* bacchanals. *Shak.*
Tipsy dance and jollity. *Milton*.

* **TIP-TOE**. *n. f.* [*tip* and *toe*.] The end of the toe.—

Upon his *tiptoes* stalketh stately by. *Spenser*.
He that outlives this day, and comes safe home,
Will stand a-*tiptoe* when this day is nam'd. *Shak.*

Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day
Stands *tiptoe* on the misty mountains tops. *Shak.*

Religion stands on *tiptoe* in our land. *Herbert*.
Ten ruddy wildings in the wood I found,
And stood on *tiptoes* from the ground. *Dryden*.

TIPULA, the CRANE-FLY; a genus of insects belonging to the order of *diptera*. The mouth is a prolongation of the head; the upper jaw is arched. They have two palpi, which are curved, and longer than the head. The proboscis is short, and bends inwards. Gmelin enumerates 123 species, of which 14 are British. They are divided into two families. 1. Those with wings displayed. 2. Those with wings incumbent, and which in form resemble a gnat. This two-winged insect is often taken for the gnat, which it resembles, but has not its mischievous instinct, nor its murderous proboscis. The larger *tipulæ* go by the name of *sempstresses*, the small ones by that of *culiciform*; the latter, in fine summer evenings flutter about the water side in legions. The grubs of the larger *tipulæ* dwell in holes of decayed willows, where they change into chrysalids, and in that state have the faculty of breathing through two small curve horns; besides which they are endowed with progressive motion, but not retrogressive, being impeded by little spines placed on every ring of the abdomen. The larvæ and chrysalids of the little *tipulæ* are found in water. They are various in colour, form, and carriage; some being grey, others brown, and others red; some, like the polypus, furnished with a pair of arms; several with cylindrical tubes that perform the office of vent holes. These swim with nimbleness; those never leave the holes they have dug for themselves in the banks of rivulets. Lastly, others make a silken cocoon that receives part of their body; but all of them, after a period, renounce their reptile and aquatic life, and get wings; their frame is then so weak, that a touch is enough to crush them. They are sometimes of a beautiful green, sometimes coal-black; and the most remarkable are those whose fore-legs, extra-ordinarily

ordinarily long, do not touch the ground, and are moveable like antennæ.

TIR, 2 towns of Persia: 1. in Chorasan, 21 miles NW. of Herat: 2. in Farfistan, 60 miles NE. of Schiras.

TIRABOSCHI, Jerome, a celebrated Italian writer, born at Bergamo, in 1731. He was a Jesuit, and became professor of Oratory at Milan, and librarian to the D. of Modena, who ennobled him. He wrote, 1. *Memoirs of the order of Hermilies*: 2. *History of the Writers of Modena*, in 6 vols. 4to. 3. *History of Italian Literature, from the age of Augustus*, 13 vols. 4to. He died in 1794.

TIRAGHT, an island in the Atlantic, near the W. coast of Ireland; 8 miles SW. of Dunmore Head.

TIRAMANYNUTOO, a river of Hindoostan, which runs into the Canvery, 8 m. N. of Carroor.

TIRAN, an island in the Red Sea. Lat. 27. 40. N.

TIRANO, a town of Italy on the Adda, in the ci-devant territory of the Valteline. It was wall'd by Lewis Sforza, as a defence against the Grisons, who however destroyed the fortifications and took it. Its chief trade is in silk and wine. It is 4 miles ENE. of Morbegno, and 18 W. of Bormio.

TIRAQUEAU, or ? Andrew, a French lawyer, **TIRAQUELLUS**, } of the 16th century. He was a counsellor in the parliament of Paris, and laboured much to banish chicanery from the law. He was much employed by Francis I. and Henry II. in important affairs, and approved himself a man of integrity. His works make 7 vols. folio. He died in 1574.

TIRAS, a son of Japhet, the founder of **THRACE**.

TIRBIA, a town of Spain in Catalonia; 14 miles NW. of Urgel.

(1.) * **TIRE**. *n. f.* [*tyr*, Dutch.] 1. Rank; row. Sometimes written *tire*.—Your lowest *tire* of ordnance must lie four foot clear above water, when all loading is in. *Raleigh*.

Stood rank'd of seraphim another row,
In posture to displode their second *tire*
Of thunder. *Milton*.

—In all those wars there were few triremes, most of them being of one *tire* of oars of fifty banks. *Arbutnot*. 2. Corrupted from *tiar* or *tiara*, or from *attire*.] A head-dress.—

On her head she wrote a *tire* of gold. *Spenser*.
If I had such a *tire*, this face of mine
Were full as lovely as this of hers. *Shak*.
A gloomy mantle of dark flame, the *tire*
That crowns his hated head on high, appears. *Craqueo*.

A hiss from all the snake *tire* went round. *Pope*.

3. Furniture; apparatus.—
Immediate sieges, and the *tire* of war
Rowl in thy eager mind. *Philips*.
—When they first peep forth of the ground, they shew their whole *tire* of leaves, then flowers, next seeds. *Woodward*.

(1.) **TIRE**, in the sea language, is a row of cannon placed along a ship's side, either above upon deck, or below, distinguished by the epithets of upper and lower *tires*.

(1.) * **To TIRE**. *v. a.* [*tirian*, Saxon.] 1. To fatigue; to make weary; to harass; to wear out with labour or tediousness.—

Tir'd with toil, all hopes of safety pass. *Dryd*.
To tell thee what a hundred tongues would *tire*. *Dryden*.

2. It has often *out* added to intend the signification.—Often a few *do tire out* a greater number. *Bacon*.—

Tir'd out, at length a spreading stream he spy'd. *Tickel*.

3. [From *attire* or *tire*, from *tiara*.] To dress the head.—Jezebel *tired* her head. 2 *Kings*, ix. 30.

(2.) * **To TIRE**. *v. n.* [*teorian*, Saxon.] To fail with weariness.

* **TIREDDNESS**. *n. f.* [from *tired*.] State of being tired; weariness.—It is not through the *tiredness* of the age of the earth, but through our own negligence that it hath not satisfied us bountifully. *Hakewill*.

TIREE. See **TIRY**.

TIREH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, on the Meander; 25 miles NE. of Scala Nova, and 31 SSE. of Smyrna.

TIRESIAS, a soothsayer of antiquity, was the son of Everes and Chariclo. Minerva, being accidentally seen by him as she was bathing, deprived him of his sight; but gave him afterwards superior endowments. Others say, that Juno struck him stone-blind for deciding a case between Jupiter and her, to her dissatisfaction; for which Jupiter gave him the faculty of divination: He was the most celebrated prophet in the Grecian annals. Ulysses was ordered by Circe to consult him in the shades.

* **TIREDSOME**. *adj.* [from *tire*.] Wearisome; fatiguing; tedious.—Inculcating precept upon precept proves *tiresome* to the reader. *Addison*.—Nothing is *so tiresome* as the works of dogmatick critics. *Addison*.

* **TIREDSOMENESS**. *n. f.* [from *tiresome*.] Affect or quality of being tiresome.

* **TIREWOMAN**. *n. f.* [*tire* and *woman*.] A woman whose business is to make dresses for the head.—Why should they not value themselves for this outside fashionableness of the *tirewoman's* making? *Locke*.

TIREYMEG, a lake of N. America. Lon. 107. o. W. Lat. 61. 51. N.

(1.) **TIRGUL**, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 62 miles W. of Jassy.

(2.) **TIRGUL FORMA**, another town of Turkish Moldavia; 20 miles W. of Jassy.

TIRHAKAH, a monarch of Ethiopia, an ally of Hezekiah king of Judah, who, to assist him, march'd against Sennacherib king of Assyria, but was defeated by him. 2 *Kings*, xix. 19.

TIRI. See **TIRY**.

TIRIDA, an ancient town of Thrace.

* **TIRINGHOUSE**. } *n. f.* [*tire* and *house*, or *room*.]
* **TIRINGROOM**. } The room in which players dress for the stage.—This green plot shall be our stage, this hawthorn brake our *tiringhouse*. *Shak*.

Man's life's a tragedy; his mother's womb,
From which he enters, is the *tiringroom*. *Wotton*.
TIRIPIN, a town of S. America, in Terra Firma; and province of Cumana.

TIRLEMONT, or **TILLEMONT**, a city of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, and late prov. of Austrian Brabant, seated on the Geete. In 1635 it was taken and sacked by the French and Dutch; in 1701 it was burnt. In 1792 the Austrians were defeated near it, and in 1793 the French. It lies 9 miles SE. of Louvain, and 24 WNW. of Liege.

TIRNAU, a town of Hungary, built in the 13th century, containing 9 churches, and 9 convents. In 1682, it was burnt by Count Tekely. It is 20 miles ENE. of Presburg, and 50 E. of Vienna.

TIRO, Tullius, a freed man of Cicero, highly esteemed by his master for his learning and other good qualities. He invented **STENOGRAPHY**, or that species of it used among the Romans called *Note*. (See *NOTÆ*.) He wrote *The Life of Cicero*. and other tracts now lost.

TIROL, or the } a county of Germany in the
TIROLESE, } empire of Austria, under which may be included the territories belonging to the bishops of Brizen, Trent, and Chur, Teutonic Order, and the prince of Dietrichstein, the Austrian feignories before the Arlberg, and the Austrian district in Suabia. It is 150 miles long, and 120 broad, and contains 28 large towns. The face of the country is very mountainous. Of these mountains, some have their tops always buried in snow; others are covered with woods, abounding with a variety of game; and others are rich in metals, and marble of all colours. Of the lower, some yield plenty of corn, others wine, and woods of chestnut trees. The valleys are also exceedingly fertile and pleasant. In some places considerable quantities of flax are raised, in others there is a good breed of horses and horned cattle; and, among the mountains, great numbers of chamois and wild goats. In this country are also found granates, rubies, amethysts, emeralds, a species of diamonds, agates, cornelians, chalcodones, malachites, &c. It has also hotbaths, acid waters, salt-pits, mines of silver, copper, and lead, mineral colours, alum, and vitriol. The principal river of Tirol is the Inn. (See *INN*, N° 2.) Tirol is divided into six quarters, namely, those of the Lower and Upper Innthal, Vintsgow, Etch, Eisack, and Pustertal.

TIRONIANÆ. See *NOTÆ*.

TIRSCHENRIED, a town of Bavaria, 12 miles E. of Kemnat, and 28 NNE. of Amberg.

TIRSHATHA, a title given to Zerubbabel, and Nehemiah. Some think it means *cup bearer*, but others, with more propriety say, it signifies *governor*. (Ezr. ii. 65. Neh. x. 1.) See *NEMUSIAH*.

TIRSNUM, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland; 3 miles S. of Linköping.

* **TIRWIT**. *n. f.* [*vanellus*, Latin.] A bird, *Linseforth*.

(1.) **TIRY**, **TIRI**, or **TIR-EE**, an island of Scotland, one of the Hebrides, belonging to Argyllshire; about 12 miles long, and near 2½ broad. The coast is intersected with many fine bays or harbours of considerable extent. About half of the surface is arable and interspersed with small rocks and rising grounds; none of which are more than 150 feet above the sea level; but the surface in general is quite level. There are 24

small lakes in the island, which cover about 600 acres. The soil of Tiry is various; black moor, sand, &c. but sand is most prevalent: the usual crops are barley, black oats, potatoes, and flint. The people are chiefly employed in the manufacture of kelp, to the extent of 245 tons a-year, and in the fisheries. The total population, in 1791, was 2416: the number of horses, 1400; sheep, 600; and black cattle, 1800. There is a regular ferry to Coll, 3 miles distant. Iron-stone, granite, lime-stone, whin-stone, and tuingin, have been found in it, also very fine marble. The D. of Argyll is proprietor.

(2.) **TIRY**, a parish of Scotland in Argyllshire, comprehending the islands of **TIRY**, **COLL**, and **GUNNA**, besides several uninhabited islands, containing in all about 25,000 acres. In 1791, the population was 3457; the increase 755, since 1755.

TIRYNTHUS, a town of Peloponnesus, in Argos, founded by **TIRYNX**. Hercules resided much in it. *Pauf.* ii. 16.

TIRYNX, a son of Argus, who founded **Tirynthus**.

TIRZAH, a city of Israel, in the country of Ephraim, remarkable for its beauty and elegance. It was destroyed by Menahem.

* **TIS**, contracted for *it is*.—

Tis destiny unshunnable. *Shak.*

TISÆUM, a mountain of Thessaly. *Pol.*

(1.) **TISAMENES**, a son of **ORISTES** and **Hermione** who succeeded to the thrones of Argos and Sparta, but was expelled by the Heraclidae, in the 3d year of his reign. He retired to Achaia, and was killed in a battle with the Ionians. *Pauf.* 3.

(2.) **TISAMENES**, K. of Thebes, the son of **Therfandes**, grandson of **Polynices**, and great-grandson of **Oedipus**.

TISDRA, a town of Africa. *Cæf. Afr.* 76.

TISHEEH, a city of Israel, in Gilead, the birth place of **Eljah**.

TISHBITES, the natives of **TISHBEH**.

TISHOLTZ, a town of Hungary; 10 miles ENE. of **Libeten**.

TISIARUS, an ancient town of Africa.

TISIAS, an ancient philosopher of Sicily, said to have been the inventor of rhetoric. *Cic. de Inv.* and *de Orat.* i. 18.

* **TISICAL**. *adj.* [for *pathifical*.] Consumptive.

* **TISICK**. *n. f.* [corrupted from *pathifick*.] Consumption; morbid waste.

TISIPHONE, in the mythology, daughter of **Acheron** and **Nox**, one of the 3 **FURIES**, who executed divine vengeance on the wicked in Tartarus. She was represented with a whip in her hand, and serpents instead of hair on her head.

TISQUIM, a lake of N. America. *Lon.* 95. 45. W. *Lat.* 56. 10. N.

TISRI, or **TIZRI**, in chronology, the first Hebrew month of the civil year, and the 7th of the ecclesiastical or sacred year. It answered to part of our September and October.

TISSA, an ancient town of Sicily, now called **RANDAZZO**. *Sil. Ital. Cic.*

TISSAPHERNES, a satrap of Persia. See *PERSIA*, § 12.

TISSOT, Dr, an eminent Swiss physician, the author of many useful works. He distinguished himself

himself early by writing in favour of *Inoculation*. He died in 1797.

* **TISSUE**. *n. f.* [*tissue*, Fr. *tisan*, to weave, Norman Saxon.] Cloth interwoven with gold and silver, or figured colours.—

In their glittering *tissues* emblaz'd
Holy memorials. Milton.

A robe of *tissue*, stiff with gold wire. Dryden.

* **To TISSUE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To interweave; to variegate.—The chariot was covered with cloth of gold *tissued* upon blue. *Bacon*.—They have been always frank of their blessings to countenance any great action; and then, according as it should prosper, to *tissue* upon it some pretence or other. Wotton.

With radiant feet the *tissued* clouds down
steering. Milton.

TISTE, a town of Germany in Verden; 20 m. NE. of Rottenburg.

* **TIT**. *n. f.* 1. A small horse: generally in contempt.—

No stabling of pasture with baggagely *tit*. Tupper.
Being as worthy to sit

On an ambling *tit*. Denham.

2. A woman: in contempt.—What does this envious *tit*. *L'Estrange*.—A willing *tit* that will venture her corps with you. Dryden.—

Short pains for thee, for me a son and heir.
Girls cost as many throes in bringing forth:

Beside, when born, the *tit*s are little worth. Dryd.

3. A *titmouse* or *tomtit*. [*parus*, Latin.] A bird.

TITÆA, in the mythology, the mother of the **TITANS**. Some confound her with **TERRA**, or **CYBELE**.

(1.) **TITAN**, in fabulous history, the son of **Cælus** and **Terra**, and the eldest brother of **Saturn**, suffered the latter to enjoy the crown, on condition that he should bring up none of his male issue, by which means the crown would at length revert to him; but Jupiter being spared by the address of **Rhea**, **Saturn's** wife, **Titan** and his children were so enraged at seeing their hopes frustrated, that they took up arms to revenge the injury; and not only defeated **Saturn**, but kept him and his wife prisoners till he was delivered by **Jupiter**, who defeated the **Titans**; when from the blood of these **Titans** slain in the battle, proceeded serpents, scorpions, and all venomous reptiles. See **SATURN**, and **MYTHOLOGY**, § 11.

(2.) **TITAN**, in modern geography, or **CABAROS**, an island of France, in the Mediterranean, one of the most eastern of the **HERES** Islands.

TITANIA, a title of **Pyrrha**, as grand-daughter of **Titan**; also of **Diana**. *Ovid*.

TITANIDES, the sons of **Titan**; the giants, who warred against the gods.

TITANIUM, *n. f.* one of the 22 metals, and one of the ten new ones lately discovered. See **METALLURGY**, Part I. Sect. I. For an account of the phenomena and properties of this new metal, with its ores, oxides, &c. and the method of analyzing them. See **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. VII. Ord. XX. Gen. I. Sp. 1—3. Part III. Chap. IV. § XX. and Chap. V. § 20.

* **TITBIT**. *n. f.* [properly *tidbit*; *tid*, tender, and *bit*.] Nice bit; nice food.—John pampered equire South with *titbits* till he grew wanton
Arbuthnot.

TITCHFIELD. See **TICHFIELD**.

TITCHIUM, a town of Russia, in Novgorodskoi on the Sias; 80 miles NNE. of Novgorod. Lon. 51. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 59. 32. N.

TITEROD, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus 38 miles N. of Christiania.

(1) * **TITHE**. *n. f.* [*teotha*, Saxon, tenth.] 1. The tenth part; the part assigned to the maintenance of the ministry.—They say, that it is pity the devil should have God's part, which is the *tithe*. *Bacon*.—

Sometimes comes she with a *tithe* pigs tail.

2. The tenth part of any thing.—The *tithe* of a hair was never lost in my house before. *Shak*.—

Since the first sword was drawn about this question,

Ev'ry *tithe* soul 'mongst many thousand dimes
Hath been as dear as Helen. Shakespeare.

3. Small part; small portion, unless it be misprinted for *titles*.—Wars for religion are seldom to be approved, unless they have some mixture of civil *tithe*s. *Bacon*.

(2.) **TITHES**, in ecclesiastical law, are defined to be the 10th part of the increase, yearly arising and renewing from the profits of lands, the stock upon lands, and the personal industry of the inhabitants: the first species being usually called *predial*, as of corn, grass, hops, and wood; the 2d *mixed*, as of wool, milk, pigs, &c. consisting of natural products, but nurtured and preserved in part by the care of man; and of these the 10th must be paid in gross; the 3d *personal*, as of manual occupations, trades, fisheries, and the like; and of these only the tenth-part of the clear gains and profits is due.

(3.) **TITHES**, HISTORY OF. We cannot ascertain the time when tithes were first introduced. The first mention of them in any written English law, is a constitutional decree, made in a synod held A. D. 786, wherein the payment of tithes in general is strongly enjoined. This decree, which at first bound not the laity, was effectually confirmed by two kingdoms of the heptarchy, in their parliamentary conventions of estates, respectively consisting of the kings of Mercia and Northumberland, the bishops, dukes, senators, and people. The next authentic mention of them is in the *saedus Edwardi et Guthruni*; or the laws agreed upon between king Guthrun the Dane, and Alfred and his son Edward the Elder, kings of England, about A. D. 900. There we find the payment of tithes enjoined, and a penalty added upon non-ob servance: which law is seconded by the laws of Athelstan, about A. D. 930. Upon their first introduction, though every man was obliged to pay tithes in general, yet he might give them to *what priests* he pleased; which were called *arbitrary consecrations of tithes*; or he might pay them into the hands of the bishop, who distributed among his diocesan clergy the revenues of the church, which were then in common. But when dioceses were divided into parishes, the tithes of each parish were allotted to its own particular minister; first by common consent or the appointments of lords of manors, and afterwards by the written law of the land. Arbitrary consecrations of tithes took place again afterwards, and were
in

in general use till the time of King John. But they were prohibited by Pope Innocent III. about A. D. 1209, in a decretal epistle sent to the Abp. This epistle, says Sir Edward Coke, bound not the lay subjects of this realm; but being reasonable and just, it was allowed of, and so became *lex terræ*.

(4.) **TITHES, LAWS RESPECTING.** Lands and their occupiers may be exempted from the payment of tithes, either in part or totally; first, by a real composition; or, 2d, by custom or prescription. 1. A real composition is when an agreement is made between the owner of the lands and the parson or vicar, with the consent of the ordinary and the patron, that such lands shall for the future be discharged from payment of tithes, by reason of some land or other real recompense given to the parson in lieu and satisfaction thereof. This was permitted by law, because it was supposed that the clergy would be no losers by such composition; since the consent of the ordinary, whose duty it is to take care of the church in general, and of the patron, whose interest it is to protect that particular church, were both made necessary to render the composition effectual: and hence have arisen all such compositions as exist at this day by force of the common law. But experience showing that even this caution was ineffectual, and the possessions of the church being by this and other means every day diminished, the disabling statute 13 Eliz. c. 10. was made; which prevents, among other spiritual persons, all parsons and vicars from making any conveyances of the estates of their churches, other than for three lives of 21 years. So that now, by this statute, no real composition made since the 13 Eliz. is good for any longer term than three lives of 21 years, though made by consent of the patron and ordinary: which has indeed effectually demolished this kind of traffic; such compositions being now rarely heard of, unless by authority of parliament. 11. A discharge by custom or prescription, is where time out of mind such persons or such lands have been either partially or totally discharged from the payment of tithes. And this immemorial usage is binding upon all parties; as it is in its nature an evidence of universal consent and acquiescence, and with reason supposes a real composition to have been formerly made. This custom or prescription is either *de modo decimandi*, or *de non decimando*. A *modus decimandi*, commonly called by the simple name of a *modus* only, is where there is by custom a particular manner of tithing allowed, different from the general law of taking tithes in kind, which are the actual tenth part of the annual increase. This is sometimes a pecuniary compensation, as twopence an acre for the tithe of land; sometimes it is a compensation in work and labour, as that the parson shall have only the twelfth cock of bay, and not the tenth, in consideration of the owner's making it for him: sometimes, in lieu of a large quantity of crude or imperfect tithe the parson shall have a less quantity when arrived at greater maturity, as a couple of fowls in lieu of tithe-eggs, and the like. Any means, in short, whereby the general law of tithing is altered, and a new method of taking them is introduced, is called a *modus deciman-*

di, or special manner of tithing. A prescription *de non decimando* is a claim to be entirely discharged of tithes, and to pay no compensation in lieu of them. Thus the king by his prerogative is discharged from all tithes. So a vicar shall pay no tithes to the elector, nor the rector to the vicar for *ecclesia decimas non solvit ecclesie*. But these personal privileges (not arising from or being annexed to the land) are personally confined to both the king and the clergy; for their tenant or lessee shall pay tithes, though in their own occupation their lands are not generally tithable. And, generally speaking, it is an established rule, that in lay hands, *modus de non decimando non valet*. But spiritual persons or corporations, as monasteries, abbots, bishops, and the like, were always capable of having their lands totally discharged of tithes by various ways: as, 1. By real composition. 2. By the pope's bull of exemption. 3. By unity of possession; as when the rectory of a parish, and lands in the same parish, both belonged to a religious house, those lands are discharged of tithes by this unity of possession. 4. By prescription; having never been liable to tithes, by being always in spiritual hands. 5. By virtue of their order; as the Knights Templars, Cistercians, and others, whose lands were privileged by the pope with a discharge of tithes. Though, upon the dissolution of abbey by Henry VIII. most of these exemptions from tithes would have fallen with them, and the lands become tithable again, had they not been supported and upheld by the statute 31 Henry VIII. c. 13. which enacts, that all persons who should come to the possession of the lands of any abbey then dissolved, should hold them free and discharged of tithes, in as large and ample a manner as the abbey themselves formerly held them. And from this original have sprung all the lands which being in lay hands, do at present claim to be tithe-free; for if a man can show his lands to have been such abbey-lands, and also immemorially discharged of tithes by any of the means before-mentioned, this is now a good prescription *de non decimando*. But he must show both these requisites; for abbey-lands, without a special ground of discharge, are not discharged of course; neither will any prescription *de non decimando* avail in total discharge of tithes, unless it relates to such abbey-lands.

(1.) * **To TITHE.** *v. a.* [teotbian, Saxon.] To tax; to levy the tenth part.—I will *tithe* them one with another. *Spenser.*

By declamation and a *tithe* death,
If thy revenges hunger for that food
Which nature loaths, take thou the destin'd
tenth. *Shak.*

—When thou hast made an end of *tithing* all the tithes of thine increase, the third year, the year of *tithing*, give unto the Levite, stranger, fatherless, and widow. *Deut. xxvi. 12.*

(2.) * **To TITHE.** *v. n.* To pay tithe.—

For lambe, pig, and calf, and for other the like,

Tithe so as thy cattle the lord do not strike.

Tusser.

* **TITHEABLE.** *adj.* [from *tithe*.] Subject to the payment of the tithes; that to which tithes may be taken,—The popish priest shall, on taking
the

the oath of allegiance to his majesty, be entitled to a tenth part or tithe of all things *titheable* in Ireland belonging to the papists, within their respective parishes. *Swift*.

* **TITHER.** *n. s.* [from *tithe*.] One who gathers tithes.

(*r.*) * **TITHING.** *n. s.* [*titbinga*, law Latin, from *tithe*.] 1. *Tithing* is the number or company of ten men with their families knit together in a society, all of them being bound to the king for the peaceable and good behaviour of each of their society: of these companies there was one chief person, who, from his office, was called (toothingman) tithingman; but now he is nothing but a constable. *Coxvel*.—Poor Tom, who is whipt from *tithing* to *tithing*. *Shak*. 2. Tithe; tenth part due to the priest.

Go not for thy *tithing* thyself to the devil.

Tusser.

(*a.*) **TITHING.** Anciently no man was suffered to abide in England above 40 days, unless he were enrolled in some tithing.—One of the principal inhabitants of the tithing was annually appointed to preside over the rest, being called the *tithing-man*, the head-borough, and in some countries the *borseholder*, or *borough's valder*, being supposed the discreetest man in the borough town, or tithing. The distribution of England into tithings and hundreds is owing to king Alfred. See *BORSEHOLDER*.

(*i.*) * **TITHINGMAN.** *n. s.* [*tithing* and *man*.] A petty peace-officer; an under constable.—Every *tithingman* may controul him. *Spenser*.

(*a.*) **TITHING-MEN** are a kind of petty constables, elected by parishes, and sworn into their offices in the court-leet, and sometimes by justices of the peace, &c.

TITHONUS, in fabulous history, the son of Lamedon king of Troy, was beloved by Aurora, who carried him to Delos, thence to Ethiopia, and at last to heaven, where she prevailed on the Destinies to bestow upon him the gift of immortality; but forgot to add that of *youth*. At last Tithonus grew so old that he was obliged to be rocked to sleep like an infant; when Aurora transformed him into a grasshopper; which renews its youth by casting its skin, and in its chirping retains the loquacity of old age.

* **TITHYMAL.** *n. s.* [*tithymalle*, French; *tythymallus*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsworth*.

TITI, a lake of Suabia, in Stuhlingen, 14 miles NNW. of Stuhlingen.

TITIAN, or Vecelli, the most universal genius **TITIANO**, } for painting of all the Lombard school, the best colourist of all the moderns, and the most eminent for histories, portraits, and landscapes, was born at Cadore, in Friuli, in the late state of Venice, in 1477, or in 1480 according to Vafari and Sandrart. His parents sent him at ten years of age to one of his uncles at Venice, who finding that he had an inclination to painting, put him to the school of John Bellino. But as soon as Titian had seen the works of Giorgione, he preferred his manner and became his disciple; and he followed him in his practice so successfully, that several of the paintings of Titian were taken for the performances of Giorgione; and this success inspired that artist with such invincible jea-

lousy, that he broke off their connection for ever. The reputation of Titian rose rapidly; every new work contributed to extend his fame through all Europe; and he was considered as the principal ornament of the age. Charles V. enriched him by repeated bounties, conferred on him the honour of knighthood, and sat for his portrait several times. The excellence of Titian was not so remarkably apparent in the historical compositions which he painted, as in his portraits and landscapes, which seem to be superior to all competition; and even to this day, many of them preserve their original beauty, being as much the admiration of the present age, as they have deservedly been of the ages past. It would prove almost an endless task to enumerate the variety of works executed by this illustrious artist, at Rome, Venice, Bologna, and Florence, in other cities of Italy, in England, Spain, Germany, and France. He was of so happy a constitution, that he was never ill till 1576, when he died of the plague, at 99 years of age. His disciples were Paul Veronese, James Tintoret, James de Ponte Bassano, and his sons.

TITICACO, a large lake of S. America, in Buenos Ayres, above 180 miles in circumference, and 400 feet deep. (See *DELUGE*, § 7.) Its water, though neither salt nor brackish, is muddy; and its taste so nauseous as not to be potable.

TITHI, priests of Apollo. *Tempr*.

* **To TITILLATE.** *v. n.* [*titillo*, Lat.] To tickle.—

Just where the breath of life his nostrils drew,
A charge of snuff the wily virgin threw;
The gnomes direct to ev'ry atom just,
The pungent grains of titillating dust. *Pope*.

* **TITILLATION.** *n. s.* [*titillation*, French; *titillatio*, Lat. from *titillare*.] 1. The act of tickling.—Tickling causeth laughter; the cause may be the emission of the spirits, and so of the breath, by a slight from *titillation*. *Bacon*. 2. The state of being tickled.—In sweets, the acid particles seem so attenuated in the oil as only to produce a small and grateful *titillation*. *Arbutnot*. 3. Any slight or petty pleasure.—The delights which result from these noble entertainments, are dogged by no such sad sequels as are the products of those *titillations* that reach no higher than the senses. *Glanville*.

TITIN-ARA, a mountain of Russia, in Uphea, Lon. 79. c. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 25. N.

TITIUS, Septimius, a poet of the Augustan age, famous for his lyric and tragic poems, which are celebrated by Horace; (i. ep. 3. v. 9.) but now lost.

(*1.*) * **TITLARK.** *n. s.* A bird.—The leverock, *titlark*, and linnet. *Walton*.

(*2.*) **TITLARK**, in ornithology. See *ALAUDA*.

(*1.*) * **TITLE.** *n. s.* [*titelle*, old Fr. *titulus*, Lat.] 2. A general head comprising particulars.—Three draw the experiments of the former four into *titles* and tables. *Bacon*.—I shall single out two particular *titles*, which give a handsome specimen of the excellencies of the English above other laws in other parts or *titles* of the same. *Hale*. 2. An appellation of honour.—

To leave his wife,
His mansion, and his *titles*.

Shak.
Such

Such *title* to himself

Reserving.

Milton.

3. A name; an appellation.—

—The devil himself could not pronounce a *title*

More hateful to mine ear.

Shak.

Ill worthy I such *title* should belong

To me transgressor.

Milton.

4. The first page of a book, telling its name, and generally its subject; an inscription.—

This man's brow, like to a *title* leaf,

Foretels the nature of a tragick volume. Shak.

—Our adversaries encourage a writer who cannot furnish out so much as a *title* page with propriety. Swift.

A pompous *title*, like a gaudy sign

Mean to betray dull sots to wretched wine.

Young.

5. A claim of right.—Let the *title* of a man's right be called in question; are we not bold to rely on the judgment of such as are famous for their skill in the laws? Hooker.—He paid his money for a *lye*, and took a bad *title* for a good. South.—

'Tis our duty

Such monuments, as we can build, to raise;

Left all the world prevent what we should do,

And claim a *title* in him by their praise. Dryden.

—If there were no laws to protect them, there were no living in this world for good men; and in effect there would be no laws, if it were a sin in them to try a *title*, or right themselves by them. Kettleworth.—Though you had an undoubted *title* by your birth, you had a greater by your courage. Dryden.—Conti would have kept his *title* to Orange. Addison.—She will be a slave to any thing that has not a *title* to make her one. Southern.

(2.) *TITLE*, in law, denotes any right which a person has to the possession of a thing, or an authentic instrument whereby he can prove his right. See the articles RIGHT, PROPERTY, &c.

(3.) *TITLES*, HISTORY, AND VARIETY OF. *Titles* were not so common among the ancient Greeks or Romans as they are in modern times. Till the reign of Constantine, the title of *Illustrissimus* was never given except to those who were distinguished in arms or letters: But at length it became hereditary in the families of princes, and every son of a prince was illustrious. The title of *Highness* was formerly given only to kings. The kings of England before the reign of Henry VIII. were addressed by the title of *your Grace*. That monarch first assumed the title of *Highness*, and afterwards that of *Majesty*. The title of *majesty* was first given him by Francis I. in their interview in 1520. Charles V. was the first king of Spain who assumed the same title. Princes, nobles, and clergy, generally have one title derived from their territories and estates, and another derived from their rank or from some other remarkable circumstance. The Pope has the title of *Holiness*. A cardinal is entitled *Eminent*, or *Most Eminent*. An archbishop is addressed *his Grace*, and *most Reverend*: a bishop has the title of *his Lordship*, and *right Reverend*. Inferior clergymen are *Reverend*. To an emperor is given the title of *Imperial Majesty*; to kings, that of *Majesty*; to the princes of Great Britain, *Royal Highness*; to those of Spain and Portugal, *Infant*; to electors, *Elec-*

toral Highness; to the princes of Italy and Germany, *Highness*; to the ci-devant Doge of Venice, *Most Serene Prince*; to the grand-master of Malta, *Eminence*; to nuncios and ambassadors of crowned heads, *Excellency*; to dukes, *Grace*; to marquises, earls, and barons, *Lordship*. The emperor of China, among his titles, takes that of *Tien Su*, "Son of Heaven." The Orientals, it is observed, are exceedingly fond of titles: the simple governor of Schiras, for instance, after a pompous enumeration of qualities, lordships, &c. adds the titles of *Flower of Courtesy*, *Nutmeg of Consolation*, and *Rose of Delight*.

(4.) *TITLE* TO THE CROWN, in the British Constitution. See SUCCESSION.

* *To TITLE*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To entitle; to name; to call—

To these, that sober race of men, whose lives Religious, *titled* them the sons of God. Milton.

* *TITLELESS*. *adj.* [from *title*.] Wanting a name or appellation. Not in use.—

He was a kind of nothing, *titleless*. Shak.

* *TITLEPAGE*. *n. f.* [*title* and *page*.] The page containing the title of a book.—We should have been pleased to have seen our own names at the bottom of the *title-page*. Dryden.

TITLEY, Walter, Esq. born about 1700, was educated at Westminster, where he was patronised by Bp. Atterbury, who made him tutor to his son, and kept him in his family, till the time of the reported plot in 1722. He afterwards studied at Trinity College, Cambridge. He was sent envoy to Copenhagen, where he died after a long residence, much esteemed for his amiable qualities. He published several pieces, rather elegant than scientific.

TITLIS, a mountain of Switzerland, in the canton of Uri; one of the highest in Switzerland; 6 miles SW. of Potenza.

TITMONING, a town of Germany, in Saltzburg, near Bavaria, on the Salza. (See *SALTZBURG*.) It was almost desolated by the plague, in 1301, and was burnt by lightning in 1571, but since rebuilt.

(1.) * *TITMOUSE*, or *tit*. *n. f.* [*tit*, Dutch, a chick, or small bird; *titlingier*, Islandick, a little bird: *tit* signifies *little* in the Teutonic dialects.] A small species of birds.—

Before him sits the *titmouse* silent by. Spenser.

The *titmouse* and the peckers hungry brood. Dryden.

(2.) *TITMOUSE*, in ornithology. See *PARUS*.

TITOLO, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Basilicata; 6 miles SW. of Potenza.

TITORMUS, a shepherd of Ætolia, famous for his prodigious strength. He was contemporary with Milo of Crotona, whom he excelled, as he lifted on his shoulders a large rock which Milo could with difficulty move. *Ælian*. 12, 22. *Herod.* vi. 127.

TITSCHEN, a town of Moravia, in Prerau; 8 miles W. of Freyburg.

* *TITTER*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A restrained laugh. 2. I know not what it signifies in *Tusser*.—

From wheat go and rake out the *titters* of time,

If care be not forth, it will rise again fine. *Tusser*.

* *To TITTER.* *v. n.* [formed, I suppose, from the sound.] To laugh with restraint; to laugh without much noise.—

In flow'd at once a gay embroider'd race,
and *titt'ring* push'd the pedants off the place.

Pope.

TITTERI, a lake of Algiers, near mountains so named; 60 miles S. of Algiers.

TITTING, a town of Germany, in Franconia, 3 miles N. of Aichstätt.

* **TITTLE.** *n. f.* [I suppose from *tir.*] A small particle; a point; a dot.—In the particular which concerned the church, the Scots would never depart from a *tittle*. *Clarendon.*—

What to the smallest *tittle* thou shalt say.

Milton.

—They thought, although they never performed their part, God was bound to make good every *tittle* of his. *South.*—Ned Fashion understands to a *tittle* all the punctilios of a drawing-room. *Swift.*—You are not advanced one *tittle* towards proof.

Waterland.

* **TITLETATTLE.** *n. f.* [A word formed from *tittle* by a ludicrous reduplication.] Idle talk; prattle; empty gabble.—

As the foe drew near

With love, and joy, and life and dear,

Our don, who knew this *tittletattle*,

Did, sure as trumpet, call to battle.

Prior.

—Of every idle *tittletattle*, Jack was suspected the author. *Arbutnot.*

* *To TITLETATTLE.* *v. n.* [from *tattle.*] To prate idly.—You are full in your *tittletattlings* of Cupid. *Sidney.*

TITTMANING. See **TITMONING.** *Tittmaning* is the proper spelling.

* **TITUBATION.** *n. f.* [*titubo*, Lat.] The act of stumbling.

TITUL, a town of Hungary, in the county of Bodrog, on the Theysse; 24 miles ESE. of Peterwaradin, and 24 NW. of Belgrade. Lon. 40. 34. E. Lat. 45. 30. N.

* **TITULAR.** *adj.* [*titulaire*, Fr. from *titulus*, Lat.] Nominal; having or conferring only the title.—They would deliver up the kingdom to be *titular* and painted head of those arms. *Bacon.*—

Thrones, virtues, powers,

Milton.

Not merely *titular*.

—Valerius and Ausin were *titular* bishops. *Ayliffe.*

* **TITULARITY.** *n. f.* [from *titular*] The state of being *titular*.—Julius, Augustus, and Tiberius, with great humility received the name of Imperator; but their successors retain the same even in its *titularity*. *Brown.*

(1.) * **TITULARY.** *adj.* [*titulaire*, Fr. from *titulus*, Latin.] 1. Consisting in a title.—The malecontents have not been base nor *titular* impostors, but of an higher nature. *Bacon.* 2. Relating to a title.—William the Conqueror, howsoever he used the power of a conqueror, yet mixed it with a *titular* pretence, grounded upon the Confessor's will. *Bacon.*

(2.) * **TITULARY.** *n. f.* [from the *adj.*] One that has a title or right.—The persons deputed were neither *titularies* nor perpetual curates, but persons entirely conductions. *Ayliffe.*

TITURIUS, a lieutenant of Julius Cæsar, in

VOL. XXII. PART II.

Gaul, who was killed by Ambiorix. *Cæf. de B. G.* v. 29, &c.

TITUS, a prænomen in very general use among the ancient Romans, which seems to have been first introduced among them by king

(1.) **TITUS TATIUS**, the colleague of Romulus. See **ROME**, § 6; and **TATVUS**, N° 2.

(2.) **TITUS**, in church-history, a celebrated evangelist, a Greek by birth, and a convert of St Paul, who wrote a letter to him, which is still extant. After going to Corinth, and preaching the gospel there, he settled the affairs of the church in Crete; and then went by the apostle's order to Dalmatia, whence, after spreading the gospel there, he returned to Crete, and propagated it in the adjacent islands. Of the time or manner of his death, nothing certain is recorded.

(3.) **TITUS**, EPISTLE TO, a canonical book of the New Testament. See **SCRIPTURE**, Sect. X.

(4.) **TITUS VESPASIANUS**, the Roman emperor, the son of Vespasian; of whom it is related, that not being able to recollect any remarkable good action he had done on a certain day, he exclaimed, "I have lost a day." Though Rome laboured under various public calamities during his reign, such was his equitable and mild administration, that he constantly preserved his popularity. He was a great lover of learning, and composed several poems. He reigned but two years, and it is thought Domitian his brother poisoned him, A. D. 81, aged 41. See **ROME**, § 51.

TITYRUS, a large mountain of Crete.

TITYUS, in the mythology, a famous giant, the son of Jupiter by Elara, the daughter of Orichomenos, who died in travail of him, from his vast size. Tityus attempted to ravish LATONA, but she called to her aid her children, Apollo and Diana, who with their arrows killed the monster. His corpse covered 9 acres; and in Tartarus he was condemned to have his liver continually gnawed by serpents and vultures. *Apollod. Hom. &c.*

TITZ, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers, 4 miles NNE. of Juliers.

TIVA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the Arabian Irac; 250 miles W. of Bassora.

(1.) **TIVERTON**, a neat borough of England, in Devonshire, with a market on Tuesday, seated on the EX, over which it has an elegant stone bridge, and a fine new church. It has often suffered by fire; particularly in 1598, 1612, and in June 1713. It has a great woollen manufacture, and lies 14 miles NNE. of Exeter, and 161 W. by S. of London. Lon. 3. 38. W. Lat. 50. 54. N.

(2.) **TIVERTON**, a town of Rhode Island, in Newport county, on the E. side of Narraganset Bay, opposite the N. end of Rhode Island, to which it is joined by a bridge. It has a good trade; and lies 20 miles SE. by S. of Providence, 10 NE. by N. of Newport, and 310 from Philadelphia.

TIUHOLM, an island of Denmark, in the Scaggerac, 4 miles NE. of Fladstrand.

(1.) **TIVIOT**, a river of Roxburghshire. See **TEVIOT**.

(2.) **TIVIOT HILLS.** See **CHAVIOT**, and **TS-VIOT**.

Ecc

TIVIOF

TIVOT DALE. See ROXBURGH, N° 1.
TUKU-KARAGAN, a cape on the E. coast of the Caspian Sea; 156 miles SE. of Astracan. Lon. 68. o. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 20. N.

TULIT, a town of Fez, 12 miles SW of Fez.
TIUM, an ancient sea port town of Paphlagonia, built by the Milesians. *Mela* i. 9.

TIUMEN, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, at the junction of the Pichma and the Tura. See TARTARY, § 2.

TIVOLI, a celebrated town of Italy, in the Pope's dominions, in the Campania of Rome, anciently called **TIBUR**, and the favourite residence of several of the greatest men of the Augustan age. It has a celebrated cascade, ruins of Adrian's villa, a Sibyl's temple, and many other relics of antiquity. Horace wrote many of his poems in it. Q. Zenobia had a palace in it. It is seated on the Tevere, near the remarkable lake of Solfatara: (See SOLFATARA, N° 1; and TEVERONE.) 10 miles NE. of Fiesoli, and 17 NE. of Rome. Lon. 12. 41. E. Lat. 41. 59. N.

TIUTERS, an island of Russia, in the Gulf of Finland; 80 miles ENE. of Revel. Lon. 45. o. E. Ferro. Lat. 59. 40. N.

TIXALL, a small town of England, in Staffordshire, in a heathy plain, called *Tixball Heath*; a mile E. of Stafford.

TIXIER, John, or *Ravifus Textor*, as he styled himself, in his Latin works, was lord of *Ravifly*, in Nivernois. He taught the belles lettres in the college of Navarre at Paris, with great success. He wrote *Officina Epistolarum*; also letters, dialogues, epigrams, &c. He died in 1522.

TIXOVER, a town of England, in Ketton parish, Rutlandshire.

(1.) **TIVY**, a river of S. Wales, in Cardigan-shire, which rises 5 miles N. of Tregaron, and runs into the sea, 3 miles below Cardigan.

(2.) * **TIVY**, *adj.* [A word expressing speed, from *tantivy*, the note of a hunting-horn.]

In a bright moon-shine while winds whistle loud,

Tivy, tivy, tivy, we mount and we fly. *Dryden*.

TIZZANO, a town of Italy, in Parma; 13 miles S. of Parma.

TLACOPAN, a division of Mexico. See MEXICO, § 2.

(1.) **TLASCALA**, a province of Mexico, bounded on the N. by Guasaca, E. by the Gulf of Mexico, and the prov. of Guaxaca; and W. by that of Mexico Proper. It is 320 miles long, and from 40 to 120 broad. The climate and soil are various. The only tax they pay to the Spanish government, is a *handful of maize* for each individual. This tax, trifling as it appears, has, in some years, amounted to 13,000 bushels! Tlascala was anciently a kingdom: afterwards it fell under an aristocracy of many princes, who divided most of it into various districts, and maintained long wars against the royal family, till the arrival of the Spaniards. At their arrival, Tlascala contained 300,000 inhabitants. And Acosta says, that at this period, they had a large market place, in which were annually convened 30,000 merchants and purchasers; with 2000 oxen, 2000 hogs, and 15,000 sheep. In the parish church, they preserve

a picture of the ship in which CORTES arrived at Vera Cruz.

(2.) **TLASCALA**, a populous city of Mexico, the capital of the above province, on the banks of a river that runs into the Pacific Ocean; 30 miles N. of Puebla de los Angeles, 62 SE. of Mexico, and 140 NW. of Vera Cruz.

(3.) **TLASCALA**, a mountain or range of mountains in the above province, 12 miles in circumference, very populous and well cultivated, containing several towns and villages on its sides and towards the top, which is always covered with snow. Its woods are frequented by tigers and monkeys.

(4.) **TLASCALA**, a river in the above province, which runs through a great part of it, and falls into the Pacific Ocean.

TLASCALANS, the natives of Tlascala. They were always a brave and warlike people, and at first endeavoured to oppose the Spaniards on their invasion, but being at war with the emperor of Mexico, they soon after joined them in the conquest of their country. See MEXICO, § 6, p.

TLATELOLCO, an ancient kingdom of Mexico, which was conquered, and annexed to the Mexican empire, by Montezuma I. See MEXICO, § 5.

TLASCALLAN, a name of TLASCALA. See MEXICO, § 2.

TLEMSAM, or **TREMEZEN**. See TREMEZEN.
TLEPOLEMIA, games at Rhodes, in honour of

TLEPOLEMUS, the son of Hercules, by Attychia, born at Argos. Having accidentally killed Lycimnius, he fled from Argos to Rhodes, where, by order of the oracle, he was chosen king of the island. He afterwards went to the Trojan war with nine ships; but was killed by Sarpedon. Games were instituted at Rhodes in honour of him.

TLETSCII, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Irtsch; 72 miles ESE. of Tobolsk.

TMAIE, a town of Egypt, 12 miles NE. of Mansura.

TIMARUS, a mountain of Epirus, in Thesprotia. *Strab. Plin.*

TMESCHEDE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and late county of Arensberg; seated on the left bank of the Roer, 3 miles NW. of Arensberg.

TMESIS, in Latin grammar, a figure, whereby a compound word is divided, and one or more words thrown in between the first and last parts of it: as, *Septem subjella trioni gens*, (*Virg.*) for *septentrioni*. *Quæ meo cunque animo*, &c. (*Cic.*) for *Quæcunque*.

(1.) **TMOLUS**, a king of Lydia, the first husband of Queen Omphale, the son of Sipyrius, and Chthonia.

(2.) **TMOLUS**, a mountain of Lydia, so named from the above king, who was buried on it.

(3.) **TMOLUS**, a town of Asia Minor.

(1.) * **TO**, *adv.* [*to*, Savon; *te*, Dutch.] 1. A particle coming between two verbs, and noting the second as the object of the first.—Teach us to mortify our desires. *Smallridge*. 2. It notes the intention.—

Ambition

Ambitious fool! with horny hoofs to pass
O'er hollow arches of resounding brass,
To rival thunder.

Dryden.

She rais'd a war

In Italy, to call me back.

Dryden.

Resolv'd in fight to die.

Dryden.

3. It notes the consequence.—I have done my utmost to lead my life to pleasantly as to forget all misfortunes. *Pope.* 4. After an adjective it notes its object.—

We ready are to try our fortunes.

Shak.

Born to beg their bread.

Sandys.

5. Noting futurity.—We are still to seek for something else. *Bentley.* 6. To and again. To and fro. Backward and forward.

He sends the devils on errands to and fro.

Fairfax.

The spirits perverse,

With easy intercourse pass to and fro. *Milton.*

—On the 7th day, move the joint to and fro. *Wifeman.*—Masses of marble, rolled to and again till they were rounded to the form of pebbles. *Woodward.*—

Moving the world of waters to and fro.

Addison.

Fancy and passion toss it to and fro. *Young.*

(2.) * To. *preposition.* 1. Noting motion towards: opposed to from.—With that she to him afresh. *Sidney.*

Tybalt fled;

But by and by comes back to Romeo,

And to't they go like light'ning. *Shak.*

Give not over so; to him again.

Shak.

—I'll to him again in the name of Brook. *Shak.*—

I'll to the woods among the happier brutes.

Smith.

2. Noting accord or adaptation.—

Mov'd on in silence to soft pipes.

Milton.

3. Noting address or compellation.—

To you, my noble lord of Westmoreland.

Shak.

—Here's to you all, gentlemen. *Denham.*—

Now, to you, Raymond.

Dryden.

4. Noting attention or application.—

Go buckle to the law.

Dryden.

—It extends to their children's children.

Addison.

5. Noting addition or accumulation.—

Wisdom he has, and to his wisdom courage;

Temper to that, and unto all success. *Denham.*

6. Noting a state or place whither any one goes.

Take you some company and away to horse.

Shak.

—He sent his coachman's grandchild to prentice.

Addison. 7. Noting opposition.—

Shall dare thee foot to foot.

Dryden.

8. Noting amount.—There were to the number of 300 horse. *Bacon.* 9. Noting proportion.—Enoch's days were scarce as three to nine, in comparison of theirs with whom he lived. *Hooker.*—

All the world to nothing.

Shak.

—Twenty to one offend more in writing too much than too little. *Afham.*—The burial must be by the smallness of the proportion as fifty to one. *Bacon.*—Two women patients to one man. *Graunt.*—

Allowed to the value of a shilling a day. *Addison.*

—The weight of oil was to that of wine as nine to ten. *Arbushnot.*—The odds will be three to one on

their side. *Swift.* 10. Noting possession or appropriation.—The peculiarities every language hath to itself. *Felton.* 11. Noting perception.—

Sharp to the taste.

Dryden.

12. Noting the subject of an affirmation.—

I have a king's oath to the contrary.

Shak.

13. In comparison of.—

All that they did was piety to this.

Ben Jonson.

—There is no fool to the sinner. *Tillotson.* 14. As far as.—Some Americans, otherwise of quick parts, could not count to one thousand. *Locke.*—Coffee exhales in roasting to the abatement of near one-fourth of its weight. *Arbushnot.* 15. Noting intention.—

He doth point out each man of us to slaughter.

Ben Jonson.

16. After an adjective it notes the object.—

Draw thy sword in right.

I'll draw it as apparent to the crown.

Shak.

Fate and the dooming gods are deaf to tears.

Dryden.

All were attentive to the godlike man. *Dryden.*

17. Noting obligation.—The Rabbins subtly distinguish between our duty to God, and to our parents. *Holyday.*—Almanzor is taxed with changing sides, and what tie has he on him to the contrary? *Dryden.* 18. Respecting.—

To our purposes he lives no more.

Shak.

—The effects of such a division are pernicious to the last degree. *Addison.* 19. Noting extent.—All is due to supernatural grace. *Hammond.* 20. Towards.—

She stretch'd her arms to heav'n.

Dryden.

21. Noting presence.—She revileth him to his face. *Swift.* 22. Noting effect; noting consequence.—Factions are much to the prejudice of princes. *Bacon.*—He was bleeding almost to death. *Wifeman.*—Great numbers were crowded to death. *Clarendon.*—

Ingenious to their ruin.

Waller.

Under how hard a fate are women born,

Priz'd to their ruin, or expos'd to scorn! *Waller.*

—The offender was whipt to death. *Dryden.*—

Thus, to their shame, when finish'd was the fight,

The victors from their lusty steeds alight. *Dryden.*

Now to our cost your emptiness we know.

Dryden.

—A British king obliges himself by oath to execute justice in mercy, and not to exercise either to the total exclusion of the other. *Addison.*—The abuse reigns chiefly in the country, as I found to my vexation. *Swift.*

Praise me to my ruin?

Smith.

—It must be confessed to the reproach of human nature. *Broome.* 23. After a verb to notes the object.—

I drink to th' general joy of the whole table.

Shak.

—Had the methods of education been directed to their right end. *Locke.*—This lawfulness of judicial process appears from these legal courts erected to minister to it in the apostle's days. *Kettleworth.*—Exposed to the world the private misfortunes of families. *Pope.* 24. Noting the degree.—Only the slender part of the pipe, to the height

of four inches, remained exposed to the open air.

Boyle.

Tell her thy brother languishes to death.

Addison.

—A crow, though hatched under a hen, and who never has seen any of the works of its kind, makes its nest the same, to the laying of a stick, with all the nests of that species. *Addison.*—If he employs his abilities to the best advantage. *Addison.* 25. Before day, to notes the present day; before morrow, the day next coming; before night, either the present night, or night next coming.

Banquo, thy soul's flight,

If it find heav'n must find it out to night. *Shak.*

To-day they chas'd the boar.

Otway.

—This ought rather to be called a full purpose of committing sin to-day, than a resolution of leaving it to-morrow. *Calamy.* 26. To-day, to-night, to-morrow, are used, not very properly, as substantives in the nominative and other cases.

To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,

Creeps in this petty pace from day to day. *Shak.*

—The father of Solomon's house will have private conference with one of you the next day after to-morrow. *Bacon.*

To-day is ours; why do we fear?

To-day is ours, we have it here;

Let's banish bus'ness, banish sorrow,

To the gods belongs to-morrow. *Cowley.*

To-morrow will deliver all her charms

Into my arms, and make her mine for ever.

ryden.

For what to-morrow shall disclose,

May spoil what you to night propose;

England may change, or Cloe stray;

Love and life are for to-day. *Prior.*

TOA, a river of Porto Rico, which runs into the sea at Porto Rico.

(1.) * TOAD. *n. f.* [*tade*, Saxon.] A paddock; an animal resembling a frog; but the frog leaps, the toad crawls; the toad is accounted venomous, perhaps without reason.

A most toad-spotted traitor.

Shak.

I had rather be a toad.

Shak.

—In the great plague there were seen, in divers ditches about London, many toads that had tails three inches long, whereas toads usually have no tails. *Bacon.*

The hissing serpent, and the swelling toad.

Dryden.

(2.) TOAD, in zoology. See RANA, § IV. N^o 3.

(1.) * TOADFISH. *n. f.* A kind of sea-fish.

(2.) TOAD-FISH. See LOPHIUS.

(1.) * TOADFLAX. *n. f.* A plant.

(2.) TOAD-FLAX, in botany. See ANTIERHINUM.

(1.) * TOADSTONE. *n. f.* [*toad* and *stone*.] A concretion supposed to be found in the head of a toad.—The toadstone presumed to be found in the head of that animal, is not a thing impossible. *Brown.*

(2.) TOAD-STONES, in the old mineralogy, a genus of argillaceous earths examined by Dr Withering. He describes it as of a dark brownish grey colour; its texture granular; neither effervescing with acids, nor striking fire with steel. The cavities of it are filled with crystallized spar, and in a strong heat it is fusible per se; 100 parts of it con-

tain from 36 to 63.5 of siliceous earth, near 15 of argillaceous earth, 7.5 of calcareous earth, and 16 of oxidated iron. Dr Kirwan observes, that the toad-stone is not much different from basalt, only that it is softer; it contains also a smaller proportion of iron, and a larger one of siliceous earth.

(1.) * TOADSTOOL. *n. f.* [*toad* and *stool*.] A plant like a mushroom.

The grilly toadstool grown there mought I see.

Spenser.

—The toadstool is not esculent. *Bacon.*

(2.) TOADSTOOL is a species of AGARICUS.

TOALLOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore, 3 miles SE. of Wombinselore.

* TOAST. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Bread dried before the fire.—You are both as rheumatick as two dry toasts. *Shak.*—Every third day take a small toast of manchet. *Bacon.* 2. Bread dried and put into liquor.

Where's then the saucy boat

Co-ri-val'd greatness? or to harbour fled,

Or made a toast for Neptune?

Shak.

Whose game is whist, whose treat a toast is sack.

Pope.

3. A celebrated woman whose health is often drunk.—I shall likewise mark out every toast. *Addison.*

Say, why are beauties prais'd and honoured most,

The wiser man's passion, and the vain man's toast?

Pope.

* To TOAST. *v. a.* [*torreo*, *tostum*, Lat.] 1. To dry or heat at the fire.—The earth whereof the toasts is sown parched with the sun, and toasted, is commonly forced earth. *Bacon.*—To allure mice I find no other magic, than to draw out a piece of toasted cheese. *Brown.* 2. To name when a health is drunk. To toast is used commonly when women are named.—Several popish gentlemen toasted many loyal healths. *Addison.*

If we are not prais'd, we'll not be toasted.

Prior.

* TOASTER. *n. f.* [from *toast*.] He who toasts.

We simple toasters take delight

To see our women's teeth look white.

Prior.

TOB, a small district in the SE. of Syria, to which JEPHTHAH retired, when expelled from his native country by his brethren. Jud. xi. 3.

(1.) * TOBACCO. *n. f.* [from *Tobaco* or *Tobago* in America.]—The flower of the tobacco consists of one leaf, is funnel-shaped, and divided at the top into five deep segments, which expand like a star; the ovary becomes an oblong roundish membranaceous fruit, which is divided into two cells by an intermediate partition, and is filled with small roundish seeds. *Miller.*

His figure's like a tobacco stopper. *Hudibras.*

—Bread or tobacco may be neglected. *Locke.*—Sils are to be drained out of the clay by water, before it be fit for the making tobacco pipes or bricks. *Woodward.*

(2.) TOBACCO, in botany. See NICOTIANA and SNUFF.

(3.) TOBACCO, MANNER OF CULTIVATING, IN JAMAICA. The following directions are given by Dr Barham, for raising, and cultivating, and curing

ing tobacco in Jamaica. Let the ground or woodland for planting tobacco be well burned, as the greater the quantity of wood ashes the better. The spot must be well strewed with ashes, laid smooth and light; then blow the seed from the palm of the hand gently on the bed, and cover it with palm or plantain leaves. When the plants are about 4 inches high, draw them and plant them out about 3 feet asunder; and when they become as high as one's knee, cut or pluck off the top; and if there are more than 12 leaves on the plant, take off the overplus, and leave the rest entire. The plant should now be daily attended to, to destroy the caterpillars that infest it; as also to take off every sprout or sucker that puts out at the joints, in order to throw the whole vegetable nourishment into the large leaves. When the edges and points of the leaves begin to turn yellow, cut down the stalks about 10 A. M. on a fine day, and see that the dew is fully off the plant, and do not continue this work after 2 P. M. As fast as it is cut let it be carried into the tobacco-house, which must be so close as to shut out all air, (on this much depends), and hung up on lines tied across, for the purpose of drying. When the stalks begin to turn brownish, take them off the lines, and put them in a large binn, and lay on them heavy weights for 12 days; then take them out, and strip off the leaves, and put them again into the binn, and let them be well pressed, and so as no air gains admission for a month. Take them out; tie them in bundles about 60 leaves in each, which are called *moncoes*, and are ready for sale. But let them always be kept close till they are to be disposed of. Let the curing-house be well built, and very close and warm; if a boarded building, it will not be amiss, in a wet situation, to cover the whole outside with thatch and plantain trash, to keep off the damp; for this will preserve the fine volatile oil in the leaves. No smoke is to be made use of or admitted into the curing-house.

(4.) TOBACCO, MEDICAL PROPERTIES OF. Since the introduction of tobacco into Europe, 1560, various medical properties have been ascribed to it by Stahl and other German physicians; but the manner in which of late years it has been spoken of by the generality of writers on materia medica, has occasioned it to be almost wholly dismissed from modern practice, at least from internal use: but Dr Fowler made a series of experiments, whence he infers that tobacco, under proper regulations, may be administered internally, not only as a safe but as an efficacious remedy, especially as a diuretic in cases of dropsy and dysuria. He speaks also of the use of tobacco in injections; an ounce of the infusion in a pint of water-gruel at a time, and repeated in cases of obstinate constipation, as the case may require. In the *dry belly-ach*, in the West Indies, injections of the smoke of tobacco have long been employed with the happiest effects. After all, the internal use of tobacco should be very limited, and can only be safe in the hands of a skilful and attentive practitioner.

(5.) TOBACCO, OTHER USES OF, AND TRADE IN. Tobacco is sometimes used externally in unguents for destroying cutaneous insects, cleansing

old ulcers, &c. Beaten into a mash with vinegar or brandy, it has sometimes proved serviceable for removing hard tumours of the hypochondres: an account is given in the Edinburgh Essays of two cases of this kind cured by it. The most common uses of this plant, however, are either as a sternutatory when taken by way of snuff, as a masticatory by chewing it in the mouth, or as effluvia by smoking it. Before pipes were invented, it was usually smoked in segars, and they are still in use among some of the southern nations. The method of preparing these is at once simple and expeditious. A leaf of tobacco being formed into a small twisted roll, somewhat larger than the stem of a pipe, and about eight inches long, the smoke is conveyed through the winding folds which prevent it from expanding, as through a tube; so that one end of it being lighted, and the other applied to the mouth, it is in this form used without much inconvenience. But, in process of time, pipes being invented, they were found more commodious vehicles for the smoke, and are now in general use. In the countries of which tobacco is a native, it is considered by the Indians as the most valuable offering that can be made to the beings they worship. They use it in all their civil and religious ceremonies. When once the spiral wreathes of its smoke ascend from the feathered pipe of peace, the compact that has been just made is considered as sacred and inviolable. Tobacco is made up into rolls by the inhabitants of the interior parts of America, by means of a machine called a *tobacco-wheel*. With this machine they spin the leaves after they are cured, into a twist of any size they think fit; and having folded it into rolls of about 20 pounds each, they lay it by for use. In this state it will keep for several years, and be continually improving, as it always grows milder. The Illinois usually form it into carrots; which is done by laying a number of leaves, when cured, on each other after the ribs have been taken out, and rolling them round with packthread, till they become cemented together. These rolls commonly measure about 18 or 20 inches in length, and nine round in the middle part. Tobacco forms a very considerable article in commerce; for an account of which see the articles GLASGOW and VIRGINIA.

(6.) TOBACCO WINE. See PHARMACY, Index.

(7.) TOBACCO WORM, in entomology, an insect which often proves destructive to that plant. This animal is of the horned species. In what manner it is produced, and propagated, is unknown: but it is not discernible till the plants have attained about half their height; and then appears to be nearly as large as a gnat. Soon after this it lengthens into a worm; and by degrees increases in magnitude to the bigness of a man's finger. In shape it is regular from its head to its tail, without any diminution at either extremity. It is indented or ribbed round at equal distances, nearly a quarter of an inch from each other; and having at every one of these divisions a pair of feet or claws, by which it fastens itself to the plant. Its mouth, like that of the caterpillar, is placed under the fore-part of the head. On the top of the head, between the eyes, grows a horn

a horn about half an inch long, and greatly resembling a thorn; the extreme part of which is of brown colour, a firm texture, and the extremity sharp-pointed. It is easily crushed; being only, to appearance, a collection of green juice inclosed in a membranous covering, without the internal parts of an animated being. The colour of its skin is in general green, interspersed with several spots of a yellowish white; and the whole covered with a short hair scarcely to be discerned. These worms are found the most predominant during the end of July and beginning of August, when the plant must be particularly attended to, and every leaf carefully searched. As soon as a wound is discovered, and it will be soon perceptible, care must be taken to destroy the worm which will be found near it, and from its unsubstantial texture may easily be crushed; but the best method is to pull it away by the horn, and then crush it.

TOBACCO-BOX, *n. f.* a box for holding tobacco.

* TOBACCONIST. *n. f.* [from *tobacco*.] A preparer and vender of tobacco.

(1.) TOBACCO-PIPE, *n. f.* a pipe for smoking tobacco.

(2.) TOBACCO-PIPE FISH. See *FISTULARIA*.

(1.) TOBAGO, one of the Caribbee islands, ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763, taken by the French in 1781, and retaken by the British in 1793. According to the latest accounts, it is 30 miles long from NE. to SW. between 8 and 9 broad, and from 99 to 75 in circumference. The English visited this island very early, Sir Robert Dudley being there in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. In that of Charles I. William earl of Pembroke procured a grant of this, with two other small islands; but died before he was able to carry into execution his design of settling them. In A. D. 1632 some merchants of Zealand sent over a small colony thither, and gave it the name of *New Walcheren*; but before they were able thoroughly to establish themselves, they were destroyed by the Indians assisted by the Spaniards. Ten years after, James Duke of Courland sent a colony thither, who settled themselves upon Great Courland bay, and made a considerable progress in planting. A. D. 1654, Messieurs Adrian and Cornelius Lampius, two opulent merchants of Flushing, sent a considerable number of people thither, who settled on the other side of the island, and lived in amity with the Courlanders, until they learned that the king of Sweden had seized the person of their duke and dispossessed him of his dominions, when they attacked and forced his subjects to submit. The duke being afterwards restored, he obtained from Charles II. a grant of this island, dated the 17th Nov. 1664. In the 2d Dutch war the count d'Estrees totally ruined it at the close of 1677; and from that time it continued waste till Britain took possession of it after the treaty of Paris. The climate, notwithstanding its vicinity to the line, is so tempered by the breezes from the sea, as to be very supportable to Europeans; and hath the same advantages with that of Grenada, in having regular seasons, and also in being exempt from the hurricanes. There are throughout the island

many rising grounds, though, except at the NE. extremity, there is no part of it that can be styled mountainous; and even there the country is far from being rugged or impassable. The soil is fertile, luxuriant, and very finely diversified. Provisions of all sorts have been raised in great plenty, a vast variety of vegetables, excellent in their kind, for food and physic. Almost every species of useful trees is to be found here, and some of an enormous size; among others the true cinnamon and nutmeg tree; whole groves of cassias, and of trees that bear the true gum copal, with other odoriferous plants that render the air wholesome and pleasant. It is well watered by rivers that fall into the sea on both sides, many small streams, and fine fresh springs in almost every part of the island. The coast is indented by 10 or 12 spacious bays, and there are one or two ports capable of receiving as large ships as ever visited those seas. There are wild hogs in plenty, numbers of fowls of different kinds, and a vast variety of sea and river fish. In the beginning of 1791, Tobago was taken by the French, but recovered by the British a few weeks after. It was again taken by the French, but was finally surrendered to Britain, according to the treaty of Amiens, on the 30th June, 1803. It lies 36 miles NE. of Trinidad, 105 SE. of St Vincent, 120 S. by W. of Barbadoes, and 240 SE. of Grenada. Lon. 59. 0. W. Lat. 11. 10. N.

(2.) TOBAGO. See *TABAGO*, N^o 1.

(3.) TOBAGO, LITTLE, an island at the NE. extremity of Tobago; 2 miles long, and half a mile broad.

TOBAK, a town of European Turkey, in Bessarabia; 34 miles NNW. of Ismael.

TOBAN, a town of Cuba; 16 miles NE. of Trinidad.

TOBAR, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 12 miles from Burgos.

(1.) TOBERMOREY, a fishing town of Argyllshire, in the isle of Mull, built by the British Society for the Encouragement of Fisheries, in 1788, seated on the Bay, (N^o 2.) in the tract of the ships which sail from the W. parts of Britain to the N. of Europe. In 1793 it contained 600 souls, and has since much increased. Coopers and boat-builders carry on a great trade. It has also a large warehouse for salt for the fisheries. The town covers above a mile square.

(2.) TOBERMOREY BAY, a fine spacious bay of Argyllshire, on the coast of the isle of Mull. It is capable of containing ships of the largest size; and 200 sail may ride at anchor in it at once. The general depth is from 12 to 15 fathoms, but some parts are 22 fathoms deep.

TOBIAS. See *TOBIT*.

TOBISCHAH, a town of Moravia, in Olmutz; 8 miles SE. of Prosnitz.

TOBIT, one of the books of the *APOCRYPHA*. It is ruffled with superstition. One *TOBIAS*, or *Tobit*, whose story it contains, is supposed to have been the author.

TOBLER-BACH, a river of Suabia, running into the Glart.

TOBLPAD, a town of Stiria, 8 miles SSW. of Graz.

TOBOL, a river of Russia, which rises in mountain

Mount Titanaia, on the E. border of the government of Upha, and falls into the Irtisch at Tobolsk.

TOBOLOVO, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Enisei. Lon. 103. 28. E. Ferro. Lat. 69. 40. N.

TOBOLSK, the capital of Siberia, is situated at the confluence of the Tobol and Irtisch, on a high hill, the lower part of which is inhabited by Mahometan Tartars, who carry on a considerable traffic upon the Irtisch, and convey their merchandise quite across Great Tartary, as far as China. (See *IRTISCH*.) All sorts of provisions are plentiful and cheap; and the adjacent country abounds with game. The supreme court of judicature for Siberia is held in this city, which is also the seat of a metropolitan, sent hither from Moscow. Tobolsk is well fortified, and defended by a strong garrison, under the command of the waiwode, who resides in the place, and takes charge of the fur tribute, which is here deposited in proper magazines. This governor enjoys a very extensive command. A sufficient number of Russians, called *Jemboiks*, are kept in pay by the government, on the banks of the Irtisch, to supply travellers on the emperor's account with men, boats, or carriages, to convey them as far as Surgut on the Oby, a voyage of 600 miles by water. This is the common method of travelling in summer; but in winter the journey is performed in sleds over the ice and snow, drawn by a pair of dogs. Tobolsk contains 15,000 inhabitants. It is 800 miles E. of Moscow, and 1000 from Petersburg. Lon. 68. 18. E. Lat. 58. 12. N.

TOBOLSKOI, an extensive government of Russia, comprehending a considerable part of Siberia. (See *SIBERIA*.) Tobolsk is the capital. It extends from Lon. 76. 30. to 125. 30. E. and from Lat. 55° to 78° N.

TOBOKON, a town of Thibet; 53 miles N. of Tourfan Hotun.

TOBOSO, a town of Spain in New Castile; 7 miles S. of Huete.

TOBRONA, a town of the island of Cuba; 148 miles SW. of Havannah.

TOCANTINS, a river of Brasil; which rises in Lat. 18° S. and falls into the Atlantic in Lat. 1° S. It is called **PARA** for 100 miles before it reaches the ocean.

(1.) **TOCAT**, or **TOKAT**, a province of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, and in Caramania, and in the pachalic of Sivas. It is populous, and is estimated to contain 40,000 families of Turks, 4000 Armenian families, and 400 of Greeks. This country abounds with mountains, which are covered with vines and other fruit-trees; and afford quarries of excellent marble. The whole of it is extremely fertile, abounding in mulberry trees, silk, &c.

(2.) **TOCAT**, or **TOKAT**, a city of Natolia, capital of the above province, seated in a valley, almost surrounded by mountains. The streets are well paved, and the houses well built, and each has a fountain. There are several manufactures, particularly silk and silk thread, Turkey leather, and various hardwares, as candlesticks, lanterns, copper kettles, cups, &c. Tocat is the centre of commerce in Natolia, and exports besides the above manufactures, excellent wine, fruits, &c. to

Constantinople. The caravans from Diarbeck arrive in 18 days; from Sinop in 6 days; from Bursa in 20; from Smyrna in 27, &c. Tocat lies 150 or 180 miles W. of Erzerum, 283 N. of Aleppo, and 250 E. of Constantinople, or 355 as Cruttwell says. Lon. 35. 55. E. Lat. 19. 55. N.

TOCAYMA, a town of Terra Firma, in Grenada, seated on the Para, in a territory abounding with sugar canes and fruit trees. It has hot baths between cold springs, and there is a volcano near it, which often throws out fire and ashes. Lon. 73. 50. W. Lat. 4. 3. N.

TOCAYO, a town of Terra Firma, in the province of Venezuela.

TOCHEN, a town of Germany, in Anhalt-Zerbst; 5 miles W. of Zerbst.

TOCHU, a town of Africa, in QUOJA.

TOCKAY. See *TOKAY*.

TOCKENBURG, a town and district of Switzerland; seated among mountains, and fertile in corn and fruits. See *SWITZERLAND*, § 7.

TOCORT, or **TUGGURT**, a town of Algiers; 240 miles SSE. of Algiers.

TOCRUR, a town of Negroland, on the Niger; 220 miles ENE. of Tombuctoo.

TOSIN, *n. f.* an adopted French word, signifying an alarm bell.

TOSON HOTUN, a town of Thibet, 20 miles SW. of Tourfan.

(1.) * **TOD**. *n. f.* [*totte haar*, a lock of hair, German. *Skinner*. I believe rightly.] 1. A blush; a thick shrub. Obsolete.—

Within the ivie *tod*,

There shrouded was the little god. *Spenser*.
2. A certain weight of wool, 12 pounds.—Every eleven weather *tods*, every *tod* yields a pound and odd shillings. *Shak*.

(2.) **TOD HEAD**, a cape of Scotland, on the E. coast of Kincardineshire; 5 miles S. of Stonehaven.

TODD, Hugh, an English historian and divine, born in Cumberland about 1660, and educated at Queen's college, Oxford. He published, 1. *The Description of Sweden*; 2. *The Life of Phocion*. He left in MS. 1. *Notitia Ecclesie Cathedralis Carlislensis*. 2. *Notitia Prioratus de Wedderhall*, &c. 3. *A History of the Diocese of Carlisle*, &c. He died after 1708.

* **TODDA PANNA**. See *CYCAS*.

(1.) **TODDY**, a name given to the juice of the cocoa nut tree. See *ARAK*.—Toddy is also a name given to a mixture of spirits, water, and sugar.

(2.) **TODDY BIRD**. See *LOXIA*; N° 12.

TODENDORP, a town of Germany, in Holstein; 6 miles NE. of Hamburg.

TODENHAUSEN, a small town of Germany, in Westphalia, on the W. bank of the Weser; 3 miles N. of Minden.

TODI, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Spoleto, with a bishop's see, under the Pope; containing several churches and convents; 18 miles W. of Spoleto, and 53 N. of Rome. Lon. 30. 2. E. of Ferro. Lat. 42. 47. N.

TODIALOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in Coimbatore; 5 miles N. of Coimbatore.

TODIVESTI, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 6 miles NE. of Succava.

TODOROVA, a town of Croatia; 18 miles WNW. of Novi.

TODS,

TODS, a town of Virginia; 9 miles ENE. of Hanover.

TODUS, the } in ornithology, a genus belong-

TODY, } ing to the order of *pica*. The beak is slender, depressed, broad, and the base beset with bristles. The nostrils are small and oval. The toes are placed three before, and one behind; the middle are greatly connected to the outer. There are 15 species according to Dr Latham. "Birds of this genus, he says, inhabit the warmer parts of America. They vary considerably in their bills as to breadth, but all of them have a certain flatness, or depression, which is peculiar."

(1.) * **TOE**. *n. f.* [*ta*, Sax. *teem*, Dutch.] The divided extremities of the feet; the fingers of the feet.—

Fill me from the crown to th' toe, topful
Of direct cruelty. *Shak.*

Come and trip it as you go,
On the light fantastic toe. *Milton.*

A thousand little nerves she sends
Quite to our toes, and fingers ends. *Prior.*

(2.) **TOES**, BONES OF THE. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

(3.) **TOES**, MUSCLES OF THE. See **ANATOMY**, § 218, N° 1—9.

(1.) **TOE HEAD**, a cape of Ireland, on the S. coast of Cork. Lon. 9. 9. W. Lat. 51. 29. N.

(2.) **TOE HEAD**, a cape of Scotland, on the SW. coast of Harris, in the isle of Lewis; 42 miles SW. of Stornoway. Lon. 3. 59. W. Edin. Lat. 37. 59. N.

(1.) **TOELCHUS DE APIE**, and } two districts
(2.) **TOELCHUS DE CABALLO**; } of S. America, in Patagonia.

TOELING HORUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, 375 miles ENE. of Pekin. Lon. 141. 15. E. Ferro. Lat. 42. 22. N.

TOENION, tyrant of Syracuse. See **SYRACUSE**, § 13.

* **TOFORE**. *adv.* [*teforan*, Saxon.] Before. Obsolete.—

It is an epilogue to make plain
Some obscure precedence that hath tofore been
lain. *Shak.*

—So shall they depart the manor with the corn
and the bacon tofore him that hath won it. *Spe?*

* **TOFT**. *n. f.* [*toftum*, law Latin.] A place where a messuage has rood. *Coovel and Ainsf.*

TOFTINGALL LOCH, a lake of Caithness, in the parish of Wattin.

(1.) **TOGA**, in Roman Antiquity, a wide woollen gown or mantle, which seems to have been of a semicircular form, without sleeves; differing both in richness and largeness, according to the circumstances of the wearer, and used only in public. It was the distinguishing mark of a Roman; hence, the *jus toga*, or privilege of a Roman citizen; *i. e.* the right of wearing a Roman habit, and of taking fire and water through the Roman empire.

(2.) **TOGA PRÆTEXTA**. See **PRÆTEXTA**.

TOGARMAH, the son of Gomer; the founder of Phrygia. See **PHRYGIA**, N° 1.

TOGATA GALLIA, a name given to **CISALPINE GAUL** by the Romans, or that part of Gaul,

which lay in Italy on this side of the Alps, as to Rome; because the people wore *toge* or gowns, like the Romans. See **GALLIA**, N° 4.

TOGDA, a town and district of Africa, in Sngilmessa.

* **TOGED**. *adj.* [*tegetus*, Latin.] Gowned; dressed in gowns.—

The bookish theorick,
Wherein the toged consuls can propose
As masterly as he. *Shak.*

TOGEHAUT, a town of Persia, in Irac; 80 miles N. of Ispahan.

* **TOGETHER**. *adv.* [*together*, Saxon.] 1. In company.—We turn'd o'er many books together. *Shak.*

Both together went into the wood. *Milton.*
2. Not apart; not in separation.—He joined humanity and policy together. *Bacon.* 3. In the same place.—

She lodgeth peace and war together. *Davies.*

4. In the same time.—Whilst he and I live together, I shall not be thought the worst poet. *Dryd.*

5. Without intermission.—They expected his return for almost an age together. *Dryden.*—They had a great debate which lasted a month together. *Addison.* 6. In concert.—Wars they made together upon France. *Addison.* 7. In continuity.—

Some trees broad leaves together few'd. *Mil.*
7. **TOGETHER WITH**. In union with; in a state of mixture with.—

Take the bad together with the good. *Dryd.*

TOGGENBURG, or **TOCKENBURG**, a district and ci-devant county of Switzerland. It was bounded on the N. by St Gall, E. by the canton of Appenzel; S. by Sargans and Gaster; and W. by the canton of Zurich.

TOGOSAHATCHEE, a river of Georgia, which runs into the Oakmulgee.

TOHOTCHIE, a town of Chinese Tartary, in Hami; 30 miles NW. of Hami.

TOI, king of Hamath. See **HAMATH**.

* **TOIL**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Labour; fatigue.—They live to their great, both toil and grief, where the blasphemies of Ariens are renewed. *Hooker.*—

Not to irk some toil, but to delight. *Milton.*

The love of praise,
The proud to gain it toils and toils endure. *Young.*

2. [*Toile*, *toiles*, Fr. *tela*, Lat.] Any net or snare woven or meshed.—

She looks like sleep,
As she would catch another Anthony
In her strong toil of grace. *Shak.*

—He shut up the Christians as it were in a tail
Knives.—

Impatient
As a Numidian lion, when first caught,
Endures the toil that holds him. *Denham.*

—A fly falls into the toil of a spider. *L'Estrange.*

Fantastic honour, thou hast fram'd a toil. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **To TOIL**. *v. a.* 1. To labour; to work at.—

Toil'd out my uncouth passage. *Milton.*

2. To weary; to overlabour.—

He, toil'd with works of war, retir'd. *Shak.*
(2.)

(2.) * **To TOIL.** *v. n.* [*tilian*, Saxon; *tuylen*, Dutch.] To labour; perhaps originally, to labour in tillage.—

He, like a brother, *toil'd* in my affairs. *Shak.*
Others ill-fated are condemn'd to *toil*. *Prior.*
He views the main that ever *toils* below.

Thomson.

* **TOILET.** *n. f.* [*toilette*, Fr.] A dressing-table.
Now the long labours of the *toilet* cease. *Pope.*

* **TOILSOME.** *adj.* [from *toil*.] Laborious;
weary.—

This were it *toilsome*, yet with thee were
sweet. *Milton.*

—In the state of innocence there was no *toilsome*
labour for man or beast. *White.*—

What can be *toilsome* in these pleasant walks?

Milton.

Recall those nights that clos'd thy *toilsome* days.

Pope.

* **TOILSOMENESS.** *n. f.* [from *toilsome*.]
Wearisomeness; laboriousness.

TOISE. *n. f.* a French measure containing 6
French feet, or a fathom. See **MEASURE**.

TOISSEY, a town of France, in the dep. of
the Ain, about half a mile above the junction of
the Chalarogne and Saone, 18 miles W. of Bourg
en Bresse, and 24 N. of Lyons.

TOKAT. See **TOCAT**.

(1.) **TOKAY**, or **TOCKAY**, a town of Upper
Hungary, in the county of Zimplin, with a castle,
situated at the conflux of the Theysse and the
Brodog. It has suffered much in various wars.
It lies 75 miles NW. of Great Waradin, 90 NE.
of Buda; 98 NW. of Colofvar, and 150 E. of
Vienna. Lon. 21. 25. E. Lat. 48. 10. N.

(2.) **TOKAY WINE**, wine produced in the above
country. There are 4 sorts of wine made
from the same grapes, distinguished at Tokay by
the names of *essence*, *auspruch*, *maßlach*, and the
common wine. The *essence* is made by picking
out the half-dried and shrivelled grapes, and putting
them into a perforated vessel, where they
remain as long as any juice runs off, by the mere
pressure of their own weight. This is put into
small casks. The *auspruch* is made by pouring
the expressed juice of the grapes from which the
former had been picked out on those that yielded
the *essence*, and treading them with the feet. The
liquor thus obtained stands for a day or two to
ferment, and then is poured into small casks,
which are kept in the air for about a month, and
afterwards put into casks. The same process is
repeated on the addition of more juice to the
grapes which have already undergone the two former
pressures, and they are now wrung with the
hands; and thus is had the *maßlach*. The 4th
kind is made by taking all the grapes together at
first, and submitting them to the greatest pressure;
this is chiefly prepared by the peasants. The *essence*
is thick, and very sweet and luscious; it is
chiefly used to mix with the other kinds. The
auspruch is the wine commonly exported, and
which in foreign countries is called *Tokay*. The
goodness of it is determined by the following rules.
The colour should neither be reddish nor very
ale, but a light silver; in trying it, the palate
and tip of the tongue should be wetted without
swallowing it, and if it manifest any acrimony to

the tongue, it is not good; but the taste ought to
be soft and mild; when poured out, it should
form globules in the glass, and have an oily appearance:
when genuine, the strongest is always
of the best quality; when swallowed, it should
have an earthy astrigent taste in the mouth,
which is called the taste of the root. All tokay
wine has an aromatic taste, which distinguishes it
from every other species of wine. It keeps to any
age, and improves by time; but is never good till
about three years old. It is the best way to transport
it in casks; for when it is on the seas, it ferments
three times every season, and thus refines
itself. When in bottles, there must be an empty
space left between the wine and the cork, otherwise
it would burst the bottle. A little oil is put
upon the surface, and a piece of bladder tied over
the cork. The bottles are always laid on their
sides in sand. *Phil. Transf.* vol. lxiil. part ii. p.
292, &c.

(1.) * **TOKEN.** *n. f.* [*talken*, Gothick; *sacn*,
Saxon; *teyken*, Dutch.] 1. A sign.—Shew me a
token for good. *Psalms* lxxxvi. 17. 2. A mark.—
They have not the least *token* or shew of the arts
of China. *Heylyn*.—You may know that man to
have the plague upon whom you see the *tokens*.
South. 3. A memorial of friendship; an evidence
of remembrance.—

Here is a letter from queen Hecuba,

A *token* from her daughter, my fair love. *Shak.*

This is some *token* from a newer friend. *Shak.*

Pigwigin gladly would commend

Some *token* to queen Mab to send. *Drayton.*

(2.) **TOKENS.** See **TRADESMEN'S TOKENS**.

* **To TOKEN.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To make
known. Not in use.—

What in time proceeds,

May *token* to the future our past deeds. *Shak.*

TOKENBURG. See **TÖGGENBURG**.

TOKI-TAO, an island in the E. Indian Ocean,
near the coast of China. Lon. 138. 25. E. Ferro.
Lat. 38. 7. N.

TOKKORADO, or } a commercial town and
TOKORARI } district of Africa, on the
Gold Coast, in the kingdom of Anta. See **ANTA**.
TOL, or **TOL PEDEN PENWITH**, a cape of
England, on the W. extremity of Cornwall; 3
miles SE. of Land's End. Lon. 5. 43. W. Lat.
50. 4. N.

TOLA, the son of Puah, of the tribe of Issa-
char, the 10th judge of Israel. He succeeded the
usurper ABIMELECH, and judged the republic 23
years. He died about A. M. 2811. See **ISRAEL**,
Nº 1, § 3.

TOLAGO BAY, a bay on the NE. coast of the
N. Island of New Zealand, in the S. Pacific Ocean;
with a good road when the wind is W.
11 to 5 fathoms. Lon. 178. 34. E. Lat. 38. 22. S.

TOLAND, John was born near Londonderry
in Ireland, 1670, and educated in the Popish religion;
but at 16 years of age he turned Protestant.
He studied three years at the university of Glas-
gow; was created M. A. in that of Edinburgh;
and completed his studies at Leyden, where he
resided two years. He then went to Oxford,
where he published A Dissertation to prove the
received history of the tragical death of Attilius
Regulus to be a fable. (See **REGULUS**.) He next
undertook

F f f

undertook to show that there are no mysteries in the Christian religion. He published it in 1696 at London, under the title of *Christianity not mysterious*. This book gave great offence, and was attacked by several writers. He afterwards wrote in favour of the Hanoverian succession, and many other pieces. In 1707 he went into Germany, visited several courts; and in 1710 was introduced to Prince Eugene, who gave him several marks of his generosity. Upon his return to England he was for some time supported by the liberality of the earl of Oxford, and kept a country-house at Epsom; but soon losing his lordship's favour, he published several pamphlets against that minister's measures. During the 4 last years of his life he lived at Putney, but spent most of the winter in London. He died at London in 1722. His private character was not amiable. His posthumous works, 2 vols 8vo, were published in 1726, with an account of his life and writings, by M. Des Maizeaux.

TOLEMACUM, an ancient town of Gallia Belgica, afterwards included in the duchy of Juliers, now in the dep. of the Roer.

* **TOLD**. pret. and part. pass. of *tell*. Mentioned & related.—

The acts of God to human ears

Cannot, without process of speech, be *told*. *Milt.*

* **To TOLE**. *v. a.* [This seems to be some barbarous provincial word.] To train; to draw by degrees.—Whatever you observe him to be more frightened at than he should, *tole* him on to it by insensible degrees. *Locke.*

TOLEDO, an ancient trading city of Spain in New Castile, of which it was formerly the capital. About two centuries ago, it contained more than 200,000 inhabitants; but they are now reduced to 20,000 or 30,000. It is advantageously situated on the Tajo, which surrounds it on two sides; and on the land-side it has an ancient wall built by a Gothic king, and flanked with 100 towers. It is seated on a mountain, hence the streets are uneven and narrow; but the houses are fine, and there are many superb structures, besides 17 public squares, where the markets are held. Several of the gates are very large, and of bronze. There is also a high superb steeple, whence there is a very distant prospect. The Sagrario, or principal chapel, is a real treasury, in which are 15 large cabinets set into the wall, full of prodigious quantities of gold and silver vessels, &c. There are two mires of silver gilt, and 3 collars of massy gold set all over with pearls and precious stones. There are two bracelets and an imperial crown of the Virgin Mary, consisting of large diamonds and other jewels. The weight of the gold in the crown is 15 lb. The vessel which contains the consecrated wafer is of silver gilt, as high as a man, and so heavy, that it requires 30 men to carry it; within it is another of pure gold enriched with jewels. Here are 38 religious houses, many churches belonging to 27 parishes, and some hospitals. In the suburbs are relics of an amphitheatre, and other antiquities. Toledo is an archbishop's see, and the seat of the primate of Spain. His revenue is estimated at 400,000 ducats, but it pays 13,000 ducats to the monks of the Elscorial, besides other pensions. Toledo

has also a university. It was formerly celebrated for the exquisite temper of its sword blades. It is 37 miles S. of Madrid.

(1.) **TOLEN**, a town of Norway, 40 miles W. of Berga.

(2.) **TOLEN**, an island of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse, and of the prov. of Zealand, in the E. branch of the Scheldt; separated from the main land by a canal, 10 miles long and 4 broad. It contains 2 towns, **TOLEN**, (N^o 3.) and *St Martin's Dyck*.

(3.) **TOLEN**, the capital of the above island, is a handsome town; and is fortified with 7 bastions. It is 4 miles NW. of Bergen-op-Zoom. Lon. 21. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 30. N.

TOLENTINO, a town of Italy, in Ascona, and a bishop's see. It is seated on the Chiaveto; 8 miles SE. of St Severino, 10 SW. of Macerata, and 88 NE. of Rome. Lon. 13. 11. E. Lat. 43. 14. N.

TOLENUS, a river of ancient Latium, running into the Velinus; now called *Salto*. *Ovid. Fast. vi.*

* **TOLERABLE**. *adj.* [tolerable, Fr. *tolérable*, Lat.] 1. Supportable; that may be endured or supported.—Ye judge them not allowable, but *tolerable* only. *Hooker*.—It shall be more *tolerable* for Sodom than for that city. *Matth. x. 15*.—

Cold and heat scarce *tolerable*. *Milton.*

—Hypocrisy can make *tolerable* to itself. *Tillotson.*

2. Not excellent; not contemptible; passible.—

A *tolerable* translation. *Dryden*.—Princes can keep a majority on their side by any *tolerable* administration. *Swift*.

* **TOLERABLENESS**. *n. f.* [from *tolerable*.] The state of being tolerable.

* **TOLERABLY**. *adv.* [from *tolerable*.] 1. Supportably; in a manner that may be endured. 2. Passably; neither well nor ill; moderately well.—Sometimes are found in laxer strata bodies that are *tolerably* firm. *Woodward*.—He acquitted himself *tolerably* at a ball. *Addison*.

* **TOLERANCE**. *n. f.* [tolerantia, Lat. *tolerance*, Fr.] Power of enduring; act of enduring. Not used, though a good word.—Diogenes one frosty morning came into the market-place shaking, to shew his *tolerance*. *Bacon*.—A *tolerance* or endurance of being made happy here, and blessed eternally. *Hammond*.

TOLERANT. *adj.* enduring.

* **To TOLERATE**. *v. a.* [*tolero*, Lat. *tolerare*, Fr.] To allow so as not to hinder; to suffer; to pass uncancelled.—Such things might be *tolerated* for a while. *Hooker*.—We shall *tolerate* flying horses, harpies, and satyrs. *Brown*.—Men should not *tolerate* themselves one minute in any known sin. *Decay of Piety*.—Crying should not be *tolerated* in children. *Locke*.—We shall always *tolerate* them. *Swift*.

(1.) * **TOLERATION**. *n. f.* [*tolero*, Latin.] Allowance given to that which is not approved.—I shall not speak against the indulgence and *toleration* granted to these men. *South*.

(2.) **TOLERATION**, in religion, is either civil or ecclesiastical. Civil toleration is an impunity and safety granted by the state to every sect that does not maintain doctrines inconsistent with the public peace; and ecclesiastical toleration is the allowance which the church grants to its members.

bers to differ in certain opinions, not reputed fundamental.

TOLESBURG, a sea-port town of Russia, in Riga; seated on the Gulf of Finland; 60 miles W. of Narva. Lon. 26. 4. E. Lat. 59. 38. N.

TOLETUM, an ancient town of Spain, now called **TOLEDO**.

TOLFA, a town of Italy, in the prov. of Patumonia; near mines of alum, iron, lapis lazuli, and slabaſter, and warm baths. It lies 4 miles from the ſea-coaſt, and 25 NW. of Rome.

TOLHUYS, a town of Holland, in the department of the Rhine, and ci-devant province of Guelderland; ſeated on the Rhine, 8 miles E. of Nimegueu. Lon. 6. 0. E. Lat. 51. 56. N.

TOLISTOBOLI, an ancient people of Galatia, in Aſia, deſcended from the Boii of Gaul. *Plin. v. 32. Liv. v. 58. 1516.*

TOLITZIN, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Moguev, 70 miles N. of Mogilev.

TOLKEMIT, a town of Pruſſia, in Ermeland, 28 miles NE. of Marienburg.

(1.) * **TOLL**. *n. s.* [This word ſeems derived from *tollo*, Latin; *toll*, Saxon; *tol*, Dutch; *told*, Daniſh; *toll*, Weiſh; *tallie*, Fr.] An exciſe of goods; a ſeizure of ſome part for permiſſion of the reſt.—*Toll*, in law, has two ſignifications; firſt, a liberty to buy and ſell within the precincts of a manor, which ſeems to import as much as a fair or market; ſecondly, a tribute or cuſtom paid for paſſage. *Cowel*.—Epſom and Dudley took *toll* of their matter's grift. *Bacon*.—Stopped them from levying the *toll* upon their trade into the Euxine. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) A **TOLL** is a tax or cuſtom paid for liberty to vend goods in a market or fair, or for keeping roads in proper repair. The firſt appointment of a toll on highways of which we read, took place in 1346. See **ROAD**.

(1.) * **To TOLL**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To pay toll or tallage.—I will buy me a ſon-in law in a fair, and *toll* for him. *Shak*.—

In the open market *toll'd* for? *Hudibras*.

2. To take toll or tallage.—

The miller that *tolleth* takes none but his due. *Tuſſer*.

3. [I know not whence derived.] To ſound as a lingie bell.—

His tongue Remember'd *tolling* a departed friend. *Shak*.—

Going to church at the *tolling* of a bell. *Still- ingfleet*.—

Toll, toll, gentle bell. *Denham*.
The bell that *toll'd* alone. *Dryden*.
Toll them to their cells. *Dryden*.

Now ſink in ſorrows with a *tolling* bell. *Pope*.

(2.) * **To TOLL**. *v. a.* [*tollo*, Latin.] 1. To ring a bell.—When any one dies, then by *tolling* or ringing of a bell, the fame is known to the ſearchers. *Graunt*. 2. To take away; to vacate; to annul. A term only uſed in the civil law: in this ſenſe the *o* is ſhort, in the former long.—An appeal from ſentence of excommunication does not ſuſpend it, but then involves it to a ſuperior judge, and *tolls* the preſumption in favour of a ſentence. *Ayliffe*. 3. To take away, or perhaps to invite. Obſolete.—The adventitious moiſture which hangeth looſe in a body, betrayeth and *tolleth* forth

the innate and radical moiſture along with it. *Bacon*.

TOLLAN, the country from which the people of Mexico firſt emigrated to N. America. See **MEXICO**, N° 1, § 4.

(1.) **TOLLAND**, a hilly and rocky county of Connecticut; bounded on the N. by Maſſachuſetts; E. and SE. by Windham county; S. by New London, and W. by Hartford counties. It is 29 miles long from N. to S. and 21 broad from E. to W. It is divided into 9 townſhips; viz. Somers, Stafford, Union, Ellington, **TOLLAND**, Wilmington, Bolton, Coventry, and Hebron. It contained 13,055 citizens in 1795, and 47 ſlaves. The chief town is

(2.) **TOLLAND**, the capital of the above county, is ſeated on the E. bank of the Willomantic, and contains many good houſes. It lies 18 miles NE. by E. of Hartford, and 242 from Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 31. E. of that city. Lat. 41. 51. N.

TOLLANTZINCO, a city of Mexico. See **MEXICO**, § 4.

TOLL-BAR. *n. s.* [*toll* and *bar*.] A large gate, ſet up at proper ſtages, for the collection of the toll on the turnpike roads.

* **TOLLBOOTH**. *n. s.* [*toll* and *booth*.] A priſon. *Ainsworth*.

* **To TOLLBOOTH**. *v. a.* To impriſon in a toll-booth.—

To theſe what did he give why a hen,
That they might *tollbooth* Oxford men. *Eiſop Corbet*.

TOLLEIT, a town of Auſtria, 6 miles SW. of Efferdency.

TOLLENTINUM, an ancient town of Italy in Picenum, (*Plin. iii. c. 13.*) now called **TOLLENTINO**.

TOLLERSHAM, a town of Germany, in Auſtria, 4 miles NE. of Zwetle.

TOLLEſIO, a town of Sweden in W. Gothland, 23 miles ENE. of Gottenburg.

TOLLET, Elizabeth, an ingenious and learned Engliſh lady, born in 1694. She was well ſkilled in Latin, French, and Italian, as well as in hiſtory and mathematics. She wrote ſeveral poems; and a dramatic piece entitled *Susana*, or *Innocence Preserved*.

* **TOLLGATHERER**. *n. s.* [*toll* and *gatherer*.] The officer that takes toll.

(1.) **TOLLIIUS**, Alexander, a learned Dutch critic, born at Ingra, in the province of Utrecht. He publiſhed an elegant edition of *Appian*.

(2.) **TOLLIUS**, Cornelius, brother of the preceding, was alſo a learned critic; and became ſecretary to Iſaac Voſſius; and afterwards profeſſor of Greek and Rhetoric, at Harderwyck. He publiſhed an edition of *Palephatus*; and a work entitled, *De Infelicitate Litteratorum*.

(3.) **TOLLIUS**, James, M. D. brother to Cornelius and Alexander, was born at Ingra in Utrecht, and ſtudied phyſic. He became a phyſician and profeſſor of rhetoric and Greek at Brandenburg. He publiſhed elegant editions of 1. *Anonius, cum notis variorum*; 1671: 2. *Longinus de Sublimitate*; 1694. He died in 1696.

TOLMEZO, or } a town in Friuli, 25 miles
TOLMEZZO, } NW. of Friuli, and 30 NE. of Belluno. Lon. 12. 50. E. Lat. 46. 30. N.

Fff 2 1 OLMIDES

TOLMIDES, an Athenian general, who was defeated and killed in a battle with the Thebans in Boeotia, A. A. C. 447. *Polyen.* 7.

TOLMINO, a town of Austria, and capital of a district so named, in Carniola; 9 miles SSW. of Feldsee, and 12 N. of Goritz.

TOLNA, or **TOLNIA**, a town of Hungary, and capital of a county so named, which produces good wine, on the Danube; 30 miles NE. of Ziget, 50 S. of Buda, and 8 SW. of Colocza. Lon. 19. 28. E. Lat. 46. 33. N.

TOLNANI, a town of Hindoostan, in Bagiana; 70 miles W. of Burhanpour, and 124 E. of Surat. Lon. 75. 3. E. Lat. 21. 15. N.

TOLNIA. See **TOLNA**.

TOLO, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 21 miles N. of Balaguer.

TOLOMETO, a sea-port town of Africa, in Tripoli, anciently called **PROLEMAIS**.

TOLON, an island in the Grecian Archipelago. Lon. 40. 45. E. Ferro. Lat. 37. 35. N.

(1.) **TOLOSA**, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Narbonensis, which became a Roman colony under Augustus. There was in it a rich temple of Minerva, which Cæpio the Roman consul plundered; but being ever afterwards unfortunate, *aurum Tolosanum* became proverbial. *Cæs. de B. G.* It is now called **TOULOUSE**.

(2.) **TOLOSA**, or } in modern geography, a city
TOLOZA, } of Spain, the capital of the province of Guipulcoa. It is famous for its manufactures, particularly in cutlery ware. It is seated in a pleasant valley, between the Araxes and Oria; over which rivers it has two handsome bridges, and near these are several grand cataracts. It lies 7 miles S. of St Sebastian, 37 SW. of Bayonne, 45 NW. of Pampeluna, and 60 ESE. of Bilbao. Lon. 2. 5. W. Lat. 43. 10. N.

TOLPAS, a river of Russia, in the province of Iustig, which runs into the Schugor, in Lon. 76. 8. E. Ferro. Lat. 63. 40. N.

* **TOLSEY**, *n. s.* The fæmæ with *tollbooth*. *DiB.*

TOLSTA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 30 miles WSW. of Linköping.

TOLTONOSKOI, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Enisei; 280 miles NNW. of Turchansk. Lon. 103. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 70. 16. N.

TOLTECA, the original country of the

TOLTECANS, the progenitors of the Mexicans. See **MEXICO**, N° I. § 4. The Toltecans, who first inhabited Mexico, were accounted much more polished than those who came after them. They always lived in society, collected into cities, under the government of kings, and had regular laws. They understood the art of casting gold and silver, and melting them in what ever forms they pleased, acquiring also great reputation from their skill in cutting gems of all kinds; and they were besides well versed in the sciences of astronomy and chronology. So early as 100 years before the Christian æra, these people had observed how far the solar year exceeded the civil one; and had supplied that defect by the addition of one day every 4th year, as we do. They were also much skilled in agriculture, and were not deficient in the fine art of painting.

TOLTITLAN, a city of Mexico.

TOLU, a town of Terra Firma in Carthagenæ, famous for the fine balsam. See **TOLUIFERA**. It is seated on a bay of the North Sea, 60 miles S. of Carthagenæ. Lon. 72. 55. W. Lat. 9. 40. N.

TOLVA, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata, 9 miles SSE. of Acerenza.

TOLUCO, a town of Mexico, 24 miles SW. of Mexico.

TOLUIFERA, the **BALSAM OF TOLU TREE**; a genus of plants belonging to the class of *decandria*, and order of *monogynia*. There is only one species; viz.

TOLUIFERA BALSAMUM. This tree grows to a considerable height; it sends off numerous large branches, and is covered with rough, thick, greyish bark; the leaves are elliptical or ovate, entire, pointed, alternate, of a light green colour, and stand upon short strong footstalks; the flowers are numerous, and produced in lateral racemi: the calyx is bell-shaped, divided at the brim into 5 teeth, which are nearly equal, but one is projected to a greater distance than the others; the petals are inserted into the receptacle; of which 4 are equal, linear, and a little longer than the calyx; the 5th is much the largest, inversely heart-shaped, and its unguis is of the length of the calyx; the 10 filaments are very short, and furnished with long antheræ; the germen is oblong; there is no style; the stigma is pointed; the fruit is a round berry. The balsam is obtained by making incisions in the bark of the tree, and is collected into spoons, which are made of black wax, from which it is poured into proper vessels. This balsam is of a reddish yellow colour, transparent, in consistence thick and tenacious; by age it grows so hard and brittle, that it may be rubbed into a powder between the finger and thumb. Its smell is extremely fragrant, somewhat resembling that of lemons; its taste is warm and sweetish, and on being chewed it adheres to the teeth. Thrown into the fire it immediately liquifies, takes flame, and disperses its agreeable odour. Though it does not dissolve in water, yet if boiled in it for two or three hours in a covered vessel, the water receives its odorous smell; water also suffers a similar impregnation from the balsam by distillation. With the assistance of mucilage it unites with water, so as to form a milky solution. It dissolves entirely in spirit of wine, and easily mixes with distilled oils, but less easily with expressed oils. Distilled without addition, it produces not only an empyreumatic oil, of a pale dark colour, but sometimes a small portion of a saline matter, similar to that of the flowers of benzoin. This balsam possesses the same general virtues with the balsam of Gilead, and that of Peru; it is, however, less heating and stimulating, and may therefore be employed with more safety. It has been chiefly used as a pectoral, and is said to be an efficacious corroborant in gleets and femoral weaknesses. It is directed by the Pharmacopœians in the syrupus tolutanus, tinctura tolutana, and syrupus balsamicus. See **PHARMACY**, *Index*.

* **TOLUTATION**, *n. s.* [*toluto*, Latin.] The act of pacing or ambling.—They move *per latera*, that is, two legs of one side together, which is *tolutation* or ambling. *Brown.*—

They

They rode; but authors having not
Determin'd whether pace or trot,
That is to say, whether *tulation*,
As they do term't, or succussion,
We leave it.

Hudibras.

TOLZ, a town of Germany, in Upper Bavaria; 24 miles S. of Munich, and 18 W. of Weilhaim.

(1.) **TOM**, a river of Russia, which rises in the government of Kolivan, 80 miles SE. of Kaznetz; and falls into the Oby, 32 m. WNW. of Tomsk: in Lon. 102. o. E. Ferro. Lat. 56. 40. N.

(2.) **TOM**, a river of China, which runs into the Heng, 5 miles S. of Heng-chan.

(3.) **TOM**, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Set-chuen: 32 miles ENE. of Kiating.

TOMA, one of the chief cities of Sus, in Morocco. See **SUS**, N° I.

TOMACO, a large river of S. America in Poyayan and Terra Firma.

(1.) **TOMAHAWK**. *n. f.* a weapon much used by the N. American Indians in their savage wars with each other, and with which they do a great deal of bloody execution; but we have met with no description of it.

(2.) **TOMAHAWK ISLAND**, an island on the E. coast of Patagonia; 24 miles NE. of Seals Bay.

TOMANI, a kingdom of Africa, seated on the W. of Kantor; extending about 72 miles along the banks of the Gambia.

TOMAR, a town of Portugal in Estremadura, on the Nabeon, on a pleasant plain at the foot of a mountain, 65 miles NE. of Lisbon. Lon. 7. 35. W. Lat. 39. 3. N.

TOMARUS. See **TMARUS**.

TOMATOES. See **SOLANUM**.

(1.) * **TOMB**. *n. f.* [*tombe, tombeau, Fr. tumba, low Latin.*] A monument in which the dead are enclosed.—

Dead in the bottom of a tomb.

Shak.

—Time is drawn upon tombs. *Peacbam.*—

Poor heart! she slumbers in her silent tomb.

Dryden.

On my tomb-stone thou shalt read

My answer to thy dubious verse.

Prior.

(2.) **TOMB** includes both the grave or sepulchre wherein a defunct is interred, and the monument erected to preserve his memory. The word is formed from the Greek *τομος*, *tumulus*, a sepulchre; or according to Menage, from the Latin *tumba*, which signifies the same.

(3.) **TOMBS, ANCIENT**. In many nations it has been customary to burn the bodies of the dead; and to collect the ashes with pious care into an urn, which was deposited in a tomb or sepulchre. See **BURIAL**, § 2; and **BURNING**, § 5. Among many nations it has also been the practice to lay the dead body in a tomb, without consuming it, after having wrapped it up decently, and sometimes placing it in a coffin. See **COFFIN**, § 2. The tombs of the Jews were generally hollow places hewn out of a rock. The Egyptians also buried their dead in caves, called *catacombs*. See **CATACOMBS**. The pyramids, as some think, were also employed for the same purpose. Sometimes also, after embalming their dead, they placed them in niches in some magnificent apartment in their houses.

(4.) **TOMBS, PERSIAN**. A tomb of the Persians is a circular building, open at top, about 55 feet diameter, and 25 feet in height, filled to within 5 feet of the top, excepting a well of 15 feet diameter in the centre. The part so filled is terraced, with a slight declivity toward the well. Two circular grooves three inches deep are raised round the well; the first at the distance of four, the second at ten, feet from the well. Grooves of the like depth or height, and four feet distant from each other at the outer part of the outer circle, are carried straight from the wall to the well, communicating with the circular ones, for the purpose of carrying off the water, &c. The tomb is thus divided into 3 circles of partitions: the outer, about 7 feet by 4; the middle, 6 by 3; the inner, 4 by 2; the outer for the men, the middle for the women, the inner for the children; in which the bodies are respectively placed, wrapped loosely in a piece of cloth, and left to be devoured by the vultures; which is very soon done. The friends of the deceased come at the proper time, and throw the bones into the well. The entrance is closed by an iron door, four feet square, on the eastern side, as high up as the terrace, to which a road is raised. Upon the wall, above the door, an additional wall is raised, to prevent people from looking into the tomb which the Persians are particularly careful to prevent. A Persian inscription is on a stone inserted over the door. From the bottom of the wall subterraneous passages lead to receive the bones, &c. and prevent the well from filling.

(5.) **TOMBS, RUSSIAN**. Of the ancient sepulchres found in Russia and Siberia, some are perfect tumuli, raised to an enormous height, while others are almost level with the ground. Some of them are encompassed with a square wall of large quarry stones placed in an erect position; others are covered only with a small heap of stones, or they are tumuli adorned with stones at top. Some are mured with brick within, and vaulted over; others are no more than pits or common graves. In some the earth is excavated several fathoms deep; others, and especially those which are topped by a lofty tumulus, are only dug of a sufficient depth for covering the carcase. Urns are never met with here. But sometimes what remained of the bodies after the combustion, and even whole carcases, are found wrapped up in thin plates of gold.

(6.) **TOMBS, TURKISH, MOORISH, &c.** The Moors hold it an irreverent thing to bury their dead in mosques. The burial grounds of all Mahometans are mostly without the city, and they inter the dead at the hour set apart for prayer. Their tombs are exceedingly simple, and have no pretensions to architectural elegance. Among the northern nations it was customary to bury their dead under heaps of stones called *cairns*, or under barrows: (See the articles **CAIRNS** and **BARROW**). The inhabitants of Tibet, it is said, neither bury nor burn their dead, but expose them on the tops of the mountains. See **TIBET**, § 10.

* **To TOMB**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To bury; to entomb.—

Youths, that tomb'd before their parents were.

May.

TOMBAC,

TOMBAC, } or **TOMBEC**. See **TOMBEC**.

TOMBECQUE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne; 9 miles NNE. of Tonnecins, and 12 NW. of Villeneuve d'Agenois.

TOMBEC, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Dyle, and ci-devant province of Aultrian Brabant; 8 miles S. of Louvain, and 10 E. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 49. E. Lat. 50. 45. N.

TOMBECKBEE, a large river of the United States, in Georgia, which rises in the country of the Chickasaw Indians; and thence running a long course E. and by S. at last unites with the Alabama, and forms the great river **MOBILE**.

(1.) **TOMBERLAINE**, an island of France, on the coast of the dep. of the Calvados, or ci-devant province of Normandy; seated in a gulf between Avranches and St. Malo. This island is every day joined to the continent at low water.

(2.) **TOMBERLAINE**, a town of France on the above island.

* **TOMBLESS**, *adj.* [from *tomb*.] Wanting a tomb; wanting a sepulchral monument.—

Lay these bones in an unworthy urn,

Tombless, with no remembrance over them. *Shak.*

* **TOMBOY**, *n. f.* [*Tom* a diminutive of *Thomas* and *boy*.] A mean fellow; sometimes a wild coarse girl.—

A lady.—Partner'd—With *tombboys*. *Shak.*

TOMBUCTOO, or } a large city in N. Africa,

TOMBUCTOU, } and capital of a kingdom

so named, of which very little is known with accuracy, as it has never been visited by any European. It is the largest on the Niger, Houssa only excepted; and contains from 60,000 to 80,000 inhabitants. Lon. 1. 33. E. Lat. 16. 30. N.

TOMBU, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, with its capital of the same name.

* **TOME**, *n. f.* [French; *tom*,] 1. One volume of many. 2. A book.—All those sacred *tom*es and volumes of holy writ. *Hooker.*

TOMEBAMBA, a town of Peru, in the prov. of Quilo; which had anciently an elegant temple of the Sun; the roof and walls of which, when the Spaniards arrived there, were covered with gold. It lies 120 miles S. of Quito. Lon. 77. 50. E. Lat. 4. 16. S.

TOMERIT, a mountain of European Turkey, in Albania; 12 miles E. of Dulcigno.

TOMEX, in botany, a genus of plants, of the class *Tetrandria*, and in the order of *Monogynia*; and in the natural method ranking under the 43d order, *Dumose*. They have flowers tetrapetalous and complete, having both calyx and corolla.

TOMGAN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Fokien; 25 miles NE. of Pa.

TOMHAL, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Yun-nan; 20 miles SW. of Ning.

TOMJANA, a province of Buenos Ayres; about 200 miles in extent, abounding with sheep and black cattle, fruits and vineyards. It is very fertile, and the climate is hot. Sugar is a principal article of commerce.

TOMINI, a town in the island of Celebes, on a bay to which it gives name. Lat. 0. 45. S.

TOMIS. See **TOMOS**.

TOMIS, a country between Cappadocia and Mount Taurus. *Strabo.*

TOMOS, or **TOMIS**, the capital of Lower Mysia, seated on the Euxine Sea; 36 miles from the mouth of the Danube. It was founded by a colony of Milesians, A. A. C. 633; and is famous for having been the place to which OVID was banished by Augustus. *Strabo*, 7.

TOMOTHEL, or } a town of the State of
TOMOTHLE, } Tennessee; 20 miles S. of
Tellico.

TOMPEQUE, a town of Mexico, in the province of Guaslec.

(1.) **TOMPION**, *n. f.* a sort of bung or cork used to stop the mouth of a cannon. At sea this is carefully encircled with tallow or putty, to prevent the penetration of the water into the bore, whereby the powder contained in the chamber might be damaged or rendered unfit for service.

(2.) **TOMPION**, Thomas, an English watch-maker of extraordinary merit, who flourished at London in the 17th century.

TOMPSONSTOWN, a town of Pennsylvania, in Mifflin county; 22 miles from Lewistown.

TOMQUAM, a town of Asia, in Corea, on the Tumen; 633 miles ENE. of Pekin. Lon. 147. 21. E. Ferro. Lat. 42. 52. N.

TOMSK, a city of Siberia, or Russian Tartary, in Tobolskoi, on the Tom. It was founded in the reign of Czar Theodor, the son of John, who erected first an *ostrog*, or village, on the spot, about 20 years before the building of Kufnetik, and afterwards built a fortress; so that in process of time, by the increase of population, it became a town; and it is now the 2d city in Siberia. On the highest part of it stands a strong wooden castle, mounted with 14 pieces of cannon. And it has a large cathedral, built also of wood; likewise the waywode's house, the governor's chancery, and a good arsenal. The lower part of the city is the most populous. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, for which the city is peculiarly well situated, as it lies on the high road from Eniseisk, and from the various towns in the E. and N. parts of Siberia. In this city are all kinds of artificers and tradesmen; and manufactures of various kinds are carried on in it. It is 168 miles NNE. of Kolivan, and 540 E. of Tobolsk, as Cruttwell has it; but Brookes and Walker make it only 105 ESE. of Tobolsk. Lon. 84. 59. E. Lat. 55. 45. N. or 56. 30. N.

TOMSKOIZOV, a town of Russia in the province of Kolivan; 80 miles ESE. of Kolivan.

TOMSOOK, *n. f.* in the language of Bengal, bond.

(1.) * **TOMTIT**, *n. f.* [See **TITMOUSE**.] A titmouse; a small bird.—You would fancy him a giant when you looked upon him, and a *tomtit* when you shut your eyes. *Spe&ator*.

(2.) **TOM-TIT**, in ornithology. See **PARUS**.

TOMYRIS. See **CYRUS**, N° 1.

(1.) **TON**, in geography, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in the province of Yunnan; 1150 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 118. 9. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 39. N.

(2.) * **TON**, *n. f.* [*tonne*, Fr. See **TUN**.] A measure or weight.—Ten thousand *ton*, of great shipping. *Bacon*.

(3.) **TON**. See **TUN**.

(4.) * **TON-TUN**. In the names of places, are derived

derived from the Saxon *tan*, a hedge or wall; and this seems to be from *dun*, a hill, the towns being anciently built on hills for the sake of defence and protection in times of war. *Gibson*.

(5.) **Ton**, in fashionable language, the fashion, the etiquette. It is used both as an adjective and as a substantive noun.

TONAL, a mountain of Germany, in Tirol; 28 miles NW. of Trent.

TONAWALD, a town of Bohemia, in Boleſlan. 10 miles NE. of Turnau.

TONCAT, **TUNKAT**, or **TUNGUT**, a town of Affia, in Turkeſtan, on the Sir; 50 miles NE. of Samarcand. Lon. 88. 45. E. of Ferro. Lat. 43. 10. N.

TONC-CHONG, a town of Tibet, 192 miles SE. of Laſſa.

TONDERGARTH, or **TUNDERGARTH**, a parish of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, about 14 miles long, and 1½ broad; comprehending the fides of a range of hills, which lie along the banks of the river MILK. The surface is generally level, but with ſufficient gentle riſings to render it romantically pictureſque. A great part of it is well cultivated. About 4000 ſheep are annually reared on the paſtures. The population, in 1796, was 510; the decrease 115, ſince 1755. The only antiquity is the ruinous old caſtle of Tondergarth, a chief feat of the lords of Annandale.

TONDEREN, or } an ancient town of Den-
TONDERN, } mark, in the duchy of Sleſ-
wick. The inhabitants have a great trade in corn, cattle, and laces. It is 22 miles S. of Ripen, and 37 NW. of Sleſwick. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 54. 58. N.

TONDIVANUM, a town of Hindooſtan, in the Carnatic, 15 miles S. of Wandiwash.

TONDORF, a town of Bohemia, in Konigin-gratz, 9 miles W. of Branau.

TONDRAY, an iſland of Scotland, one of the Shetland iſlands, about 6 miles in circuit, near the W. coaſt. Lon. 1. 41. E. of Edin. Lat. 60. 9. N.

TONDY, a town of Hindooſtan, in the Carnatic; 45 miles SSE. of Trumian, and 65 S. of Tanjore.

(1.) * **TONE**. *n. f.* [*ton*, Fr. *tonus*, Latin.] 1. Note; ſound.—Sounds called *tones* are ever equal. *Bacon*.—Strength of voice makes no difference in the *tone*. *Bacon*.—

Smooths her charming *tones*. *Milton*.

2. Accent; ſound of the voice.—

Eager his *tone*, and ardent were his eyes.

Dryden.

Each enunciates with a human *tone*. *Harte*.

3. A whine; a mournful cry.—

Made children, with your *tones*, to run for't.

Hudibras.

4. A particular or affected ſound in ſpeaking.

5. Elasticity; power of extenſion and contraction.—It may weaken the *tone* of the ſtomach. *Arbutb.*

(2.) **TONE**, or **TUNE**, in muſic, is a property of ſound, whereby it comes under the relation of *grave* and *acute*; or the degree of elevation any ſound has, from the degree of ſwiftness of the vibrations of the parts of the ſonorous body. The variety of tones in human voices ariſes partly from the dimensions of the windpipe, which, like a flute, the longer and narrower it is, the ſharper

the tone it gives; but principally from the head of the larynx or knot of the throat: the tone of the voice being more or leſs grave as the *rima* or cleft thereof is more or leſs open.

(3.) **TONE** is taken in four different ſenſes among the ancients: 1. For any ſound; 2. For a certain interval, as when it is ſaid the difference between the diapente and diateſſaron is a tone; 3. For a certain locus or compaſs of the voice, in which ſenſe they uſed the Dorian, Phrygian, Lydian tones; 4. For tenſion, as when they ſpeak of an acute, grave, or middle tone.

(4.) **TONE** is particularly uſed, in muſic, for a certain degree or interval of tune, whereby a ſound may be either raiſed or lowered from one extreme of a concord to the other, ſo as ſtill to produce true melody.

(5.) **TONE**, in geography, a river of England, in Somerſetſhire, which riſes 6 miles from Wivelſcomb, paſſes Taunton, and runs into the PARRET, between Langford and Bridgewater.

TONEDO, a town of Italy, in the dep. of the Panaro, and ci-devant duchy of Modena; anciently called TANETUM.

TONEWONTO, a town of New York, on a river ſo named; 15 miles E. of Niagara Falls.

(1.) **TONG**, 4 cities of China, of the 2d rank, in the provinces of Chenſi, Ho-nan, Kiang-nan, and Pe-tche-li.

(2.) * **TONG**. *n. f.* [See **TONGS**.] The catch of a buckle. This word is uſually written *tongue*, but, as its office is to hold, it has probably the ſame original with *tongs*, and ſhould therefore have the ſame orthography.—

Buckled with a golden *tong*.

Spenser.

TONGA, or } one of the FRIENDLY
TONGATABOO, } ISLANDS, in the S. Pa-
cific Ocean. It was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, who called it *Amſterdam*. See AMSTERDAM, N^o 11.

TONGE, **NEW** and **OLD**, 2 towns of Holland, in the iſland of Overſlakee, and dep. of the Delſt, 1½ miles S. of Sommerdyck.

TONGELREP, a river of Holland, in the dep. of the Dommel and Scheldt, which runs into the Dommel, near Eyndhoven.

TONGEREN, or } French empire, in the dep.
TONGERES, } of the Ourte, and ci-devant

TONGEREST, } biſhopric of Liege, ſeated on the Jeckar, 12 miles SW. of Mæſtricht, and 15 W. of Liege. Lon. 22. 56. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 48. N.

TONGERLOO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Ourte, and late biſhopric of Liege; 4 miles NW. of Stockem.

TONGLAND, or **TONGUELAND**, a pariſh of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightſhire, of a triangular form, 8 miles long, and 4 broad at the N. extremity, where the Tarff and Dee join, theſe rivers bounding it on the E. and W. ſides. The middle part is a ridge of mountains extending from N. to S. On the river banks, the ſurface is level, and the ſoil fertile; towards the N. ſtony, but arable. The population, in 1792, was 520; decrease 17, ſince 1755; the number of ſheep was 790; of black cattle about 1200. There are relics of an ancient priory of Præmonſtratenſians.

* **TONGS**. *n. f.* [*tang*, Saxon; *tang*, Dutch.]

An

An instrument by which hold is taken of any thing ; as of coals in the fire.—

Another did the dying brands repair

With iron *tongs*.

Spenser.

They turn with crooked *tongs*.

Dryden.

—Get a pair of *tongs* strong and toothed. *Mort.*

TONG-TCHOUEN, a city of China, of the first rank, in the prov. of Se-tchuen. It is strongly fortified, and is indeed a military city, the whole male inhabitants being bred soldiers from their infancy. These troops, in times of peace, are distributed in the different garrisons on the frontiers. It lies 1000 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 120. 48. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 20. N.

(1.) * **TONGUE**. *n. f.* [*tung*, Saxon; *tongue*, Dutch.] 1. The instrument of speech in human beings.—

My conscience hath a thousand several *tongues*,
And every *tongue* brings in a several tale. *Shak.*

Who with the *tongue* of angels can relate?

Milton.

—They are *tongue*-valiant. *L'Esrange.*—

Tongue-kill'd.

Dryden.

Tongue valiant hero.

Dryden.

—Hold her *tongue* five years together. *Addison.*
—Ready at their *tongue*'s end. *Locke.*—My *tongue* could pronounce. *Watts.* 2. The organ by which animals lick.

They hiss with forked *tongue*.

Milton.

3. Speech; fluency of words.—Silence all their *tongues* contain'd. *Chapman.*—Much *tongue* and much judgment seldom go together. *L'Esrange.*

Ever foremost in a *tongue* debate.

Dryden.

4. Power of articulate utterance.—

Parrots, imitating human *tongue*.

Dryden.

5. Speech, as well or ill used.—Keep a good *tongue* in thy head. *Shak.*—Inferiour farre in martiall deeds, though higher in his *tongue*. *Chapman.*

—On evil days though fallen and evil *tongues*. *Milton.* 6. A language.—Their *tongue* thou shalt not understand. *Deut.*

To speak at *tongues*.

Milton.

So well he understood the most and best

Of *tongue* that Babel sent into the West. *Cowley.*

—Acquaintance with the various *tongues*. *Watts.*

7. Speech, as opposed to thoughts or actions.—Let us not love in word, neither in *tongue*, but in deed and in truth. 1 *John.* 8. A nation distinguished by their language. A scriptural term.—

The Lord shall destroy the *tongue* of the Egyptian sea. *Isa.* 9. A small point; as, the *tongue* of a balance. 10. To hold the **TONGUE**. To be silent.—

'Tis seldom seen that senators so young

Know when to speak, and when to hold their *tongue*.

Dryden.

Whilst I live I must not hold my *tongue*. *Addison.*

(2.) **TONGUE**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

(3.) **TONGUE**, in geography, a parish of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, on the N. coast; about 11 miles long, and as many broad; of which only 714 acres are arable. The surface is hilly, a ridge of high mountains extending through the middle of it. **LOCH LAOCHAL** is the chief lake. The population, in 1791, was 1439, the increase 346, since 1755; the number of horses was 538; sheep 2846; that of black cattle 2142; and of goats 714. There are some relics of antiquity, par-

cularly one in memory of **DORNADILLA**, king of Scots.

(4.) **TONGUE**, a town in the above parish. Lon. 1. 0. W. of Edin. Lat. 58. 27. N.

(5.) **TONGUE BAY**, a spacious bay of Scotland, on the coast of the above parish.

(1.) * To **TONGUE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To chide; to scold.—

How might she *tongue* me.

Shak.

(2.) * To **TONGUE**. *v. n.* To talk; to prate.

'Tis still a dream; or else such stuff, as madmen

Tongue, and brain not.

Shak.

* **TONGUED**. *adj.* [from *tongue*.]—

Tongue'd like the night-crow.

Donne.

* **TONGUELESS**. *adj.* [from *tongue*.] 1.

Wanting a *tongue*; speechless.—

What *tongueless* blocks, would they not speak?

Shak.

Our grave shall have a *tongueless* mouth. *Shak.*

Even from the *tongueless* caverns of the earth.

Shak.

2. Unnamed; not spoken of.—

One good deed, dying *tongueless*.

Shak.

* **TONGUEPAD**. *n. f.* [*tongue* and *pad*.] A great talker.—She is called a *tonguepad*. *Tatler.*

* **TONGUETIED**. *adj.* [*tongue* and *tied*.] 1. Having an impediment of speech.—They who have short *tongues*, or are *tonguetied* are apt to fall short of the appulse of the *tongue* to the teeth. *Holder.* 2. Unable to speak freely from whatever cause.—

Love, and *tongue*'ty'd simplicity.

Shak.

He spar'd the blushes of the *tongue*'ty'd dame.

Tickel.

TONG-VOAN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in the prov. of Quang-tong; 37 miles W. of Hoi-tcheou.

TONGUSIANS, a people of Russian Tartary, who inhabit the E. part of Siberia. They are pagans, and subsist chiefly by hunting of fables, grazing cattle, &c. They live in moveable huts, erected of poles, and covered with skins, which they take down, when they change their place of residence. They are very strong, from their wandering life. Both sexes are very broad faced, and dress alike. The women also ride on horseback like the men, and wear boots of skins.

TONG-YANG, 3 towns of China, of the 3d rank, viz. 1. in the prov. of Kiang-si, 23 miles NE. of Touthcheou; 2. in that of Se-tchuen, 15 miles NE. of Ta; and 3. in that of Tche-kiang, 47 miles NW. of Hoi-tcheou.

TONHOFF, a lake of Norway, in Aggerhuus, 25 miles NW. of Christiania.

(1.) **TONIC**, *adj.* in medicine, tending to strengthen the part, or to restore its tone and functions.

(2.) **TONIC**, *n. f.* in music, signifies a certain degree of tension, or the sound produced by a vocal string in a given degree of tension, or by any sonorous body when put in vibration.

(3.) **TONIC**, says Rousseau, is likewise the name given by Aristoxenus to one of the three kinds of chromatic music, whose divisions he explains, and which was the ordinary chromatic of the Greeks, proceeding by two semitones in succession, and afterwards a third minor.

(4.) **TONIC**

(4.) **TONIC DOMINANT.** See **DOMINANT**, **FUGUE**, and **MUSIC**.

* **TONICAL.** } *adj.* [*tonique*, Fr. *tono*.] 1.

* **TONICK.** } Being extended; being elastic.—Station is no rest, but one kind of motion, relating unto that which physicians do name extensive or *tonical*. *Brown*. 2. Relating to tones or sounds.

TONISKA, a town of Russia, in the province of Irkutskoi; 40 miles ESE. of Stretensk.

TONKER. See **LASSA**.

TONNA, a town of Saxony, in Saxe-Gotha, 6 miles N. of Gotha.

(1.) * **TONNAGE.** *n. s.* [from *ton*.] A custom or impost due for merchandise carried from or to other nations, after a certain rate in every ton. *Coovel.*—*Tonnage* and poundage upon merchandizes. *Clarendon*.

(2.) **TONNAGE** and **POUNDAGE**, an ancient duty on wine and other goods, the origin of which seems to have been this: About the 21st of Edward III. complaint was made that merchants were robbed and murdered on the seas. The king thereupon, with the consent of the peers, levied a duty of 2s. on every ton of wine, and 12d. in the pound on all goods imported; which was treated as illegal by the commons. About 25 years after, the king, when the knights of shires were returned home, obtained a like grant from the citizens and burgesses, and the year after it was regularly granted in parliament. These duties were diminished sometimes, and sometimes increased; at length they seem to have been fixed at 3s. tonnage, and 12s. poundage. They were at first usually granted only for a stated term of years, as for two years in 5 Richard II.; but in Henry VI.'s time they were granted him for life by a statute in the 1st year of his reign; and again to Edward IV. for the term of his life also; since which time they were regularly granted to all his successors for life, sometimes at the first, sometimes at other subsequent parliaments, till the reign of Charles I.; when these imposts were imprudently and unconstitutionally levied without consent of parliament, for 15 years, which was one of the causes of the unhappy discontents. At the restoration this duty was granted to King Charles II. for life, and so it was to his two immediate successors; but now, by three several statutes, 9 Ann. c. 6. 1 Geo. I. c. 12. and 3 Geo. I. c. 7. it is made perpetual, and mortgaged for the debt of the public.

(1.) **TONNAY BOUTONNE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente, and late prov. of Saintonge, 10½ miles W. of Rochfort, and 7½ W. of St Jean d'Angely. Lon. o. 34 W. Lat. 45; 58. N.

(2.) **TONNAY CHARENTE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente; 3 miles E. of Rochfort, and 15 NW. of Saintes. Lon. o. 36 W. Lat. 45. 56. N.

TONNEINS, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, and late prov. of Guienne; seated on the Garonne; 7 miles E. of Marmande.

(1.) **TONNERE**, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne, and late prov. of Burgundy, famous for its excellent wines. It is seat-

ed on the Armançon, 27 miles E. of Troyes, and 102 E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 4. E. Lat. 47. 51. N.

(2.) **TONNERE, MONT.** See **MONT-TONNERE**. **TONNINGEN**, a town of Denmark, capital of Eiderstadt, on the Eider, 2 miles from Hufum. The proper name is **TONNING**, and it is only foreigners who lengthen it into **TONNINGEN**. It boasts of neither artificial nor natural beauties, and the atmosphere is humid, cold, and uncomfortable. In February 1803, when the last census was taken, the population amounted to 1934, but it has since increased to 4000 at least, in consequence of the blockade of the Elbe, (1804) which occasioned the whole of the British trade to pass through it, and very much enriched the place.

TONON. See **THONON**.

TONQUIN, a kingdom of Asia, in the East Indies, beyond the Ganges; bounded on the N. by the province of Yunnan in China, on the E. by that of Canton and the bay of Tonquin, on the S. by Cochinchina, and on the W. by Laos. It is about 1200 miles long, and 500 broad; and is one of the most considerable kingdoms of the East, as well on account of the number of its inhabitants, as its riches, and trade. The country abounds with villages; and the natives are of a middle stature, with a tawny complexion. They are generally dexterous, nimble, active, and ingenious in mechanic arts. They weave fine silks, and make curious lacker-works. They are much addicted to gaming. The garments of the Tonquinese are made either of silk or cotton. Their houses are small and low. In the capital city called *Cacho*, there are about 20,000 houses with mud-walls, and covered with thatch; a few are built with brick, and roofed with pan-tiles. The principal streets are, very wide, and paved with small stones. The king of Tonquin has 3 palaces in it. The house of the English factory is the best in the city. The people are civil to strangers; but the great men are proud, haughty, and ambitious; the soldiers insolent, and the poor thievish. They buy all their wives, of which the great men have several. Even the great men will offer their daughters to the merchants and officers who are likely to stay six months in the country. They are not afraid of being with child; for if they are girls, they can sell them well when they are young, because they are fairer than the other inhabitants. These women are said to be very faithful; and are trusted with money and goods by the Europeans during their absence, and will make great advantage with them. The first new moon in the year that happens after the middle of January, is a great festival; when they rejoice for 10 or 12 days together, and spend their time in all manner of sports. Their common drink is tea, but they make themselves merry with arrack. The language is spoken very much in the throat; and some of the words are pronounced through the teeth, and has a great resemblance to the Chinese. Their commodities are gold, musk, silks, calicoes, drugs of many sorts, woods for dyeing, lacquered wares, earthen wares, salt, aniseeds, and worm-seeds. The goods imported, besides silver, are saltpetre, sulphur, English broad cloth, pepper, spices, and great guns.

TONSA, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Mariza, near Adrianople; in Rumania.

TONSBERG, a sea port town of Norway, in the prov. of Aggerhuus, seated on a bay of the Baltic, built in the 10th century. It had once 9 churches, but has now only two. In 1536, it was burnt by the Swedes. The people carry on a great trade in furs, and in butter. It lies 42 miles S. of Christiania. Lon. 10. 34. E. Lat. 59. 14. N.

TONSET, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus, 145 miles N. of Christiania.

(1.) * **TONSIL**. *n. f.* [*tonfille*, Fr. *tonfille*, Lat.] — *Tonfils* or almonds are two round glands placed on the sides of the basis of the tongue, under the common membrane of the fauces, with which they are covered; each of them hath a large oval sinus, which opens into the fauces, and in it there are a great number of lesser ones, which discharge themselves, through the great sinus, of a mucous and slippery matter, into the fauces, larynx, and œsophagus, for the moistening and lubricating these parts. *Quincy*.

(2.) **TONSILS**. See *ANATOMY*, 535—541.

TONSTALL, Cuthbert, a learned English prelate, born in 1476. He studied at Oxford, Cambridge, and Padua; and was the best mathematician of his age. He was made Bp. of London in 1523; lord privy seal; and in 1530, Bp. of Durham. But in 1559, he was ejected by Q. Elizabeth, and died in prison that year. He published some tracts on religion; and a treatise *De Arte Subputandi*. Lond. 1523, 4to.

(1.) * **TONSURE**. *n. f.* [*tonsure*, Fr. *tonsure*, Lat.] The act of clipping the hair; the state of being shorn.—The vestals, after having received the *tonsure*. *Addison*.

(2.) **TONSURE**, in ecclesiastical history, a particular manner of shaving or clipping the hair of ecclesiastics or monks. The ancient tonsure was only cutting the hair to a moderate degree, for the sake of decency and gravity; but the Romans make the candidate kneel before the bishop, who cuts the hair in five different parts of the head, viz. before, behind, on each side, and on the crown.

TONTINE. *n. f.* a loan given for life annuities with benefit of survivorship; so called from the inventor Laurence Tonti, a Neapolitan. He proposed his scheme in 1653 to reconcile the people to cardinal Mazarine's government, by amusing them with the hope of becoming suddenly rich. He obtained the consent of the court, but the parliament would not register the edict. He made attempts afterwards, but without success. It was not till Lewis XIV. was distressed by the league of Augsbourg, and by his own immense expences, that he had recourse to the plans of Tonti. By an edict in 1689, he created a Tontine royale of 3,400,000 livres annual-rent, divided into 14 classes. The actions were 300 livres a-piece, and the proprietors were to receive 10l. per cent. with benefit of survivorship in every class. This scheme was executed but very imperfectly. A few years after, another tontine was erected upon nearly the same terms; but this was never above half full.

They both subsided in 1746, when the French king united the 13th class of the first tontine with the 14th of the second; all the actions of which were possessed by Charlotte Bonnemay, widow of Lewis Barbier, a surgeon of Paris, who died at the age of 96. This gentlewoman had ventured 300 livres in each tontine; and in the last year of her life she had for her annuity 73,500 livres, or about 3600l. a year, for about 30l. The nature of the tontine is this; there is an annuity, after a certain rate of interest, granted to a number of people, divided into classes, according to their respective ages; so that annually the whole fund of each class is divided among the survivors of that class; till at last it falls to one, and upon the extinction of that life, reverts to the power by which the tontine was erected, and which becomes thereby security for the due payment of the annuities.

TON TING, a large lake of China, in the prov. of Houquang; 60 miles long, and from 17 to 25 broad. Lon. 125. 8. to 130. 15. E. Ferro Lat. 28. 44. to 29. 30. N.

TONVORE, a cape of Scotland, on the NW. coast of the isle of Illey. Lon. 3. 24. W. of Edin. Lat. 55. 51. N.

* **TOO**, *adv.* [*to*, Saxon.] 1. Over and above; overmuch; more than enough. It is used to augment the signification of an adjective or adverb to a vicious degree.—

Too strong to bend, *too* proud to learn. Cow.—Groundless prejudices mislead *too* many, otherwise good men. *Spratt*.—It is *too* much to build a doctrine of so mighty consequence upon so obscure a place of scripture. *Locke*.—These ridiculous stories abide with us *too* long. *Watts*. 2. It is sometimes doubled to encrease its emphasis; but this reduplication always seems harsh, and is therefore laid aside.—

Oh, that this *too too* solid flesh would melt. *Shak.*

Sometimes it would be full, and then Oh! *too too* soon decrease again. *Suckling*.
3. Likewise; also.—

I, for winking at your discords *too*
Have lost a brace of kinsmen. *Shak.*
Let those incite to quarrels *too*. *Oldham*.
—It is evident from experience *too*. *South*.—It is better *too* than borrowing money. *Locke*.—

A courtier and a patriot *too*. *Pope*.
Behold the vengeance *too*. *Pope*.
TOOBOOO!, one of the SOCIETY ISLANDS. It is about 6 miles in extent.

* **TOOK**, the preterite, and sometimes the participle passive of *take*.—

Thy soldiers *took* their discharge. *Shak.*
—We are not *took* upon advantages. *South*.—
The thunder clap *took* us unprepared. *Dryd.*
—When the thought *took*. *Addison*.—This *took* up some hours every day. *Spectator*.—One of the hunters *took* my foot, shoe and all. *Swift*.
Leaving Polybius, I *took* my way. *Pope*.

(1.) **TOOKE**, Andrew, M. A. a learned divine and teacher, born at London, in 1673. He was educated at the Charter-House, whence he removed to Clare-Hall, Cambridge. He became master of the Charter-house, and professor of geometry.

metry at Gresham collègè. He published *Pomey's Pantheon* in English, but without acknowledging the author. He died in 1731.

(2.) **TOOKE**, George, an English poet, born in 1595. He served as captain of volunteers in the expedition against Cadiz, in 1625, and published the particulars in a poem. He also wrote *Canzonets* to the memory of his wife. He died in 1675.

(3.) **TOOKE**, the Rev. John Horne. A life of this singular character was published in the course of the present year by William Hamilton Reid; but it supplies very little of that important information which we expected; nor have we it in our power to lay such an account of Mr Tooke's remarkable life before our readers as we wish. He was educated at the Eton school, and the freedom of his remarks is said to have rendered him obnoxious, even at that early period, to his superiors. He afterwards removed to St John's college, Cambridge, where he also created himself enemies, by similar liberality (perhaps licentiousness) of opinion. At the usual period he appears to have taken orders in the established church; but whether he ever served any cure we cannot clearly ascertain. He espoused with zeal and success the cause of Mr Wilkes at Brentford. Soon after he set on foot a subscription for the relief of the widows, orphans, and aged parents of the Americans, whom he described as *murdered at Lexington* by the king's troops. He was prosecuted for his advertisement on this subject, found guilty of a libel, and committed to prison. He is said to have been the chief cause of obtaining the regular publication of the speeches in parliament, which, whether on the whole it has been an advantage or disadvantage to the state, we will not venture to decide. We are very certain, that in the peculiarly difficult and distressing period, as it has been almost uninterruptedly, which followed the publication, it has been often advantageous to the enemy, and in so far disadvantageous to the country. The question is too complicated for discussion within our narrow limits. Mr Tooke appears to have sided, in his political views, neither with the opposition nor the ministry. He treated both parties occasionally with almost equal keenness of satire. In the year 1794, he was brought to trial for high treason, and acquitted. He was afterwards returned to parliament by the city of Westminster. His right to sit was challenged by Lord Temple, on account of his being in holy orders. It was not found easy to decide the question. Mr Tooke was therefore allowed to keep his seat during that parliament, and a declaratory act was passed to prevent the clergy from sitting in the House of Commons in future. He lived for many years at Wimbledon, and died at an advanced age. Sir Francis Burdett, the wildest of all our modern politicians, was his latest friend and pupil, and is understood to have acted by Mr Tooke's advice in every extravagant act of his public life, particularly in resisting the warrant of the speaker of the House of Commons to commit him to the tower—a resistance which cost several lives; on account of which, in a court of conscience, we should certainly deem Sir Francis and his adviser morally guilty of something very nearly approaching to murder. Mr Tooke

was a man of neat talents and profound literature. His *diversions of Purley* have deservedly raised his fame very high as a philosophical grammarian; though it will probably now be generally allowed, that he certainly carried his etymological inquiries to an extravagant length. We cannot consider Mr Tooke as having been either a useful citizen or a respectable member of Society. He renounced and ridiculed his sacred profession, and probably retained no principle of religion of any kind. In his political principles and conduct he was wild and extravagant, though generally artful and plausible. In his moral conduct he was sufficiently incorrect; and in his conversation he was shamefully licentious on the subject of women, even in the last period of his life, when such corruption admits of no excuse. We have heard this humiliating fact confirmed by men who witnessed it, and who mentioned, not because they blamed it, but because they were amused by it and thought it curious. Mr Tooke was a man of great acuteness and learning; but, without moral and religious principle, we can never esteem a man truly great, either as a patriot or an individual. Yet he has his partisans, especially among the angry retailers of periodical criticism under the form of political opposition. By one of these *suffe* men of words, we are gravely told, that "while the select of the nation are shedding crocodile tears over departed venality (Mr Perceval we presume!), and decreeing sculptured honours to the despoilers of provinces (we know not whom the wiseacre means), the nation itself (*i. e.* a few discontented individuals) has accepted into the treasure of its best affection a patriot, to whom it is indebted for its firmest stronghold against the inroads of corruption and oppression!!!"

(1.) * **TOOL**. *n. f.* [*tol*, *tool*, Saxon.] 1. Any instrument of manual operation.—Pierce it deeper with a *tool*. *Bacon*.—Knives, axes, and the like *tools* of iron. *Heylyn*.—

Arm'd with such gard'ning *tools*. *Milton*.—The ancients had some secret to harden the edges of their *tools*. *Addison*. 2. A hireling; a wretch who acts at the command of another.—

And scorn the *tools* with stars and garters.

Swift.

(2.) A **TOOL**, among mechanics, denotes in general any small instrument used for making other complex instruments and machines, or in other operations in the mechanic arts.

TOOLIAPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad; 45 miles ESE. of Perinda, and 144 NW. of Hydrabad.

TOOMHEWADY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 8 miles SW. of Caroor.

TOOMISH, a mountain of Ireland, in Kerry; W. of Lough Lane, and 14 miles S. of Tralee.

TOONE, a river of Ireland, which runs into the Lee, 15 miles W. of Cork.

TOORAMBADDY, a town of Hindoostan, in Mylore; 13 miles WNW. of Aravacourchy.

TOORGUL, a territory of Hindoostan, in the country of the MAHRATTAS.

TOOSHOOH, a town of Hindoostan, in Mylore; 5 miles ESE. of Nameul.

* To **TOOT**. *v. n.* [O! this word, in this sense, G g g 2 I know

I know not the derivation: perhaps *totan*, Saxon, contracted from *topetan*, to know or examine.] 1. To pry; to peep; to search narrowly and sily. It is still used in the provinces; otherwise obsolete.

For birds and bulhes *tooting*. Spenser.

2. It was used in a contemptuous sense, which I do not fully understand.—

This writer should wear a *tooting* horn. Howel.

(1.) * **TOOTH**. *n. f.* plural *teeth*. [*toth*, Saxon; *tand*, Dutch.] The *teeth* are the hardest and smoothest bones of the body; about the seventh or eighth month they begin to pierce the edge of the jaw; the *dentes incisivi*, or *fore teeth* of the upper jaw, appear first, and then those of the lower jaw: after them come out the *canini* or *eye teeth*, and last of all the *molars* or *grinders*; about the seventh year they are thrust out by new *teeth*, and if these *teeth* be lost they never grow again; but some have shed their *teeth* twice; about the one-and-twentieth year, the two last of the *molars* spring up, and they are called *dentes sapientie*. Quincy.—

Tooth that poisons if it bites. Shak.

A forced residence against the *tooth* of time. Shak.

—The *teeth* alone among the bones continue to grow in length during a man's whole life. Ray. 2. Taste; palate.

These are not dishes for thy dainty *tooth*. Dryden.

3. A tine, prong, or blade, of any multifid instrument.—A flesh hook of three *teeth*. 1 Sam.—I made an instrument in fashion of a comb, with two *teeth*. Newton. 4. The prominent part of wheels, by which they catch upon correspondent parts of other bodies.—The edge whereon the *teeth* are is always made thicker than the back. Moxon.—In clocks, though the screws and *teeth* be never so smooth. Ray. 5. **TOOTH** and *nail*. With one's utmost violence; with every means of attack or defence.—A lion and bear were at *tooth* and *nail*. L'Estrange. 6. To the **TEETH**. In open opposition.—

That I shall live and tell him to his *teeth*, Thus diddest thou. Shak.

Ev'n to the *teeth* and forehead of our faults. Shak.

—We shall meet 'em full in the *teeth*. Dryden. 7. To cast in the **TEETH**. To insult by open exprobration.—Might cast him therewith in the *teeth*. Hooker. 8. In spite of the **TEETH**. Notwithstanding threats expressed by shewing teeth; notwithstanding any power of injury or defence.—In despite of the *teeth* of all rhyme and reason. Shak.—This lot they must bear in spite of their *teeth*. L'Estrange. 9. To shew the **TEETH**. To threaten.

When the law shews her *teeth*. Young.

(2.) **TOOTH**. See ANATOMY, Index; at **TEETH**. * To **TOOTH**. *v. a.* [*from tooth*.] 1. To furnish with teeth; to indent.—

Then saws were *tooth'd*. Dryden.

—Both the edges *toothed*. Grev.—Get a pair of tongs *toothed* at the end. Mortimer. 2. To lock in each other.—It is common to *tooth* in the stretching course two inches with the stretcher only. Moxon.

(1.) * **TOOTHACH**. *n. f.* [*tooth* and *ach*.] Pain in the teeth.—

There never yet was a philosopher

That could endure the *toothach* patiently. Shak.

He that sleeps feels not the *toothach*. Shak.

I have the *toothach*.

—What, sigh for the *toothach*? Shak.

—One was gone desperate with the *toothach*. Temple.

(2.) **TOOTHACH**. See MEDICINE, and SURGERY, Indexes; **TEETH**, and ELECTRICITY, Index.

TOOTHACH TREE. See ZANTHOXYLUM.

* **TOOTHDRAWER**. *n. f.* [*tooth* and *draw*.] One whose business it is to extract painful teeth.—

Native with Scots, as *toothdrawers*, hath dealt. Cleaveland.

—When the teeth are to be dislocated, a *tooth-drawer* is consulted. Wifeman.

* **TOOTHED**. *adj.* [*from tooth*.] Having teeth.

* **TOOTHLESS**. *adj.* [*from tooth*.] Wanting teeth; deprived of teeth.—

Sunk are her eyes, and *toothless* are her jaws. Dryden.

—A narrow and *toothless* snout. Ray.

* **TOOTH PICK**. } *n. f.* [*tooth* and *pick*.] An

* **TOOTH PICKER**, } instrument by which the teeth are cleaned from any thing sticking between them.—I will fetch you a *toothpicker*. Shak.

He and his *toothpick* at my worship's mess. Shak.

—There will hardly be found enough wood to make a *toothpick*. Howel.—If *toothpicks* of the lentick be wanting, of a quill then make a *toothpick*. Sandys. Lentick is a beautiful ever green, and makes the best *toothpickers*. Mortimer.

* **TOOTH SOME**. *adj.* [*from tooth*.] Palatable; pleasing to the taste.—Some are good to be eaten while young, but nothing *toothsome* as they grow old. Carew.

* **TOOTH SOMEMENESS**. *n. f.* [*from toothsome*.] Pleasantness to the taste.

(1.) * **TOOTHWORT**. *n. f.* [*dentaria*, Latin.] A plant. Miller.

(2.) **TOOTHWORT**. See PLUMBAGO.

TOOTOONAH, or **ERRONAN**, an island in the S. Pacific ocean, and one of the most eastern of the New Hebrides, about 15 miles in circumference.

(1.) * **TOP**. *n. f.* [*topp*, Welsh; *top*, Saxon; *top*, Dutch and Danish; *topper*, a crest, Islandick.] 1. The highest part of any thing.—

Vailing her high *top* lower than her ribs. Shak.

He wears upon his baby brow the round

And *top* of sovereignty. Shak.

Here is a mount, whose *toppe* seems to despise The farre inferior vale. Brown.

—Here Sodom's tow'rs raise their proud *tops* on high. Cowley.—Thou nor on the *top* of old Olympus dwell't. Milton.—One poor roof, made of poles meeting at the *top*. Heylyn.—It has the narrowest *top*. Temple.—Which having touch'd the *top* recoils. Clavel.—Marine bodies are found upon hills, and at the bottom only such as have fallen down from their *tops*. Woodw. 2. The surface; the superficies.—Such trees spread their roots near the *top* of the ground. Bacon.

Shallow

Shallow brooks that flow'd to clear,

The bottom did the top appear. *Dryden.*

3. The highest place.—He that will not let himself proudly at the top of all things. *Locke*.—Turn him off when he is at the top? *Swift*. 4. The highest person.—He, which is the top of judgment. *Shak.* 5. The utmost degree.—Zeal is the top and perfection of many religious affections. *Spratt*.—The top of your desires in fame. *Pope*.—The top of my ambition. *Pope*. 6. The highest rank.—A boy from the top of a grammar school. *Locke*. 7. The crown of the head.—Vengeance fall—on her ungrateful top! *Shak.*—From the top to toe. *Shak.* 8. The hair on the crown of the head; the forelock.—Take the infant by the forward top. *Shak.* 9. The head of a plant.—The buds are called heads or tops. *Watts*. 10. [Top, Danish.] An inverted conoid which children set to turn on the point, continuing its motion with a whip.—Since I whipt top. *Shak.*—For as whipt top. *Hudibras*.—Young striplings whip the top for sport. *Dryden*.—Like tops, are lashed asleep. *Pope*.—A top may be used with propriety in a similitude by a Virgil. *Broom*. 11. Top is sometimes used as an adjective to express lying on the top, or being at the top.—The top stones laid in clay are kept together. *Mortimer*.

(2.) TOP, in ship-building, a sort of platform, surrounding the lower mast-head, from which it projects on all sides like a scaffold. The principal intention of the top is to extend the top-mast shrouds, so as to form a greater angle with the mast, and thereby give an additional support to the latter. It is sustained by certain timbers fixed across the hounds or shoulders of the mast, and called the *RESTLE-TREES* and *cross-trees*.—Besides the use above-mentioned, the top is otherwise extremely convenient to contain the materials necessary for extending the small sails, and for fixing or repairing the rigging and machinery with more facility and expedition. In ships of war it is used as a kind of redoubt, and is accordingly fortified for attack or defence; being furnished with swivels, musketry, and other fire-arms, and guarded by a thick fence of corded hammocks. Finally it is employed as a place for looking out, either in the day or night.

(3.) TOP, in geography, a lake of Russian Olenetz; 48 miles long and 4 broad; 256 miles WNW. of Petrovadtik.

(1.) * To TOP, v. a. 1. To cover on the top; to tip; to defend or decorate with something extrinsic on the upper part.—The temple topped with golden spires. *Milton*.—Moving mountains top with snow. *Waller*.—Topped with a cupola. *Addison*.—Top the bank with the bottom of the ditch. *Morr*. 2. To rise above.—A gourd topped and covered the tree. *L'Estr*. 3. To outgo; to surpass.—Topping all others in boasting. *Shak.*—So far he topped my thought. *Shak.*—Why should such a man top me? *Collier*. 4. To crop.—Top your rose-trees a little. *Evelyn*. 5. To rise to the top of.—Wind about till thou hast topped the hill. *Denham*. 6. To perform eminently; as, be tops his part. This word, in this sense, is seldom used but on light or ludicrous occasions.

(2.) * To TOP, v. n. [from the noun.] 1. To

rise aloft; to be eminent.—Lofty and topping mountains. *Derham*.—Some letters top it over their fellows. *Addis*. 2. To predominate.—The thoughts of the mind are influenced by that topping uneasiness. *Locke*. 3. To excel.—But write thy best and top. *Dryden*.

* TOPARCH, n. f. [from *topos* and *arche*.] The principal man in a place.—They are not potent monarchs, but toparchs, or kings of narrow territories. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

* TOPARCHY, n. f. [from *toparch*.] Command in a small district.

TOPAYAS, a river of America, in Brasil, which runs into the Amazon.

(1.) * TOPAZ, n. f. [topaze, Fr. *topazius*, low Latin.] A yellow gem.—The golden stone is the yellow topaz. *Bacon*.—The topbas sent from scorched Meroc? *Sandys*.—With light's own smile the yellow topaz burns. *Thomson*.

(2.) TOPAZ, in mineralogy, a gem called by the ancients CHRYSOLITE, as being of a gold colour; but now ranked as only a variety of the SAPPHIRE. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Class I. Ord. I. Gen. I. The finest topazes in the world are found in the East Indies; but they are very rare there of any great size: the Great Mogul, however, possesses one which is said to weigh 157 carats, and to be worth more than 20,000l. The topazes of Peru are next in beauty and in value. The European are principally found in Silesia and Bohemia, and are generally full of cracks and flaws, and of a brownish yellow. Very beautiful stones of this kind are found in ARRAN and CAIRNGORM, in Scotland.

(3.) TOPAZ, in geography, an island in the Red Sea, so named, according to Pliny, from *topazos*, to seek, being often surrounded with fog, and difficult to find. It was famous for topazes. See *Plin.* lib. xxxvii. c. 8.

TOPDALS, a town of Norway, in Christianland; 32 miles N. of Christianland.

TOPE, in ichthyology, a species of SQUALUS.

* To TOPE, v. n. [topff, German, an earthen pot; *toppen*, Dutch, to be mad. *Skinner* prefers the latter etymology; *tope*, French.] To drink hard; to drink to excess.—If you *tope* in form and treat. *Dryden*.

TOPEL, or TOPL, a town of Bohemia, in Pilsen; 24 m. NW. of Pilsen, and 56 W. of Prague.

* TOPER, n. f. [from *tope*.] A drunkard.

* TOPEFUL, adj. [top and full.] Full to the top; full to the brim.—Their souls are topeful of offence. *Shak.*—The tube continued topeful of water. *Boyle*.—Topeful of himself. *Watts*.—Fill the tankard-cup topeful. *Swift*.

* TOPGALLANT, n. f. [top and gallant.] 1. The highest sail. 2. It is proverbially applied to any thing elevated, or splendid.—A rose grew out of another, like honeyuckles, called top and top-gallants. *Bacon*.—Topgallant sparks. *L'Estrange*.

* TOPHACEOUS, adj. [from *tophus*, Latin.] Gritty; stony.—They precipitate a tephaceous chalky matter. *Arbuthnot*.

* TOPHEAVY, adj. [top and heavy.] Having the upper part too weighty for the lower.—A roof should not be too heavy nor too light; but of the two a house topeheavy is the worst. *Watson*.—Top-heavy

heavy drones. *Dryden*.—*Topheavy* buildings. *Daven.*—As to stiff gales *topheavy* pines how low. *Pope*.

(1.) * **TOPHET**. *n. s.* [from Heb. *a drum*.] Hell; a scriptural name.—*Tophet* thence—the type of hell. *Milt.*—Fire and darkneſs are here mingled with all other ingredients that make that *tophet* prepared of old. *Burnet*.

(2.) **TOPHET**. See BEN-HINNOM, GEHENNA, and MOLOCH. Also SACRIFICE, § 6.

TOPHUS, in medicine, a chalky or ſtony concretion in any part of the body; as the bladder, kidney, &c. but eſpecially the joints.

TOPIC, *n. s.* See **TOPICK**.

* **TOPICAL**. *adj.* [from *topos*.] 1. Relating to ſome general head. 2. Local; confined to ſome particular place.—*Topical* arguments. *White*.—An argument from authority is but a weaker kind of proof; it being but a *topical* probation. *Brown*.—Evidences of fact can be no more than *topical* and probable. *Hale*.—What then ſhall be rebellion? ſhall it be more than a *topical* ſin? *Holyday*. 3. Applied medically to a particular part.—Only to be cured by *topical* remedies. *Ar ſuhot*.

* **TOPICALLY**. *adv.* [from *topical*.] With application to ſome particular part.—This *topically* applied becomes a phænigmus. *Brown*.

(1.) * **TOPICK**. *n. s.* [*topique*, Fr. *topos*.] 1. Principle of perſuaſion.—No *topicks* can work upon them. *Wilkins*.—Thoſe are invidious *topicks*. *Dryd*.—Let them argue over all the *topicks* of divine goodneſs and human weakneſs. *South*.—The *topicks* are brought from Scripture. *Swift*. 2. A general head; ſomething to which other things are referred.—All arts and ſciences have ſome general ſubjects, called *topicks*, or common places. *Watts*. 3. Such things as are externally applied to any particular part.—In the cure of ſtruma, the *topicks* ought to be diſcutient. *Wiſeman*.

(2.) **TOPICS**, in oratory. See **ORATORY**.

(3.) **TOPICS**, or **TOPICAL MEDICINES**, are the ſame with the external ones, or thoſe applied outwardly to ſome diſeaſed and painful parts; ſuch are plaſters, cataplaſms, unguents, &c.

* **TOPKNOT**. *n. s.* [*top* and *knot*.] A knot worn by women on the top of the head.—Take away his *topknot*, and make an aſs of him again. *L'Eſtr*.

TOPL. See **TOPEL**.

TOPLADY, Auguſtus Montague, M. A. a late celebrated Engliſh divine, born at Farnham in Surry, in 1735; and educated at Weſtminſter and Dublin. He became vicar of Broadhembury, Devonſhire; but removed to London for his health, where he died in 1778. He wrote *Hiſtoric Proof of the Doctrinal Calvinism of the Church of England*; and other works, in 6 vols. 8vo.

* **TOPLESS**. *adv.* [from *top*.] Having no top.—A *topleſs* height. *Chapman's Iliad*.

TOPLITZ, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz, 14 miles WNW. of Leitmeritz. The Auſtrians defeated the Pruſſians near it, in 1762. *Toplitz* is a well frequented watering-place. The water is conſidered as peculiarly uſeful in rheumatic caſes, and the baths are accordingly much frequented by patients of this deſcription,

TOPLIWODA, a town of Sileſia, in Troppau, 7 miles NW. of Munſterberg.

TOPOLOCZA, a town of Hungary, 14 miles S. of St Crot.

TOPLUC, a town of Hungary, 20 miles SSW. of Podolicz.

TOPOLEVA, a town and fort of Ruſſia, in the province of Caucaſus, on the Ural, 40 miles N. of Guriev.

TOPOLITZA, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, 12 miles SW. of Niemeetz.

TOPOLTZAN, 2 towns of Hungary: 1. with a fort, 12 miles NW. of Bukans: 2. 48 miles NE. of Preſburg, and 68 E. of Vienna. Lon. 25. 54. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 34. N.

* **TOPMAN**. *n. s.* [*top* and *man*.] The ſawer at the top.—The pit-ſaw enters the one end of the ſtuff, the *topman* at the top, and the pitman under him, the *topman* obſerving to guide the ſaw exactly in the line. *Moxon's Mech. Exercice*.

TOP MAST, *n. s.* the ſecond diviſion of a maſt, or that part which ſtands between the upper and lower pieces. See **MAST**.

* **TOPMOST**. *adj.* [An irregular ſuperlative formed from *top*.] Uppermoſt; higheſt.—Bees.—Upon the *topmoſt* branch alight. *Dryd. En.*—In hopes the *topmoſt* cliff to gain. *Addis*.—A ſprightly youth above the *topmoſt* row. *Addison*.

* **TOPOGRAPHER**. *n. s.* *topos* and *γραφω*.] One who writes deſcriptions of particular places.

* **TOPOGRAPHY**. *n. s.* [*topographie*, Fr. *topos* and *γραφω*.] Deſcription of particular places.—*Topography* of the extramundane ſpaces. *Glanv.*—The *topography* of Suimo in the Latin makes but an awkward figure. *Cromwell*.

* **TOPPING**. *adv.* [from *top*.] Fine; noble; gallant. A low word.—*Topping* fellow. *Tatler*.

(1.) * **TOPPINGLY**. *adj.* [from *topping*.] Fine; gay; gallant; thewſy. An obſolete word.—*Toppingly* gheſts in number but ten. *Tuſſer*.

(2.) * **TOPPINGLY**. *adv.* Splendidly; nobly. A low word.

* **TOPPLE**. *v. n.* [from *top*.] To fall forward; to tumble down.—Though caſtles *topple* on their warden's heads. *Shak.*—Down *topples* ſhe. *Shak*.

* **TOPPROUD**. *adj.* [*top* and *proud*.] Proud in the higheſt degree.—This *topproud* fellow. *Shak*.

(1.) * **TOPSAIL**. *n. s.* [*top* and *sail*.] The higheſt ſail.—The Turk's gallies would not vail their *topsails*. *Knolles*.—Strike, ſtrike the *topsail*. *Dryden*.

(2.) **TOPSAILS** are certain large ſails extended acroſs the top-maſts by the topſail-yard above, and by the yard attached to the lower maſt beneath; being faſtened to the former by robands, and to the latter by means of two great blocks fixed on its extremities, through which the topſail ſheets are inſerted, paſſing from thence to two other blocks fixed on the inner part of the yard cloſe by the maſt; and from theſe latter the ſheets lead downwards to the deck, where they may be ſlackened or extended at pleaſure. See **SAIL**.

TOPSHAM, a town of England, in Devonſhire, ſeated on the Exmouth, 5 miles SE. of Exeter, to which place the river was formerly navigable; but in time of war was choaked up deſignedly, ſo that

that ships are now obliged to load and unload at Topsham, where they lie aground on the ooze, at low water. Lon. 3. 36. W. Lat. 50. 39. N.

* **TOPSYTURVY**, *adv.* [This *Skianer* fancies to *top* in *turf*.] With the bottom upward.—All suddenly was turned *topsyturvy*. *Spenser*.—We shall o'erturn it *topsyturvy* down. *Shak*.—And *topsyturvy* so fly tumbling to the shores. *Drayton*.—The devil turned the world *topsyturvy*. *South*.—Man is but a *topsyturvy* creature. *Swift*.

* **TOR**, *n. s.* [*tor*, Saxon.] 1. A tower; a turret. 2. A high pointed rock or hill, whence *tor* in the initial syllable of some local names.

(2.) **TOR**, in geography, a town of Arabia Petrea, on the Red Sea, with a good harbour, defended by a castle. Some think that this town is the ancient Elana. Lon. 31. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 28. 0. N.

(3, 4.) **TOR ALBA**, 2 towns of Sardinia: 1. 20 miles ENE. of Algeri: 2. 13 S. of Oristagno.

(5.) **TOR DI CANE**, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari, 9 miles E. of Monopoli.

(6.) **TOR POINT**, or *Hope's Nose*, a cape of England, on the coast of Devonshire, forming the N. point of **TORBAY**.

(1.) **TORA**, a town of Egypt, on the Nile, 8 miles S. of Cairo.

(2.) **TORA**, a town of Naples, 9 miles NNE. of Sezza.

TORACA, a town of Africa, in Monomotaka. **TORAITO**, a town of Tibet, 30 miles NE. of Tchontori.

(1.) **TORBAY**, a fine bay of the English channel, on the coast of Devonshire, a little to the E. of Dartmouth, formed by two capes, called *Bury Points*, and *Bob's Nose*.

(2.) **TORBAY**, a bay on the E. coast of Newfoundland. Lon. 52. 20. W. Lat. 47. 48. N.

(3.) **TORBAY**, a bay on the S. coast of Nova Scotia. Lon. 61. 15. W. Lat. 45. 8. N.

TORBIA, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Maritime Alps, and ci-devant county of Nice, anciently called ΤΡΟΜΑΙΑ ΑΥΓΟΥΣΤΙ. It has many relics of Roman antiquity, and an ancient Gothic tower. It is 7 m. E. of Nice.

TORBIDO, a river of Naples, in Calabria, which runs into the Crate, near Bisignano.

TORBISCON, a town of Spain, in Grenada, 14 miles NE. of Morbil.

TORBOLE, a town of Tirol, 17 miles W. of Trent. This town was taken by the French republicans in Sept. 1796.

TORC, a mountain of Ireland, in Kerry.

TORCELLO, an island in the Dogado, 3 miles N. of Venice.

* **TORCH**, *n. s.* [*torche*, Fr. *torcia*, Italian; *intortitium*, low Lat.] A wax light, generally supposed to be bigger than a candle.—Basilus knew, by the wafting of the *torches*, that the night also was far wafted. *Sidney*.—Here lies the dusky *torch* of Mortimer. *Shak*.—They light the nuptial *torch*. *Milton*.—*Torches* gliding like meteors. *Dryden*.—My *torch* is out. *Dryden*.—They light a *torch*. *Young*.

* **TORCHBEARER**, *n. s.* [*torch* and *bear*.] One whose office is to carry a torch.—He made them for that night, the *torchbearers*. *Sidney*.

* **TORCHER**, *n. s.* [from *torch*.] One that gives light.—

Ere the horses of the sun shall bring
Their fiery *torches* his diurnal ring. *Shak*.

TORCHIARA, a town of Italy in Parma.

* **TORCHLIGHT**, *n. s.* [*torch* and *light*.] Light kindled to supply the want of the sun.—He was forced to go from Isburg, and by *torchlight* to quit every foot he had gotten. *Bacon*.—Now I have brought the *torchlight*. *Davies*.

TORCY, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, 3 miles S. of Argues.

TORDA, a town of Transylvania, famous for its salt-works, 48 miles NW. of Hermanstadt.

TORDERA, a river of Spain in Catalonia.

TORDESILLAS, a town of Spain, in Leon.

TORDYLUM, **HART-WORT**, in botany: A genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *digynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 45th order, *Umbellase*. The corollets are radiated, and all hermaphrodite; the fruit is roundish, and crenated on the margin; the involucre long and undivided. There are 7 species, of which two are British; viz.

1. **TORDYLUM?NODOSUM**, or knotted parsley, has simple sessile umbels, the external seeds being rough. It grows in the borders of corn-fields, and in dry stony places.

2. **TORDYLUM OFFICINALE**, officinal hartwort, has partial involucre, as long as the flowers; leaflets oval and jagged: the seeds are large and flat, and their edges notched.

(1.) * **TORE**, *preterite*, and sometimes participle passive of *tear*.—A feather all to pieces *tore*. *Spenser*.

(1.) * **TÖRE**, *v. a.* [Of this word I cannot guess the meaning.] Proportion according to rowen or *tore* upon the ground; the more *töre* the less hay will do. *Mortimer*.

TORELLI, Joseph, was born at Verona in 1711. He received the degree of LL.D. Being in possession of a considerable fortune, he was enabled to devote himself entirely to literature. Though he did not practise as a lawyer, he did not relinquish the study of law. He acquired the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Italian languages; also French, Spanish, and English. In fact his acquirements in every branch of learning and sciences were only equalled by his virtues. He died in 1781. He was author of 20 different works on various subjects.

(1.) **TORELLO**, a town of Naples in Principato Ultra; 3 miles WNW. of Conza.

(2.) **TORELLO**, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; where the French defeated the Spaniards in 1694. It is 6 miles N. of Vique.

TORFÆUS, Thormodus, a native of Iceland, of considerable learning and abilities, born in 1639. He became historiographer to the king of Denmark. He wrote *the History of Norway*; containing also the *annals of the Northern parts of Scotland*, from the year 850 to 1205. He died in 1720, aged 81.

TORFVE, a town of Sweden in W. Gothia.

TORGAU, a town of Upper Saxony, in Meissen, on the Elbe, famous for being the scene of presenting the 17 Protestant articles to the elector John,

John, in 1530; and of drawing up the formula in 1576. It is 28 miles ENE. of Leipfic, and 30 NW. of Meffen.

TORGEISKOI, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi; 24 miles NNW. of Nerchinsk.

TORHOUT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Lys, and late prov. of Austrian Flanders; 10 miles S. of Bruges.

TORIES, *n. f.* a political faction in Britain, opposed to the Whigs. This name was first given to a set of banditti in Ireland, whose summons to surrender was expressed by the Irish word *Torree*, i. e. *Give me*. It was thence transferred to the adherents of Charles I. by his enemies, under the pretence that he favoured the rebels in Ireland. His partisans, to be even with the republicans, gave them the name of *Whigs*, from a word which signifies *whey*, in derision of their poor fare. The Tories, or *cavaliers*, as they were also called, had then principally in view the political interests of the king, the crown, and the church of England; and the round-heads, or Whigs, proposed chiefly the maintaining of the rights and interests of the people, and of Protestantism. This is the most popular account; and yet it is certain the name *Whig* and *Tory* were but little known till about the middle of the reign of king Charles II. M. de Cize relates, that it was in the year 1678 that the whole nation was first observed to be divided into Whigs and Tories; and that on occasion of the famous deposition of Titus Oates, who accused the Catholics of having conspired against the king and the state, the appellation of *Whig* was given to such as believed the plot real; and *Tory* to those who held it fictitious.

TORIGNA, a town of France, in the department of the Channel, and ci-devant province of Normandy, with a magnificent castle, seated on a rivulet near St Lo. Lon. o. 42. E. Lat. 49. o. N.

TORINI, an ancient nation of Scythia.

TORLA, a town of Spain, in Arragon; 16 miles E. of Jacca.

TORLEUM, a mountain of Perthshire, in the parish of Monivaird; 2400 feet above the sea level.

TORME, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 15 miles N. of Frias.

* TORMENT. *n. f.* [*tourment*, Fr.] 1. Any thing that gives pain, as discale.—Divers diseases and torments. *Matt.* 2. Pain; misery; anguish.—I feel—*Torment* within me. *Milton.* 3. Penal anguish; torture.—No prisoners there, inforc'd by torments, cry. *Sandys.*—No fiercer *torment* than a guilty mind. *Dryden.*

* To TORMENT. *v. a.* [*tourmenter*, Fr.] 1. To put to pain; to harass with anguish; to excruciate.—Some *tormenting* dream. *Shak.*—What—*Torments* me to conceal. *Shak.*—Art thou come to torment us. *Mat.* viii. 2. To tease; to vex with importunity. 3. To put into great agitation. [*torment*, Fr. a great storm.]—

They soaring on main wing

Tormented all the air. *Milton.*

* TORMENTIL. *n. f.* [*tormentille*, Fr. *tormentilla*, Lat.] Scitfoil. A plant.—The root of *tormentil* has been used for tanning of leather. *Miller.*—Refresh the spirits externally by some epi-

themat of balm, bugloss, with the powder of the roots of *tormentil*. *Wifeman.*

TORMENTILLA, TORMENTIL, in botany; A genus of plants belonging to the class of *icosandra*, and order of *polygynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 35th order, *Sciticefe*. The calyx is octoid; the petals are four; the seeds round, naked, and affixed to a juiceless receptacle. There are two species; both indigenous: viz.

1. TORMENTILLA ERECTA, common tormentil, or scitfoil, has a stalk somewhat erect, and sessile leaves. The roots consist of thick tubercles, an inch or more in diameter, replete with a red juice of an astringent quality. They are used in most of the Western Isles, and in the Orkneys, for tanning. A decoction of these roots in milk is also frequently administered by the inhabitants of the same islands in diarrhoeas and dysenteries, with good success; but perhaps it would be most proper not to give it in dysenteries till the morbid matter be first evacuated. A spirituous extract of the plant stands recommended in the sea-scurvy, to strengthen the gums and fasten the teeth. Linnæus informs us, that the Laplanders paint their leather of a red colour with the juice of the roots.

2. TORMENTILLA REPENS, creeping tormentil, has reddish stalks, slender and creeping. The leaves are sharply serrated, grow on short foot-stalks, and are five-lobed. The flowers are numerous and yellow, blossom in July, and are frequent in woods and barren pastures.

* TORMENTOR. *n. f.* [from *torment*.] 1. One who torments; one who gives pain.—He called to me to deliver him from those tormentors. *Sidney.*—They fearless by their old tormentors lie. *Sandys.*—His tormentor, conscience. *Milton.*—What could'st thou, tormentor? *Dryden.*—The sinner is his own tormentor. *South.*—The martyrs tired their tormentors. *Addison.*

TORMES, a river of Spain, which rises in Old Castile, and crossing Leon, passes by Alva, Salamanca, &c. and falls into the Duero below Miranda.

TORMS, a town of Spain in Catalonia.

* TORN, part. pass. of *tear*.—Flesh that is torn of beasts. *Exod.* xxii.

TORNA, a county of Hungary, with its capital so named, which lies 14 m. SW. of Cacschau.

(1.) * TORNADO. *n. f.* [*tornado*, Spanish.] A hurricane; a whirlwind.—Bold *tornados* bluster in the sky. *Garth.*

(2.) TORNADO, a sudden and vehement gust of wind from all points of the compass, frequent on the coast of Guinea.

TORNAREECIO, a town of Naples in Abruzzo Citra; 13 miles NE. of Borello.

TORNE, or } a sea port town of Swe-
(1—3.) TORNEA. } den, in W. Bothoria; on an island and in the mouth of a river so named, near the Gulf of Bothnia, with a good harbour. It has a great trade with Sweden, Russia, and Lapland. In 1694, Charles XI. of Sweden came to this town to view the fun at midnight. To it also came Maupertuis and a committee of the Academy of Paris to determine the figure of the earth. Lon. 24. 17. E. Lat. 65. 51. N.

(4, 5.) TORNEA is also the name of a lake in the

the above island formed by the Tornea, as well as of the Gulf into which it falls, at the above town, after running down from the mountains.

(1.) **TORNOVA**, a town of European Turkey, in Janna, with a Greek bishop's see at the foot of mount Dragoniza, on the Salempria; 12 miles NW. of Latisfa. Lon. 12. 36. E. Lat. 39. 52. N.

(2.) **TORNOVA**, a town of Maritime Austria, in the ci-devant Dogado of Venice, 18 miles S. of Venice.

(1.) **TORO**, an island on the S. coast of Sardinia.

(2.) **TORO**, an island on the E. coast of Sweden.

(3.) **TORO**, a town of Spain, in Leon, on Duero.

TOROM, a river of Russia, that joins the Oby.

TORON, a town of Turkey, in Macedonia; 60 miles SE. of Saloniki.

TOROSAY, a parish of Argyllshire, on the E. side of the isle of Mull; 12 miles square. The coast abounds in small bays and harbours. Of these **AUCHMACRAIG** is the chief, which has a ferry to Oban. (See **OBAN**.) The surface is mountainous, rugged and heathy. The highest mountains are **BENMORE** and **BENTALUIDH**; (which see.) These are well adapted for pasture. The population in 1790 was 1733; the increase 721, since 1755. The only antiquity is *Castle Douart*, the ancient mansion of the Macleans; seated on a cape overhanging the Sound of Mull. It is now used as a barrack for soldiers, to repress smuggling.

TORP, 2 towns of Sweden; 1. in W. Gothland; 11 miles N. of Uddevalla; 2. in Warmland; 11 miles N. of Carlstadt.

TORPEDO, the CRAMP-FISH. See **RAJA**, § II. N° 4. and **ELECTRICITY**, *Index*. From late experiments in **GALVANISM**, it is ascertained, that the shock given by the Torpedo exactly resembles the Galvanic shock. See **VOLTA**'S **GALVANIC PILE**.

TORPEN, a town of Transylvania.

* **TORPENT**. *adj.* [*torpens*, Lat.] Numbened; struck motionless; not active; incapable of motion.—The frail and *torpent* memory. *Evelyn*.

TORPERLEY, a town of England, in Cheshire, 10 miles SE. of Chester, and 171 NE. of London.

TORPETZ, or **TOROPETZ**, a town of Russia, in Pskovskoi, 156 miles SE. of Pskov.

(1.) **TORPHICHEN**, a parish of Scotland, in W. Lothian, 9 miles long and 2½ broad. The surface is hilly at the E. end, where the hill of *Cairn-Naple* measures 1098½ feet above the sea level. But except this hilly district, the rest of the eastern part is most fertile. The greater part of the parish is inclosed. The barren ground, not susceptible of cultivation, has been planted, which not only adds to its beauty, but also affords good shelter to the crops on the rest, as well as to cattle. The population, in 1791, was 1069; the decrease 226, since 1755. There are two valuable coal mines, plenty of excellent free-stone, and several very rich seams of iron-stone.

(2.) **TORPHICHEN**, a village in the above parish, on the high road from Edinburgh to Glasgow, 17 miles from the former; containing about 400 inhabitants. Near it are the ruins of the hospital of Torphichen, anciently the chief residence in Scotland, of the Knights of St John

of Jerusalem; founded in 1120, by K. David I. The choir and a square tower still exhibit specimens of the beauty of its architecture.

* **TORPID**. *adj.* [*torpidus*, Lat.] Numbened; motionless; sluggish; not active.—Without heat all things would be *torpid*. *Ray*.—The sun awakes the *torpid* sap. *Thomson*.

TORPIDITY, *n. f.* See next article. For instances of the torpidity of various animals, see **HIRUNDO**, **MUS**, § III, N° 3. **SUSPENDED ANIMATION**, and **SWALLOW**.

* **TORPIDNESS**. *n. f.* [from *torpid*.] The state of being torpid.—Exercise keeps it from *torpidness*. *Hale*.

* **TORPITUDE**. *n. f.* [from *torpid*.] State of being motionless; numbness; sluggishness.—Some subsist in a kind of *torpitude* or sleeping state, *Derham*.

(1.) * **TORPOR**. *n. f.* [Latin] Dulness; numbness; inability to move; dulness of sensation.—Motion discusses the *torpor* of solid bodies. *Bacon*.

(2.) **TORPOR**, *Galen* says, is a sort of intermediate disorder between palsy and health.

TORQUATUS. See **MANLIUS**, N° 3.

TORQUEMADA, a town of Spain, in Leon.

TORR, a town of Arabia, in Yemen.

TORRALBA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 7 miles NE. of Ciudad Real.

TORRALVA, a town of Spain, in Navarre, 15 miles from Estella.

TORRANO, a town of Spain, in Navarre; 15 miles W. of Pampeluna.

(1.) **TORRE**, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 6 miles S. of Lerida.

(2—34.) **TORRE** is also the name of other 4 towns of Spain, in Biscay, Catalonia, Granada, and Valentia; of one each in Ancona, Candia, Mantua, and Sardinia; of 2 in Portugal; of 6 in Corfica; and of 18 in Naples; all distinguished by various additional names, which we have not room to specify.

TORRECILLA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 11 miles SE. of Najera.

TORRECILLAS, a town of Spain in Estremadura, 6 miles ENE. of Truxillo.

TORRECUSO, a town of Naples, 5 miles W. of Benevento.

TORREDAL, a river of Norway, which runs into the sea, near Christianfand.

(1.) * **TORREFACTION**. *n. f.* [*torrefaction*, Fr. *torrefacio*, Lat.] The act of drying by the fire.—Why does *torrefaction* make sulphur itself black? *Boyle*.—If it be funned too long, it suffereth *torrefaction*. *Brown*.

(2.) **TORREFACTION**, in chemistry and metallurgy, is the roasting or scorching of a body by fire, to discharge a part either unnecessary or hurtful in another operation. Sulphur and most metals are thus discharged from their ores before they are wrought. See **METALLURGY**, Part III. *Señ. I.*

* To **TORREFY**. *v. a.* [*torrefier*, Fr. *torrefacio*, Lat.] To dry by the fire.—In the sulphur of bodies *torrefied* consist the principles of inflammability. *Brown*.—The Africans are scorched and *torrefied*. *Brown*.—*Torrefied* sulphur makes bodies black. *Boyle*.—Another cluster is composed of two hemiz of white wine, half a hemina of honey, Ægyptian nitre *torrefied* a quadrant. *Arbuthnot*.

H h h TORREJON,

TORREJON, a town of Spain in New Castile, 13 miles S. of Madrid.

TORRELAGUNA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 17 miles N. of Guadalaxara.

(1.) * **TORRENT**. *adv.* [*torrens*, Lat.] Rolling in a rapid stream.—Waves of *torrent* fire. *Milton*.

(2.) * **TORRENT**. *n. f.* [*torrent*, Fr. *torrens*, Lat.] 1. A sudden stream raised by showers.—Like the *torrent* of a flood. *Sandys*.—No *torrents* swell the low Mohayne. *Prior*. 2. A violent and rapid stream; tumultuous current.—Near Caucasus are certain *torrents*. *Raleigh*.—Those who opposed that *torrent*. *Clar*.—Huge *torrents* flow. *Dryden*.—Stemm'd the wild *torrent* of a barb'rous age. *Pope*.

TORRENTE, a town of Spain in Valentia, 5 miles S. of Valentia.

(1.) **TORRES**, a town of Spain in Grenada, on the coast of the Mediterranean, 10 miles W. of Motril.

(2.) **TORRES**, a river of Sardinia.

(3. 4.) **TORRES**, NEW and OLD, 2 towns of Portugal, in Elremadura, containing about 3000 people.

(5. 6.) **TORRES**, an island and cluster of islands in the Indian Sea, near Siam.

TORREXIMENO, a town of Spain, in Jaen, 8 miles WNW. of Jaen.

TORRICELLA, 2 towns of Naples: 1. in Abruzzo Citra, 6 miles N. of Langiano: 2. in Principato Citra, 4 miles SW. of Amalfi.

TORRICELLI, Evangeliste, an illustrious Italian mathematician and philosopher, born at Faenza in 1608. He studied under father Benedict Castelli, professor of mathematics at Rome. Having read Galileo's dialogues, he composed a treatise on motion, on his principles, which brought him acquainted with Galileo, who took him home as an assistant; but Galileo died in three months after. He became professor of mathematics in Florence, and greatly improved the art of making telescopes and microscopes; but he is best known for finding out a method of ascertaining the weight of the atmosphere by quicksilver; the barometer being called from him, the *Torricellian tube*. He published *Opera Geometrica*, 4to, 1644; and died in 1647.

(1.) **TORRICELLIAN**, *adj.* Of or belonging to, or discovered or invented by TORRICELLI.

(2.) **TORRICELLIAN EXPERIMENT**, a famous experiment made by Torricelli, by which he demonstrated the pressure of the atmosphere in opposition to the doctrines of suction, &c. finding that pressure able to support only a certain length of mercury, or any other fluid, in an inverted glass tube. See **BAROMETER**.

(3.) **TORRICELLIAN TUBE**. See **TORRICELLI**.

(4.) **TORRICELLIAN VACUUM**. See **PNEUMATICS**, *SECT. I.* page 694.

TORRICELLO, a town of Italy, in the Parmelan, on the Po, 12 miles NNW. of Parma.

(1.) * **TORRID**. *adj.* [*torride*, Fr. *torridus*, Lat.] 1. Parched; dried with heat.—Galen's commentators mention a dryness, which they call a *torrid* tabes. *Harvey*. 2. Burning; violently hot.—*Torrid* heat. *Milton*. 3. It is particularly applied to the regions or zone between the tropics.—

ound a temp'rate in a *torrid* zone. *Dryden*.—Those who amidst the *torrid* regions live. *Prior*.

(2.) **THE TORRID ZONE**, in geography, is that part of our **GLOBE OF EARTH**, which lies between the two **TEMPERATE ZONES**, or the **TROPICS OF CANCER** and **CAPRICORN**; and is so called from the *excessive heat* of the climate, the inhabitants having the *sun vertical* to them twice a year; notwithstanding which, there are some high mountains in this zone, whose tops are always covered with snow. The torrid zone extends quite around the globe, and comprehends a space of 47° of Lat. See **GEOGRAPHY**, *SECT. VIII.*

TORRIGIA, or } a town of Genoa, 15 miles
TORRIGLIA, } NNE. of Genoa, or, as
Brookes says, 10 miles N. and 5 W. of Monte Bruno. Lon. 8. 44. E. Lat. 44. 34. N.

TORRIMORIS, a cape of Scotland, on the E. coast of the isle of Sky. Lon. 2. 48. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 57. 21. N.

(1.) **TORRINGTON**, a populous town of England, in Devonshire, famous for its manufactures of stuff. It is governed by a mayor, and carries on a great trade to Ireland. It has two churches, a market on Satur. and relics of an ancient castle. It formerly sent two members to parliament. It is seated on the *Tourich*, over which it has a fine stone bridge of four arches, 11 miles SW. of Barnstable, and 194 WSW. of London. Lon. 4. 0. W. Lat. 51. 4. N.

(2.) **TORRINGTON**, a town of Connecticut, 11 miles WNW. of Hartford.

(3.) **TORRINGTON BAY**, a bay on the S. coast of Nova Scotia.

(1.) **TORRISDALE**, a river of Scotland in Sutherlandshire, which rises from Langhal, in the parish of Tongue; and falls into the North Sea, at the village, N^o 2.

(2.) **TORRISDALE**, a village of Sutherlandshire, seated on the above river, in which it has a valuable salmon fishery.

TORRO, a river of Africa, which runs into the Scherbio.

TORROLLE, a town of Spain, in Arragon, NW. of Jaca.

TORRONT, a British settlement on the NW. bank of Lake Ontario, 53 miles N. by W. of Fort Nagaria.

TORRUM, a town of Sweden, in the province of Blekingen, 10 miles SE. of Carlskrona.

TORRY, or } a small river of Scotland,
(1.) **TORRY-BURN**, } in Fifeshire, which runs through, and gives name to the parish and village, N^o 2. and 3.

(2.) **TORRY-BURN**, a parish of Scotland, in Fifeshire, formed by the union of the baronies of *Torry* and *Grombie*. It lies in the W. part of the country, extending 4 miles in length, and 2 in breadth, along the coast of the Frith of Forth. The soil is good, well cultivated, and fertile. It abounds with coals, which are wrought extensively. The population, in 1793, was 1600: the decrease 35, since 1755. The mansion-house of *Torry*, the seat of Sir William Erskine, Bart. is near the village.

(3.) **TORRY-BURN**, a village in the above parish, containing about 1200 inhabitants. It has

an excellent harbour, on the Frith of Forth; to which belong 13 vessels, carrying above 1000 tons.

TORSÄKER, a town of Sweden, in Geftricia; 25 miles SW. of Gefle.

TORSANG, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 10 miles S. Fahlun.

TORSAS, 2 towns of Sweden, in Smaland; 18 miles SW. of Calmar; 2. 16 miles SW. of Wexio.

* **TORSE**. *n. f.* [In heraldry.] A wreath.

* **TORSEL**. *n. f.* [*torfe*, Fr.] Any thing in a twisted form.—When you lay *torfels* for mantle trees to lie on, lay them in loam. *Moxon*.

TORSHELLA, or } a town of Sweden, in Su-
TORSIL, } dermania, on the S. bank
of lake Maelar; 46 miles W. of Stockholm. Lon.
17. 20. E. Lat. 59. 20. N.

* **TORSION**. *n. f.* [*torfio*, Lat.] The act of turning or twisting.

TORSK, or **TUSK**, in ichthyology. See **GADUS**.
TORSKOG, a town of Sweden, in W. Goth-
land; 50 miles N. of Uddevalla.

TORSTASSELLER, a cape of Scotland, on
the coast of Ross-shire, and parish of STORKOWAY.

* **TORT**. *n. f.* [*tort*, Fr. *tortum*, low Lat.]
Mischievous; injury; calamity. Obsolete.—That
had been long oppress'd with *tort*. *Spenser*.—No
beasts should do them any *tort*. *Spenser*.—Sedition,
Riote, oppression, *tort*. *Fairfax*.

(1.) **TORTHORWALD**, a parish of Scotland,
in Dumfriesshire, on the E. side Lochar Moss;
containing 4,400 acres, including 900 acres of the
moss. The inhabited part is 2 miles square. Next
to the moss there are extensive meadows and pas-
tures; farther E. there is a sandy bank, above
which the soil is rich and fertile and mostly in-
closed. The population in 1791, was 660; the
increase 76, since 1755. There are relics of a Drui-
dical temple, of a circular camp, and of *Skrim-
ple Castle*, built in the 12th century.

(2.) **TORTHORWALD**, a village in the above pa-
rish, containing 135 inhabitants. *Roucan*, the other
village contains 243.

* **TORTILE**. *adj.* [*tortilis*, Lat.] Twisted;
wreathed.

(1.) * **TORTION**. *n. f.* [from *tortus*, Latin.]
Torture; pain. Not in use.—All purgers have
a raw spirit or wind, which is the principal cause
of *tortion* in the stomach and belly. *Bacon*.

(2.) **TORTION** is also used synonymously with
TORSION. See **BOTANY**, *Index*.

* **TORTIOUS**. *adj.* [from *tort*.] Injurious;
doing wrong. *Spenser*.

* **TORTIVE**. *adj.* [from *tortus*, Lat.] Twisted;
wreathed.—*Tortive* and errant from his course.
Shak.

TORTO, 1. a river of Spain, which runs into
the Orbeaga, in Leon; 2. a river of Sicily, which
runs into the sea, 5 miles E. of Termini.

(1.) * **TORTOISE**. *n. f.* [*torfue*, French.] 1.
An animal covered with a hard shell; there are
tortoises both of land and water.—In his needy
shop a *tortoise* hung. *Shak*. 2. A form into which
the ancient soldiers used to throw their troops, by
bending down and holding their bucklers above
their heads so that no darts could hurt them.—
Their targets in a *tortoise* cast. *Dryden*.

(2.) **TORTOISE**, in zoology. See **TESTUDO**.

(1.) **TORTOISE-SHELL**, the shell, or rather scales,
of the testaceous animal called a *tortoise*; used in
inlaying, and in various other works, as for snuff-
boxes, combs, &c. It is the under shell alone that
is used; to separate it, they make a little fire be-
neath it, and as soon as ever it is warm, the under
shell becomes easily separable with the point of a
knife, and is taken off in laminæ or leaves; of
which there are 13, eight of them flat, and 5 a
little bent. Of the flat ones, there are 4 large
ones, sometimes a foot long, and 7 inches broad.
The best tortoise-shell is thick, clear, transparent
of the colour of antimony, sprinkled with brown
and white. When used in marquetry, &c. the
workmen give it what colour they please by means
of coloured leaves, which they put underneath
it.

(2.) **TORTOISE-SHELL, WORKING AND JOIN-
ING**. Tortoise-shell and horn become soft in a
moderate heat, as that of boiling water, so as to
be pressed, in a mould, into any form, the shell or
horn being previously cut into plates of a proper
size. Two plates are likewise united into one by
heating and pressing them; the edges being thor-
oughly cleaned, and made to fit close to one an-
other. The tortoise-shell is heated by applying
a hot iron above and beneath the juncture, with
the interposition of a wet cloth to prevent the
shell from being scorched. Both tortoise shells and
horns may be stained of a variety of colours, by
means of the colouring drugs commonly used in
dyeing, and by certain metallic solutions.

(1, 2.) **TORTOLA**, 2 towns of Spain, in New
Castile; 8 miles S. of Cuenca; 2. 5 miles NE. of
Guadalaxara.

(3.) **TORTOLA**, one of the Virgin Islands.

TORTONA, a town of Italy, in the dep. of
Olona, and late Milanese; seated on the Scrivia,
28 miles SE. of Casal and 27 SW. of Milan. Lon.
8. 58. E. Lat. 45. 8. N.

TORTONESE, a ci-devant district of the Mi-
lanese, of which TORTONA was the capital; now
in the dep. of Olona.

TORTOR, a surname of Apollo. *Lemp*.

(1.) **TORTOSA**, a large city of Spain, in Ca-
talonia, with a citadel, a bishop's see, and an uni-
versity. It consists of the Old and New towns,
and is defended by modern fortifications. The
entry to it is over a bridge of boats, on the Ebro.
It has an elegant cathedral, and many churches,
and convents, &c. It is seated in a country fer-
tile in corn and fruits, and abounding with mines
of silver, iron, alabaster, jasper, lapis lazuli, and
stones with veins of gold. The chief manufac-
tures are silk, oil, and fine pottery wares, resem-
bling porcelain. It is seated on a hill and a plain,
55 miles SW. of Taragona, and 180 E. of Ma-
drid. Lon. 0. 35. E. Lat. 40. 53. N.

(2, 3.) **TORTOSA**, a town and river of Tripoli.

(1.) **TORTUGA**, an island on the N. coast of
Hispaniola, about 80 miles in circumference, with
a safe harbour. Lon. 75. 10. W. Lat. 20. 10. N.

(2.) **TORTUGA**, a large uninhabited island of
S. America, near the coast of Terra Firma, 30
miles in circumference. It has a large salt pond,
which begins to crystallize in April. There have
been 20 fall of ships there at once for salt. It is

H h h frequented

frequented by *tortoisés*, whence the name. *Lon.*
64. 50. W. *Lat.* 11. 30. N.

* **TORTUOSITY**. *n. f.* [from *tortuosus*.] Wreath; flexure.—Whence ensueeth that *tortuosity*, or complicated needosity, called the navel *Brown*.

* **TORTUOUS**. *adj.* [*tortueux*, Fr. from *tortuosus*, *tortus*, Latin.] 1. Twisted; wreathed; winding.—

So vary'd he, and of his *tortuous* train

Cur'd many a wanton wreath. *Milton*.

—A long and *tortuous* pipe of lead. *Boyle*. 2. Mischievous. [Thus I explain it, on supposition that it is derived from *tort*, wrong; but it may mean *crooked*; as we say, *crooked* ways for *bad* practices, *crooked* being regularly enough opposite to *right*. This in some copies is *tortious*, and therefore from *tort*.]—

Ne ought he car'd whom he endamaged

By *tortious* wrong. *Spenser*.

(1.) * **TORTURE**. *n. f.* [*torture*, Fr. *tortura*, Lat.] 1. Torments judicially inflicted; pain by which guilt is punished, or confession extorted.—Taught the *tortures* of th' avenging gods. *Dryden*. 2. Pain; anguish; pang.—The *torture* of the mind. *Shak*.—Ghastly spasm or racking *torture*. *Milton*.

(2.) **TORTURE** was never permitted among the Romans except in the examination of slaves. To the disgrace of the professors of Christianity, torture was long practised by those who called themselves *CATHOLICS*, against those whom they termed *heretics*. See **ACT OF FAITH**, and **INQUISITION**. By the law of England, torture was at one period employed to compel those criminals who stood obdimately mute when brought to trial, and refused to plead guilty or not guilty; but it is now abolished. (See **ARRAIGNMENT**, and **RACK**.)

* To **TORTURE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To punish with tortures.—He may whip, or hang, or *torture*. *Shak*.—The scourge inexorable and the *torturing* hour. *Milt*. 2. To vex; to excruciate; to torment.—At once to *torture* and to please my soul. *Addison*. 3. To keep on the stretch.—The bow *tortureth* the string continually. *Bacon*.

* **TORTURER**. *n. f.* [from *torture*.] He who tortures; tormentor.—I play the *torturer*. *Shak*.—When king Edward the second was amongst his *torturers*, they shaved him, and washed him with cold water. *Bacon*.

* **TORVITY**. *n. f.* [*torvitas*, Lat.] Sourness; severity of countenance. Not used.

* **TORVOUS**. *adj.* [*torvus*, Lat.] Sour of aspect; stern; severe of countenance. Not used.—That *torvous* four look produced by anger. *Derb*.
TORUP, a town of Sweden, in Halland.

(1.) **TORUS**, in architecture. See **ARCHITECTURE**, and **Plate XX**, fig. 3.

(2.) **TORUS**, in ancient geography, a mountain of Sicily, near Agrigentum.

TORWOOD, a forest of Stirlingshire, in the parish of Laibert, famous for having afforded shelter to Sir William Wallace, after his defeat in the North. Relics of the tree are still visible in the hollow of which that hero secreted himself.

(1.) * **TORY**. *n. f.* [A cant term, derived, I suppose, from an Irish word signifying a savage.] One who adheres to the ancient constitution of

the state, and the apostolical hierarchy of the church of England; opposed to a *whig*.—The knight is more a *tory* in the country than the town. *Addison*.—Grieved that a *tory* should live. *Swift*.—

All parties and religions join,

Whigs, *tories*.

Swift.

(2.) **TORY**. See **TORIES** and **WHIGS**.

(3.) **TORY**, Geoffry, a native of Bourges, who was professor of philosophy at Paris; but afterwards commenced printer, and greatly improved the art. He wrote a book *on the proportion and distance of letters*; which proved very useful. He also published a translation of *Horus Apollo's Hieroglyphics*. He died in 1550.

TORYISM, *n. f.* the principles of the *tories*.

TORYNE, a town of Epirus, near Actium. It was taken by Augustus, after the battle of Actium.

TORZA, a town of Persia, in Irac.

TORZOK, a town of Russia, in Tverkskoï, seated on the Tvertza; 40 miles NW. of Tver.

(1.) **TOSA**, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.

(2.) **TOSA**, a river of Italy, running into Lake Maggiore, 4 miles NE. of Omegna.

TOSARCAN, a town of Persia, in Irac.

TOSCANELLA, Paul, a most celebrated Italian astronomer, of the 15th century, who erected in the cathedral of Florence, the famous *GNOMON*, which is still reckoned the best in Europe, and of which F. Ximenes gave a particular description. He died in 1490.

TOSCARTON, a parish. See **STRONYKIRK**.

* To **TOSE**. *v. n.* [Of the same original with *teize*.] To comb wool.

TOSPIA, a lake of Asia, through which the Tigris runs. See **RIVER**, § 2.

* **TOSS**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of tossing.—The discus has not any thing like a sling fastened to it to add force to the *tofs*. *Addison*. 2. An affected manner of raising the head.—One taught the *tofs*, and one the new French yallow. *Dryden*.—It requires some suitable *tofs* of the head. *Swift*.

(1.) * To **Toss**. *v. a.* *tassen*, Dutch; *tasser*, Fr. to accumulate; *Minzbeu*, *Gusca*, to dance; *Meris*, *Cosauben*. *Töfen*, German, to make a noise; *Skinner*; perhaps from *to us*, a word used by those who would have any thing thrown to them. Pret. *tossed* or *toft*; part. pass. *tossed* or *toft*.] 1. To throw with the hand, as a ball at play.—

With this she seem'd to play, and, as in sport,
Tofs'd to her love in presence of the court.

Dryden.

—A shepherd diverted himself with *tossing* up eggs and catching them again. *Addison*. 2. To throw with violence.—Back do I *tofs* these treasons. *Shak*.—Volcanos discharge huge stones, *tossing* them up to a very great height in the air. *Woodward*. 3. To lift with a sudden and violent motion.—Behold how they *tofs* their torches on high. *Dryden*.—He *toft* his arm aloft. *Addison*.—*Tofs* up their heads. *Prior*. 4. To agitate; to put in violent motion.—Vanity *tossed* to and fro. *Prov.* xxi. 6.—*Tossed* upon the waves of fortune. *Bacon*.—

Cowls, hoods, and habits, with their wearers *toft*,

And flutter'd into rags.

Milton.

—I have often been *tossed* in storms. *Addison*. 5.

To

To make restless; to disquiet.—So many troubles
her did *tofs*. *Spenser*.—Once full of peace, now *toft*
and turbulent. *Milton*. 6. To keep in play; to
tumble over.—They spend four years in *toffing* all
the rules of grammar in common schools. *Afcbam*.

(1.) * To Toss. *v. n.* 1. To fling; to winch;
to be in violent commotion.—Dire was the *toffing*!
deep the groans! *Milton*.—Galen tells us of a wo-
man whom he found in bed, continually *toffing* and
tumbling. *Harvey*.—To *tofs* and fling, and to be
restless, only frets and enrages our pain. *Tillotson*.
—How wilt thou *tofs* and rave. *Addison*.—They
tofs into the chair. *Young*. 2. To be tossed.—
Your mind is *toffing* on the sea. *Shak*. 3. To Toss
up. To throw a coin into the air, and wager on
what side it shall fall.—

I'd try if any pleasure could be found,

In *toffing* up for twenty thousand pound. *Bramph*.

* TOSSEL. *n. f.* See TASSEL.—Tie at each
lower corner a handful of hops with a piece of
packthread to make a *toffel*. *Mortimer's Husb*.

* TOSSEK. *n. f.* [from *tofs*.] One who throws;
one who flings and writhes.

TOSSA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland.

* TOSSPOT. *n. f.* [*tofs* and *pot*.] A toper and
drunkard.

* TOST, preterite and part. pass. of *tofs*.—In a
troubled sea of passion *toft*. *Milton*.

TOSTAR, a town of Persia, in Chusistan.

TOSTATUS, Alphonsus, a learned Spanish pre-
late, born in 1414. He was educated at Salaman-
ca, and became bishop of Avila. He wrote *Com-
mentaries on Eusebius*, 5 vols. fol. and on the *Script-
ures*. He died in 1454, aged 40.

TOSTES, a town of France, in the dep. of the
Lower Seine; 12 miles SW. of Arques.

* TOTAL. *adj.* [*totus*, Latin; *total*, French.] 1.
Whole; complete; full.—Left *total* darkness
should by night regain. *Milton*.—And with the
gift reward my *total* care. *Prior*. 2. Whole; not
divided.—

Either to undergo

Myself the *total* crime; or to accuse

My other self, the partner of my life. *Milton*.

* TOTALITY. *n. f.* [*totalité*, Fr.] Complete
sum; whole quantity.

* TOTALLY. *adv.* [from *total*.] Wholly; fully;
completely.—If it be *totally* defaced. *Bacon*.—The
finer provokes God *totally* to withdraw all grace
from him. *Hammond*.—Faith and hope shall then
totally fail. *Atterbury*.

TOTHEA, a river of S. Wales in Cardiganshire.

* T'OTHER, contracted for the other.—As bad
the one as t'other. *Faraby*.

TOTILA, an excellent king of the Ostrogoths.
See ITALY, § II. and 12.

TOTNESS, a borough of Devonshire, which
sends two members to parliament. It was incor-
porated by king John. It is seated on the Dart,
on the side of a hill; is governed by a mayor, 18
aldermen, and recorder; and has a great woollen
manufacture, with markets on Tuesday and Sat.
It is 17 miles SW. of Exeter, and 196 W. by S.
of London. Lon. 3. 44. W. Lat 50. 24. N.

TOTTENHAM HIGH CROSS, a town of Mid-
dlesex, 5 miles N. of London, so named from an
ancient cross in it, which has stood from time im-
memorial.

* To TOTTER. *v. n.* [*tateren*, to stagger,
Dutch.] To shake so as to threaten a fall.—What
news in this our tott'ring state? *Shak*.—As a bow-
ing wall shall ye be, and as a tottering fence. *Pf*.
—Troy totters to her fall. *Dryden*.

TOTTERIDGE, a town of Middlesex, 10 miles
NW. of London.

* TOTTERY. } *adj.* [from *totter*.] Shaking;

* TOTTY. } unsteady; dizzy.—Neither of
those words is used.—

Siker thy head very tottie is,

So on thy corbe shoulder it leans amisse.

Spenser.

TOUARS, or THOUARS, a town of France, in
the dep. of the Two Seves, near the Thoue. It
was taken by the royalists of the Vendee on the
30th April, 1793. It is 32 miles NW. of Poitiers,
and 13 N. of Niort. Lon. 17. 27. E. Ferro. Lat.
46. 68. N.

(1.) TOUCAN, in ornithology. See RHAM-
PHASTOS.

(2.) TOUCAN, or American Goose, is one of
the contellations of the southern hemisphere, con-
sisting of 9 small stars.

(1.) * TOUCH. *n. f.* [from the noun.] 1.
Reach of any thing so that there is no space be-
tween the things reaching and reached.—

No falsehood can endure

Touch of celestial temper.

Milton.

2. The sense of feeling.—Might I but live to see
thee in my touch. *King Lear*.—The spirit of wine,
or chemical oils, are to the first touch cold.
Bacon.

By touch the first pure qualities we learn,

By touch, hard, soft, rough, smooth, we do dis-
cern;

By touch, sweet pleasure, and sharp pain we try.

Davies.

The spider's touch how exquisitely fine! *Pope*.
—The fifth sense is touch. *Locke*. 3. The act of
touching.—The touch of the cold water made a
pretty kind of shugging come over her body.
Sidney.

With one virtuous touch

Th' archchemic sun produces precious things.

Milton.

4. State of being touched.

Never touch was welcome to thy hand,

Unless I touch'd. *Shak*.

5. Examination, as by a stone.—

The fortune of ten thousand men

Must bide the touch. *Shak*.

Ah Buckingham, now do I ply the touch,

To try if thou be current gold indeed. *Shak*.

—The duke being of base gold, feared the touch.
Hayward. 6. Test; that by which any thing is
examined.—Equity, the true touch of all laws.
Carew. 7. Proof tried qualities.—My friends of
noble touch! *Shak*. 8. [*Touche*, Fr.] Single act of
a pencil upon a picture.—

Artificial frise

Lives in those touches, livelier than life.

Shak.

—He has only a relation given him, without the
nice touches which make the graces of the picture.
Dryden.—Never give the least touch with your pen-
cil, till you have well examined your design. *Dry-
den*. 9. Feature; lineament.—

Of

Of many faces, eyes, and hearts,

To have the *touches* dearest priz'd. *Shak.*

—The very fame in ev'ry little *touch*. *Dryden.* 10.

Act of the hand upon a musical instrument.—The

touches of sweet harmony. *Shak.*—With solemn

touches. *Milton.* 11. Power of exciting the affec-

tions.—Urgent *touches*. *Shak.* 12. Something of

passion or affection.—A sensible *touch* of mercy.

Hooker.—He wants the natural *touch*. *Shak.* 13.

Particular relation.—Speech of *touch* should be

sparingly used. *Bacon.* 14. [*Touch*, Fr.] A stroke.

—Nice *touches* of raillery. *Addison.*—Another smart

touch of the author. *Addison.*—

It yet may feel the nicer *touch*

Of Wicherley's or Congreve's wit. *Prior.*

—Satyric *touch*. *Swift.* 15. Animadversion; cen-

sure.—*Touch* of conscience. *King Charles.*—*Touch*

of blame. 16. Exact performance of agreement.

—*Touch* kept is commended. *Tusser.*

Quoth Hudibras, thou offer'st much,

But art not able to keep *touch*. *Hudibras.*

—I keep *touch* with my promise to Philopolis.

More.—Keep *touch* with him. *L'Estrange.* 17. A

small quantity intermingled.—I have a *touch* of

your condition. *Shak.*—A *touch* of aspiration may

perhaps be an ingredient in the rough guttural

pronunciation of the Welsh and Irish. *Holder.* 18.

A hint; slight notice given.—A small *touch* will

put him in mind of them. *Bacon.* 19. A cant word

for a slight essay.—Print my preface in such a form

as will make a sixpenny *touch*. *Swift.*

(2.) The *TOUCH* is improperly used for the sense

of FEELING. See ANATOMY, Index.

(3.) * *TO TOUCH*. *v. a.* [*toucher*, Fr. *tacten*,

Dutch.] 1. To perceive by the sense of feeling.—

Nothing but body can be *touch'd* or *touch*. *Creesh.*

2. To handle slightly, without effort or violence.

—May, by *touching* a certain iron with his foot,

draw up the bridge. *Brown.* 3. To reach with

any thing, so that there be no space between the

thing reached and the thing brought to it.—He

brake the withs as a thread of tow is broken when

it *toucheth* the fire. *Judges* xvi. 9.—

Him thus intent, Ithuriel with his spear

Touch'd lightly. *Milton.*

4. To come to; to attain.—Never more to *touch*

their natal shore. *Pope.* 5. To try as gold with a

stone.—I mean to *touch* your love indeed. *Shak.*—

No stone

Was hard enough to *touch* them on. *Hudibras.*

6. To relate to.—Some things which *touch'd*

the person of our Lord Jesus Christ. *Hooker.*—The

quarrel *toucheth* us alone. *Shak.* 7. To meddle

with; not totally to forbear.—What he *touch'd*

came not to light again. *Spens.* 8. To affect.—

What of sweet

Hath *touch'd* my sense, flat seems to this. *Mil.*

9. To move; to strike mentally; to melt.—I was

sensibly *touch'd* with that kind impression. *Cong-*

reve.—The tender fire was *touch'd* with what he

said. *Addison.* 10. To delineate or mark out.—

The lines, though *touch'd* but faintly, are drawn

right. *Pope.* 11. To censure; to animadvert upon.

Not used.—Doctor Parker *touch'd* them for their

living so near, that they went near to *touch* him

for his life. *Hayward.* 12. To infect; to seize

slightly.—Pestilent diseases are bred in the Sum-

mer; otherwise those *touch'd* are in most danger

in the Winter. *Bacon.* 13. To bite; to wear; to

have an effect on.—A file will not *touch* it, as

smiths say, when a file will not eat, or race it.

Maxon. 14. To strike a musical instrument. They

touch'd their golden harps, and prais'd. *Milton.*

—One dip the pencil, and one *touch* the lyre.

Pope. 15. To influence by impulse; to impel for-

cibly.—

No decree of mine,

To *touch* with slightest moment of impulse

His free will. *Milton.*

16. To treat of perfunctorily.—This thy last

reasoning words *touch'd* only. *Milton.* 17. To *TOUCH*

up. To repair, or improve by slight strokes, or lit-

tle emendations.—Her natural countenance *touch-*

ed up with the usual improvements. *Addison.*

(2.) * *TO TOUCH*. *v. n.* 1. To be in a state of

junction so that no space is between them; as,

two spheres *touch* only at points. 2. To fasten on;

to take effect on.—Strong waters pierce metals,

and that will *touch* upon gold that will not *touch*

upon silver. 3. To *TOUCH* at. To come to without

stay.—The next day we *touch'd* at Sidon. *As.*—

Oh fail not to *touch* at Peru. *Cowley.*—Civil law

and history are studies which a gentleman should

not barely *touch* at, but constantly dwell upon.

Locke.—A fishmonger lately *touch'd* at Hammer-

smith. *Speator.* 4. To *TOUCH* on. To mention

slightly.—The shewing by what steps knowledge

comes into our minds, it may suffice to have only

touch'd on. *Locke.*—If the antiquaries have *touch'd*

upon it, they immediately quitted it. *Addison.* 5.

To *TOUCH* on or upon. To go for a very short

time.—He *touch'd* upon the Moluccoes.—

Left the Trojan's pious host

Should bear, or *touch* upon th' enchanted coast.

Dryden.

—I *touch'd* on the several towns that lie on its coasts.

Addison. 6. To *TOUCH* on or upon. To light upon

in mental enquiries.—It is impossible to make ob-

servations which have not been *touch'd* upon by

others. *Addison.*

* *TOUCHABLE*. *adj.* [from *touch*.] Tangible;

that may be touched.

(1.) *TOU-CHAN*, a town of China, of the 2d

rank, in Koei-tcheou.

(2.) *TOU-CHAN*, a lake of China, in Chan-tong;

53 miles in circumference.

TOUCHE, a town of France in the dep. of the

Saone and Loire; 7½ miles NW. of Chalon.

* *TOUCH-HOLE*. *n. f.* [*touch* and *hole*.] The

hole through which the fire is conveyed to the

powder in the gun.—In a piece of ordnance, if

you speak in the *touch-hole*, and another lay his

ear to the mouth of the piece, the sound is far

better heard than in the open air. *Bacon.*

* *TOUCHINESS*. *n. s.* [from *touchy*.] Pee-

vishness; irascibility.—The *touchiness* of those times

required it. *K. Charles.*

(1.) * *TOUCHING*. *adj.* [from *touch*.] Pathe-

tic; affecting; moving.

(2.) * *TOUCHING*. *prep.* [This word is originally

a participle of *touch*.] With respect, regard, or re-

lation to. It has often the particles *as* before it,

of which there seems to be no use. *Touching* is

now obsolete, though more concise than the mode

of speech now adopted.—*Touching* things which

belong to discipline. *Hooker.*—*Touching* our per-

son seek we no revenge. *Shak.*—The heavens and the earth remain in the same state as *touching* their subsistence. *Raleigh.*—*Touching* the debt, he took himself to be acquitted thereof. *Hayward.*—*Touching* the unity of the Godhead. *South.*

TOUCHINGLY. *adv.* [from *touch*.] With feeling emotion; in a pathetic manner.—How *touchingly* the poet argues. *Garth.*

(1.) * **TOUCHMENOT.** *n. f.* [*cucumis agrefolius*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsf.*

(2, 3.) **TOUCH-ME-NOT**, in botany. See **IMPA-TIENTS**, N° 2; and **MOMORDICA**, N° 2.

TOUCH-NEEDLE, among assayers, refiners, &c. was little bars of gold, silver, and copper, combined together in all the different proportions and degrees of mixture; the use of which was to discover the degree of purity of any piece of gold or silver, by comparing the mark it leaves on the touch-stone with those of the bars. The metals usually tried by the touch-stone are gold, silver, and copper, either pure, or mixed with one another in different degrees and proportions, by fusion. But it is now quite unnecessary to describe either the *touch-needle* or the *method of using* it; as no dealer in gold and silver will now trust to such an uncertain test, when he can ascertain the value with much more ease, expedition, and accuracy, by taking an assay of the mass; (See **ASSAYING**, **ASSAY-MASTER**, **BLOW-PIPE**, **DOCIMASTIC**, **TEST**, &c.) more especially now, that, in consequence of the duty on gold and silver plate, there are now **ASSAY OFFICES** established by government in all the principal cities in Great Britain; where dealers in these metals can obtain a speedy report of the value of any mass of gold, silver, or any other mixture of these with other metals, which may be offered to them for sale.

(1.) * **TOUCHSTONE.** *n. f.* [*touch and stone*; *pierre de touche*, Fr.] 1. Stone by which metals are examined.—Gold tried with the *touchstone*. *Bacon.*—Why does he make the *touchstone* faulty? *Collier.* 2. Any test or criterion.—Use it as a *touchstone*. *Hooker.*—The *touchstone* of nature. *Darwin.*—Money serves for the *touchstone* of honesty. *L'Estr.*—That *touchstone* will discover. *Dryden.*

(2.) **The TOUCHSTONE** is a black, smooth, glossy stone, formerly much used to examine the purity of metals. The ancients called it **LAPIS LYDIUS**, the Lydian stone, from the name of the country whence it was originally brought. See **LYDIUS**. Any piece of pebble or black flint will answer the purpose of the best lapis lydius of Asia. Even a piece of glass made rough with emery is used with success, to distinguish true gold from such as is counterfeit; both by the metallic colour and the test of aquafortis. The true touchstone is of a black colour, and is met with in several parts of Sweden. See **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. IV. Gen. XXIII. Sp. 1. Var. 2.

(1.) * **TOUCHWOOD.** *n. f.* [*touch and wood*.] Rotten wood used to catch the fire struck from the flint.—They take fire, and become *touchwood*. *Houel.*—To make white powder, the powder of rotten willows is best; spunk, or *touchwood* prepared, might make it rust. *Brown.*

(2.) **TOUCHWOOD.** See **BOLETUS**.

* **TOUCHY.** *adj.* [from *touch*.] Peevish; irritable; traicable; apt to take fire. A low word.—

You are upon a *touchy* point. *Collier.*—You are so *touchy*. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) **TOUCQUES**, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados; 6 miles SW. of Honfleur, and 4 NNW. of Pont L'Eveque.

(2.) **TOUCQUES**, a river of France, in the dep. of Calvados, which runs into the Sea, 8 miles N. of the above town.

TOUCY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne; 12 miles WSW. of Auxerre, and 12½ NE. of St Fargeau.

TOUDSONG, a town of Tibet, 93 miles SW. of Lassa.

TOUFANS. See **SIFANS**.

(1.) **TOUGH.** *adj.* [*to*, Saxon.] 1. Yielding to flexure or extension without fracture; not brittle.—Of bodies some are fragile, and some are *tough*, and not fragile. *Bacon.* 2. Stiff; not easily flexible.—

The bow he drew,

And almost join'd the horns of the *tough* eugh.

Dryden.

—So *tough* a frame she could not bend. *Dryden.*

3. Not easily injured or broken.—O sides, you are too *tough*! *Shak.*—*Tough* to the last. *Dryden.* 4. Viscous; clammy; ropy; tenacious.

(2.) **TOUGH**, in geography, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, 22 miles from Aberdeen, 5 miles long, and 3 broad. The surface is irregular and hilly, but most of the hills are arable. The soil is in general a light loam, interspersed with spots of deep rich loam, and mossy ground. The population, in 1792, was 560; and the decrease 10 since 1755.

(1.) * **To TOUGHEN.** *v. n.* [from *tough*.] To grow tough.—Hops off the kiln lay three weeks to cool, give and *toughen*. *Mortimer.*

(2.) **To TOUGHEN.** *v. a.* To make tough.

* **TOUGHNESS.** *n. f.* [from *tough*.] 1. Not brittleness; flexibility.—To make an induration with *toughness*, and less fragility, decoct bodies in water for three days. *Bacon.*—Keeps the native *toughness* of the steel. *Dryden.* 2. Viscosity; tenacity; claminess; glutinousness.—Viscosity or *toughness* of the fluids. *Arbutnot.* 3. Firmness against injury.—I confess me knit to thy deserving cables of perdurable *toughness*. *Shak.*

TOUING, a town of Croatia, 24 miles SW. of Carlstadt.

TOUL, a city of France, in the dep. of the Meurthe, seated on the Moselle, over which it has a stone bridge, and is regularly fortified. It is 12 miles W. of Nancy, and 28 S. of Metz.

TOULOMBA, a town and fort of Hindoostan, in Moultan, or Lahore, on the Rauvee, 70 miles NE. of Moultan.

(1.) **TOULON**, an ancient city and sea-port of France, capital of the dep. of the Var. Before the revolution it was a bishop's see, and one of the chief cities of Provence. It had a cathedral, many churches, 9 convents, a seminary and a college. It was originally built by the Romans, after their conquest of Gaul. It was destroyed about the end of the 10th century, and was hardly rebuilt, when it was again pillaged by African pirates. In 1544, it was taken by the imperialisists under the constable of Bourbon; and again by Charles V. in 1536. It has been depopulated by the

the plague, particularly in 1418, 1461, 1476, 1587, 1621, 1630, 1647, 1664, and 1720. Yet notwithstanding these depopulations, it contained about 80,000 citizens in 1789. It was highly improved, ornamented, and fortified, by Lewis XIV. who employed the celebrated Vauban to erect the strongest fortifications; and constructed a new haven, with an arsenal containing every thing necessary for ship-building, with a rope-work, an armoury, a foundry for cannons, muskets, and all other warlike apparatus. The harbour of Toulon is very spacious, and surrounded by hills, which give it the appearance of being almost circular. The entrance is defended on both sides by a fort with strong batteries. The great prince Eugene besieged this city in 1707, but without success. In Sept. 1793, however, it was surrendered by a party of French royalists to the British admiral Lord Hood, who accordingly took possession of it, in conjunction with the Spanish troops, in trust for Lewis XVII.; in whose name Lord Hood promised the French a restoration of the constitution of 1789. But the French republicans, disregarding these offers, laid close siege to it, and notwithstanding the most heroic exertions made by the British and their allies, and particularly by Sir Sidney Smith, Gen. O'Hara, and Capt. Hare, the garrison was obliged to evacuate Toulon in Dec. 1793; after having destroyed the arsenal, and burnt or taken several ships of war. The loss on the part of the allies was very great, vast numbers of the royalists being either drowned or falling into the hands of the French, while endeavouring to get on board the British vessels. Toulon is seated on a bay of the Mediterranean, 45 miles SE. of Marseilles, and 51 SE. of Aix. Lon. 5. 37. E. Lat. 43. 7. N.

(1.) TOULON EN CHAROLLOIS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Saone and Loire, near the Arroux, 17 miles NW. of Charolles, and 15 NE. of Bourbonne Lancy.

TOULOUSE, a very ancient city of France, in the department of Upper Garonne, and late province of Languedoc. It is the most considerable city in France next to Paris and Lyons, although its population bears no proportion to its extent. It contains 56,000 inhabitants. The streets are very handsome, and the walls and houses are of bricks. The townhouse, a modern structure, forms a perfect square, 324 feet long and 66 high. The principal front occupies an entire side of the grand square. Before the revolution, it had two colleges, 2 public libraries, and 3 academies. The commerce consists in leather, drapery, blankets, mignonets, oil, iron, mercury, hardware, and books. The bridge over the Garonne is at least equal to those of Tours and Orleans; it forms the communication between the suburb of St Cyprian and the city. The quays extend along the banks of the Garonne. Toulouse is 37 miles E. of Auch, 125 SE. of Bourdeaux, and 350 SW. of Paris. Lon. 1. 27. E. Lat. 43. 36. N.

TOUMANDI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 32 miles W. of Kutaja.

(1.) TOUMEN, a town of Chinese Tartary, 608 miles ENE. of Pekin.

(2.) TOUMEN, a river of Chinese Tartary, in Corea, which runs into the sea of Japan.

TOUP, Rev. Jonathan, was born at St Ives in Cornwall, in 1713; where he received the rudiments of his education, and was afterwards placed under the care of a Mr Gurney, and thence removed to Exeter College, Oxford, where he took his degree of A. B. He took that of M. A. at Cambridge, in 1756. He became rector of St Martin's in 1750; prebendary of Exeter in 1774; and vicar of St Merry in 1776. In 1760 and 1764 Mr Toop published the 1st and 2d parts of his *Emendationes in Suidam*. These books procured him the notice of Bp. Warburton, who recommended him to Abp. Secker, Lord Shelburne, and Bp. Keppel. The 3d part of the *Emendationes in Suidam* was published in 1766. In 1767 Mr Toop's *Epistola Critica ad virum celeberrimum Gul. Episcop. Glouc.* made its appearance. In 1772 Mr Toop published his *Appendiculum Notarum in Theocritum*. Mr Toop's next work was the *Appendiculum Notarum in Suidam*, published in 1775. In 1778 his *Longinus* was published from the Oxford press in 4to. A 2d edition has since been printed in 8vo. He died on the 19th Jan. 1785, when just entering into his 72d year.

* TOUPET. *n. f.* [Fr.] A curl; an artificial lock of hair.—Second-hand *toupees* and repaired ruffles. *Swift*.

TOUPOUR, a lake in Tibet; 27 miles in circumference; 10 miles N. of Souc.

(1.) TOUR, Henry DE LA VICOULT TURENNE, a celebrated French general, was the 2d son of Henry de la Tour duke of Bouillon, and was born at Sedan in 1611. He made his first campaigns in Holland, under Maurice and Frederic Henry princes of Orange, who were his uncles by the mother's side. In 1634 he marched with his regiment into Lorraine; and having contributed to the taking of La Mothe, was, though very young, made *mareschal de camp*. In 1636 he took Saverne, and in 1637 the castles of Hirion and Sole. He continued to distinguish himself in several sieges and battles, and in 1644 was made marshal of France; but was defeated at the battle of Mariendal, in 1645. However, he gained the battle of Nortlingen 3 months after; restored the elector of Treves to his dominions; and in 1646 made the famous junction of the French army with that of Sweden commanded by general Wrangel, which obliged the duke of Bavaria to demand a peace. But that duke breaking the treaty, he was defeated by Turenne at the battle of Zumarhausen, and in 1648, driven entirely out of his dominions. During the civil wars in France he sided with the princes, and was defeated at the battle of Rhetal in 1650; but soon after was restored to the favour of the king, who in 1652 gave him the command of his army. He acquired great honour at the battles of Jergeau, Gren, and the suburbs of St Anthony, and by the retreat he made before the army commanded by the princes at Ville Neuve St George. In 1654 he made the Spaniards raise the siege of Arras; in 1655 he took Condé, St Guilian, and several other places; gained the famous battle of Dunes; and made himself master of Dunkirk, Oudenarde, and almost all Flanders: this obliged the Spaniards to conclude the peace of the Pyrenees in 1660. These important services occasioned his being made

made marshal-general of the king's armies. The war being renewed with Spain in 1667, Turenne commanded in Flanders; and took so many places, that in 1668 the Spaniards were obliged to sue for peace. He commanded the French army in the war against the Dutch in 1672; took 40 towns in 22 days; pursued the elector of Brandenburg even to Berlin; gained the battles of Sinsheim, Ladenburg, Ensisheim, Molhausen, and Turkeim; and obliged the Imperial army, of 70,000 men, to repossess the Rhine. By this campaign he acquired immortal honour. He passed the Rhine to give battle to Gen. Montecuculi, whom he followed as far as Sasbach; but mounting upon an eminence to discover the enemy's camp, he was killed by a cannon ball in 1675.

(1.) * TOUR. *n. s.* [*tour*, Fr.] 1. Ramble; roving journey.—I made the *tour* of all the king's palaces. *Addis.*—He made the *tour* of the solar system. *Mart. S. i. b. l.* 2. Turn; revolution. In both these senses it is rather French than English.—The *tour*s by heavenly bodies made. *Blackm.* 3. In *Milton* it is probably tower; elevation; high flight.—The bird of Jove stoop'd from his airy *tour*. *Milton*.

(3.) TOUR, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados; 3 miles WNW. of Bayeux. and 4½ E. of Trévières.

(4.) TOUR, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, 12 miles W. of Besse, and 23 S. of Clermont. TOUR is also the name of other 7 towns and a river of France, besides a Cape in Jersey, and a town in Switzerland, thus distinguished:

(5.) TOUR, a town in the dep. of the Eastern Pyrenees, 12 miles WNW. of Perpignan, and 13½ NE. of Prades.

(6.) TOUR D'AIGUES, a town in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, 12 miles SSE. of Apt.

(7.) TOUR DS ROSEL, a cape of Jersey, 5 miles NNE. of St Helier.

(8.) TOUR DE ROUSSILLON, a town in the dep. of the Eastern Pyrenees, and late prov. of Roussillon; seated on a hill near the Tet, on the spot where formerly stood the city of *Ruscino*, which was destroyed in the 9th century. It is 3 miles E. of Perpignan.

(9.) TOUR DE TREME, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Friburg, two miles N. of Griyeres.

(10.) TOUR DU PIN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Here, and late prov. of Dauphiny; 25 miles WNW. of Grenoble, 24 S. of Vienne, and 27 SE. of Lyons.

(11.) TOUR DU PIN, a town of France, in the dep. of Here, which runs past the above town, to which it gives name, and falls into the Rhine.

(12.) TOUR LA BLANCH, a town in the dep. of the Dordogne; 9 miles N. of Ribérac, and 13 NW. of Périgueux.

(13.) TOUR LANDRY, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire; 6 miles W. of Vihiers, and 9 NE. of Chollert.

(14.) TOUR LA VILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel; adjoining to Cherbourg; famous for its manufacture of glass.

TOURNAINE, a ci-devant province of France.

VOL. XXII. PART II.

It was bounded on the N. by Maine, E. by Orleanois, S. by Berri, and W. by Anjou and Poitou, being 58 miles long and 55 broad. It is watered by 17 rivers, besides many rivulets. The air is temperate, and the soil is so fruitful that it is called the *Garden of France*. It now forms the department of INDRÉ and LOIRE. TOURS was the capital.

TOURANCOURCHY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic, 35 miles SSW. of Trichinopoly.

TOURBILLON. See SION, N° 3.

TOURETTE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Var, 9 miles NW. of St Paul.

TOURFAN HORUM, a town of Asia, in Little Bukharia, and capital of a province so named, 180 miles WNW. of Hami. Lon. 107. 17. E. Ferro. Lat. 43. 33. N.

TOURICH, or TOWRIDGE, a river of England, in Devonshire. See TOWRIDGE.

TOURIN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, ci-devant bishopric of Liege, 13 miles NE. of Namur. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 50. 56. N.

TOURMALINE, in mineralogy, a species of stone, found in Ceylon, Brazil, Tyrol, &c. That of Ceylon is of a dark brown or yellowish colour; that of Brazil is green, blue, red, or yellow, and that of Tyrol by reflected light is of a blackish brown, but by refracted light yellowish, or in thin pieces green; mostly crystallized in polygon prisms, but sometimes amorphous. The thickest parts are opaque; the thin more or less transparent. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Class I. Order I. Gen. VII. Sp. 4. For the electrical qualities of tourmaline, see ELECTRICITY, Ind.

TOURMENTINE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Maine and Loire; 6 miles NNE. of Chollet, and 24 S. of Angers.

(1.) * TOURNAMENT. *TOURNEY. n. s.* [*tour-namentum*, low Lat.] 1. Tilt; joust; military spirit; mock encounter.—Tilts and tournaments. *Daniel.*—Jousts, *tourneys*, and barriers. *Bacon.*—Whence came all those jousts, tiltings, and tournaments. *Temple.*—At tilts and tournaments obtain'd the prize. *Dryd.* 2. *Milton* uses it simply for encounter; shock of battle.—With cruel *tournament* the squadrons join! *Milton*.

(2.) The TOURNAMENT was a martial sport or exercise which the ancient cavaliers used to perform, to show their bravery and address. It is derived from the French word *tourner*, i. e. to turn round, because to be expert in these exercises, much agility both of horse and man was requisite, they riding round a ring in imitation of the ancient Circi. The first tournaments were only courses on horseback, wherein the cavaliers tilted at each other with canes in the manner of lances; and were distinguished from jousts, which were courses or careers, accompanied with attacks and combats, with blunted lances and swords. See JUST, § 3, 4. The prince who published the tournament, used to send a king at arms, with a safe conduct, and a sword, to all the princes, knights, &c. signifying that he intended a tournament and a clashing of swords, in the presence of ladies and damsels; which was the usual formula of invitation. They first engaged man against

against man, then troop against troop; and after the combat, the judges allotted the prize to the best cavalier, and the best striker of swords; who was accordingly conducted in pomp to the lady of the tournament; where, after thanking her very reverently, he saluted her, and likewise her two attendants. These tournaments made the principal diversion of the 13th and 14th century. Munster says, it was Henry the Fowler, duke of Saxony, and afterwards emperor, who died in 936, that first introduced them; but it appears from the *Chronicle of Tours*, that the true inventor of this famous sport, at least in France, was one Geoffrey, lord of Preuilli, about A. D. 1066. Instances of them occur among the English in the reign of king Stephen, about A. D. 1140; but they were not much in use till the time of Richard I. about 1149. After which period these diversions were performed with extraordinary magnificence in the Tilt-yard near St. James's, Smithfield, &c. At last, however, they were found to be productive of bad effects, and the occasions of several fatal misfortunes; as in the instance of Henry II. of France, and of the tilt exhibited at Chalons, which, from the numbers killed on both sides, was called the *little war of Chalons*. These and other inconveniences, resulting from those dangerous pastimes, led the popes to prohibit them; and the princes of Europe gradually concurred in discouraging and suppressing them.

TOURNAN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Seine and Marine; 13½ miles N. of Melun, and 18 ESE. of Paris.

(1.) **TOURNAY**, in geography, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Scheldt, and late province of the Austrian Netherlands, in Flanders, and ci-devant capital of a district called **TOURNAYSIS**. It is divided into two parts by the river Scheldt; and is large, populous, well built, and carries on a great trade in woollen stuffs and stockings. The cathedral is a very handsome structure, and contains many chapels, with rich ornaments, and several magnificent tombs of marble and brass. The town was taken by the allies in 1709; but was ceded to the house of Austria by the treaty of Utrecht, though the Dutch retained a right to put in a garrison. It was taken by the French in June 1745, who demolished the fortifications. In 1781 the emperor Joseph II. obliged the Dutch to withdraw their garrison. It was taken by the French in 1791, abandoned by them in 1793, and again conquered by them in 1794, and annexed to their republic in 1796. It is 14 miles SE. of Lille, 30 SW. of Ghent, and 135 N. by E. of Paris. Lon. 3. 28. E. Lat. 50. 33. N.

(2.) **TOURNAY**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Pyrenees; 9 miles SE. of Turbes, and 9 NE. of Bagneres.

TOURNAYSIS, a ci-devant district of Austrian Flanders, now annexed to the French empire, and included in the department of the Scheldt. **TOURNAY** was the capital.

TOURNEFORT, Joseph Pitton de, a famous French botanist, born at Aix in Provence in 1666. He quitted the study of theology for that of physic, natural history, and botany. His fame as a botanist in 1683, procured him the employ-

ment of botanic professor in the king's garden; and by the king's order, he travelled into Spain, Portugal, Holland, and England, where he made prodigious collections of plants. In 1700, in obedience to another order, he travelled over all the isles of the Archipelago, upon the coasts of the Black Sea, in Bithynia, Pontus, Cappadocia, Armenia, and Georgia; on his return he was made professor of physic in the college royal. He died in 1708. He wrote *Elements of Botany*, both in French and Latin; *A voyage into the Levant*, &c.

TOURNEFORTIA, a genus of plants, in the class *Pentandria*, and order of *Monogynia*; ranking in the natural method, under the 41st order, *Asperifolia*.

TOURNEFEM, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, 9 m. NW. of St. Omer.

* **TOURNEY**. See **TOURNAMENT**.

* **To TOURNEY**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To tilt in the lists.—Well could he *tourney*, and in lists debate. *Spenser*.

(1.) * **TOURNIQUET**. *n. f.* [French.] A bandage used in amputation, tightened or relaxed by the turn of a handle.—Loosen the *touriquet*. *Sharp*.

(2.) The **TOURNIQUET** is an instrument formed with screws, for compressing any part with rollers, &c. for the stopping of hemorrhages. See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

(1.) **TOURNON**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardèche, and late prov. of Dauphiny, seated on the declivity of a mountain, with a fine college, and a castle that commands the whole town. It lies near the Rhone, 40 miles W. of Grenoble, and 180 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 45. 6. N.

(2.) **TOURNON**, a town of France, seated on the banks of the Creuse, partly in the dep. of the Indre, and partly in that of Indre and Loire; 7 m. S. of Preuilli, and 8 NNW. of Blanc in Berry.

(3.) **TOURNON**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lot and Garonne, and capital of a castron in the district of Villeneuve; 11 miles E. of Villeneuve, and 20 NE. of Agen.

(4.) **TOURNON**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mount Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy; 15 miles E. of Chambery, and 14 NW. of Moutier.

TOURNUS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Saone and Loire, seated on the Saone; 11 miles S. of Chalons, and 13 N. of Maçon. Lon. 22. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 4. N.

TOURO, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Beira, 14 miles WSW. of Alfayates.

TOUROUVRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Orne; 6 miles NE. of Mortagne, and 13 SW. of Verneuil.

(1.) **TOURS**, an ancient, large, handsome, and rich city of France; capital of the dep. of the Indre and Loire, as it was formerly of the ci-devant province of **TOURAINE**. It is advantageously seated on the Loire, near the Cher. Over the Loire it has one of the finest bridges in Europe, consisting of 13 arches. This city was formerly famous for its wines, which were much esteemed, and for its silk manufactures, wherein 17,000 persons were employed in Richelieu's time; but at present the total number of inhabitants is not estimated.

estimated by Dr Brooke above 22,000; But Mr Cruttwell states it 33,000. In the year 732, the Saracens were defeated near this city by Charles Martel, with the loss of 100,000 men. Tours lies 52 miles NE. of Poitiers, 60 SW. of Orleans, and 127 SW. of Paris. Lon. 0. 47. E. Lat. 47. 24. N.

(2.) TOURS, a town of France, in the department of Puy de dome; 12 miles ESE. of Billon.

TOUR-LAXIS, a small principality of Germany, the prince of which got a share of the indemnities in 1801-2.

TOURVES, a town of France, in the department of Var, 4½ miles SE. of St Maximin.

TOURVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure; 10½ miles W. of Louviers, and 10½ SW. of Pont de l'Arche.

TOURY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Loiret; 12 miles W. of Pithiviers.

* To TOUSE. *v. a.* [probably of the same original with *taw*, *teize*, *tofe*.] To pull; to tear; to haul; to drag; whence *touser* or *touser* the name of a maffiff.—A bear whom angry curs have *touz'd*. *Spenser*.—She tosses, tumbles, strikes, turns, *soufes*, spurns, and sprauls. *Drayt*.—We'll *touwe* you—joint by joint. *Shak*.—

To *touwe* such things as flutter,

The honest Bounce is bread and butter. *Swift*.

TOUSER, *n. f.* [from *toufe*.] One who touies.

TOUSERA, a town of Africa, in Biledulgerid, dependent on Tunis, in a country abounding with dates. Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 32. 30. N.

TOUCHANG, a town of China, of the 3d rank in the prov. of Kiang-si, on the banks of lake Po-Yang; 17 miles NE. of Nan-kang.

TOUTERON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes; 9 miles N. of Vouziers, and 13½ S. of Meziens.

TOUTSI-CHAMPIA LING, a town of Tibet; 30 miles NW. of Tankersong.

TOUVRE, a river of France, in the dep. of the Charente; which runs into the Charente, half a mile above Angouleme.

TOU-YANG, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in the prov. of Quang-si, 1127 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 124. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 18. N.

TOU-YUN, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in the province of Koei-tcheou. Lon. 124. 48. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 12. N.

* TOW. *n. f.* [*tow*, Saxon.] Flax or hemp beaten and combed into a filamentous substance.—*Tow* twisted round the handle of an instrument makes it easier to be held. *Sharp*.

* To TOW. *v. a.* [*teon*, *teohun*, Saxon, to lead; *teghon*, old Dutch.] To draw by a rope, particularly through the water.—Thou should'st *tow* me after. *Shak*.—The seamen *towed*. *Swift*.

TOWA, a river of S. Wales, in Caermarthen-shire; which runs into the Tawe, at St Clare.

TOWAN HEAD, a promontory of England, on the NW. coast of Cornwall. Lon. 5. 4. W. Lat. 50. 27. N.

(1.) * TOWARD. *adj.* Ready to do or learn; not forward.

(2.) * TOWARD. TOWARDS. *adv.* [It is doubtful whether in this use the word be adverb or adjective.] Near; at hand; in a state of preparation.—

What might be *toward* that this sweaty haist
Doth make the night joint labourer with the
day?

(3.) * TOWARD. TOWARDS. *prep.* [*toward*, Sax.]

1. In a direction to.—*Toward* the wilderness. *Num.* xxiv. 1. 2. With local tendency to.—*Tow'rds* the retreating sea. *Milton*. 3. Near to; as, the danger now comes *towards* him. 4. With respect to; touching; regarding.—Love *towards* us. *Sidney*.—Sorrow's always *tow'rds* ourselves. *Shak*.—His heart relented *towards* her. *Milton*.—By our law, no good is to be left undone *towards* all. *South*. 5. With ideal tendency to.—This was the first alarm England received *towards* any trouble. *Clarendon*. 6. Nearly; little less than.—I am *towards* nine years older. *Swift*.

* TOWARDLINESS. *n. f.* [from *towardly*.] Docility; compliance; readiness to do or to learn.—The beauty and *towardliness* of children. *Kaleidh*.

* TOWARDLY. *adj.* [from *toward*.] Ready to do or to learn; docile; compliant with duty.—*Towards* noblemen or gentlemen. *Bacon*.

* TOWARDNESS. *n. f.* [from *toward*.] Docility.—Parents will not throw away the *towardness* of a child. *South*.

* TOWARDS. See TOWARD, § 2, and 3.

TOWCESTER, an ancient town of England in Northamptonshire, originally a Roman station. It is seated on a rivulet and has an elegant church. Its chief trade is lace-making. It has a market on Tuesday, and is 52 miles SE. of Coventry, and 60 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 15. W. Lat. 52. 4. N.

* TOWEL. *n. f.* [*tauaille*, French; *tuaglio*, Italian.] A cloth on which the hands are wiped.—Soft grassy *towels*. *Drayton*.—A napkin or *towel*. *Wifeman*.—Silken *towels*. *Dryden*.

(1.) * TOWER. *n. f.* [*tor*, Saxon; *tour*, Fr. *torre*, Italian; *turris*, Latin.] 1. A high building; a building raised above the main edifice.—A *tower*, whose top may reach unto heaven.—*Towers* and battlements. *Milton*. 2. A fortress; a citadel.—A strong *tower*. *Psalms*. 3. A high head-dress. *Towers*, and curls, and periwigs. *Hudibras*. 4. High flight; elevation.

(2.) A *Tower* is a tall building consisting of several stories, usually of a round form, though some are square or polygonal. *Towers* are built for fortresses, &c. as the Tower of London. See LONDON, § 28.

(3.) TOWERS, CIRCULAR. See ARCHITECTURE. Index.

* To TOWER. *v. n.* To soar; to fly or rise high.—An high rock *tow'r'd* still. *Spenser*.—The hawks do *tower* so well. *Shak*.—Rising folds that *tower'd*. *Milton*.—*Tow'ring* his height, and ample was his breast. *Dryden*.—The *tow'ring* height—Of waggons. *Dryden*.—Sublime thoughts which *tower* above the clouds. *Locke*.

* TOWERED. *adj.* [from *tower*.] Adorned or defended by towers.—The *tow'r'd* Cybele. *Milton*.

TOWER-HILL, a port town of Rhode Island, in Washington county, near Worden's Pond; 2 m. S. of Providence, and 182 from Philadelphia.

(1.) * TOWER-MUSTARD. *n. f.* [*turritis*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller*.

(2.) TOWER MUSTARD. See TURRITIS.

(3.) TOWER MUSTARD, BASTARD. See ARABIS.

TOWERS, Joseph, LL. D. an English dissenting divine, born in Southwark, in 1737, and bred a printer, under Coadbey; after which he commenced bookseller in London; but soon after engaged in the ministry among the Presbyterian Dissenters; and in 1764 became pastor of a congregation in Highgate. In 1778, he was chosen one of the ministers of Newington Green, along with the celebrated Dr PRICE. In 1779, he received his degree from Edinburgh. He published, 1. an useful work, entitled *British Biography*, in 7 vols. 8vo. 2. *Observations on Hume's History of England*: 3. *The Life and Reign of Frederic III. of Prussia*, in 2 vols 8vo. 4. *A Vindication of Locke*: 5. Several Sermons and Political Tracts. He also assisted Dr Kippis in his edition of the *Biographia Britannica*. He died in 1799.

* **TOWERY**. *adj.* [from *tower*.] Adorned or guarded with towers—There *town'ry* cities and the forests green. *Pope*.—Salem—exalt thy *town'ry* head, and lift thine eyes! *Pope*.

TOWIE, or **TOWIE KINBATTOCH**, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and a broad, watered by the Don. The surface is hilly and covered with heath. On the banks of the river the soil is fertile, though not deep. The rest is a cold wet till. The population, in 1791, was 550; and had decreased 106 since 1755. Free stone and granite abound.

(1.) * **TOWN**. *n. f.* [*tun*, Saxon; *tyn*, Dutch; from *tinan*, Saxon, *hut*.] 1. Any walled collection of houses.—Her house was upon the *town* wall. *Jos. ii. 15*.—He storm'd the *town*. *Betterton*. 2. Any collection of houses larger than a village.—I had as liege the *town* crier had spoke the lines. *Shak*.—Into whatsoever city or *town* ye enter. *Mat. x. 11*.—Before him *towns* and rural works between. *Milton*.—Flies from *towns* to woods. *Broome*. 3. In England, any number of houses to which belongs a regular market, and which is not a city or the see of a bishop. 4. The inhabitants of a town.—The whole *towne* for their water sent. *Chapman*. 5. The court end of London.—Drags from the *town* to wholesome country air. *Pope*. 6. The people who live in the capital.—Stuns with his giddy larum half the *town*. *Pope*. 7. It is used by the inhabitants of every town or city; as we say, *a new family is come to town*.—Some new dress just come to *town*. *Law*. 8. It is used emphatically for the capital; as, *he lives six months in town, and six in the country*.

(2.) A **Town** is otherwise defined, a place inhabited by a considerable number of people, being of a middle size between a city and a village.

TOWNAVILLY, a town of Ireland, in Donegal county, Ulster.

* **TOWNCLERK**. *n. f.* [*town* and *clerk*.] An officer who manages the public business of a place.—The *townclerk* appealed the people. *Att. 2x. 25*.

* **TOWNHOUSE**. *n. f.* [*town* and *house*.] The hall where public business is transacted.—A *townhouse* will front the church. *Addison*.

(1.) **TOWNSEND**, a town of Massachusetts 36 miles NW. of Boston.

(2.) **TOWNSEND**, a sea port town of the United States, on the coast of Maine; with a good harbour of 9 fathoms deep, and safe from all winds.

* **TOWNSHIP**. *n. f.* [*town* and *ship*.] The corporation of a town; the district belonging to a town.—I am but a poor petitioner of our whole *township*. *Shak*.—They had erected *townships*. *Raleigh*.

TOWNSON, Thomas, D. D. a learned divine born in Essex, in 1715; and educated at Magdalen college, Oxford, of which he became fellow. After several inferior promotions, he was appointed archdeacon of Richmond. He published, 1. Discourses on the Gospels; 2. Answer to the Confessional; and 3. he wrote a Discourse on the Evangelical History; published since his death, in 1791. His works have very lately been collected and published in two vols 8vo. with a life of the author.

* **TOWNSMAN**. *n. f.* [*town* and *man*.] 1. An inhabitant of a place.—Here come the *townsmen* on procession. *Shak*.—Almost all the *townsmen* of Kilkenny were slain. *Davies*.—Defended only by the *townsmen*. *Clar*.—Admit the *townsmen* at their first appearance. *Dryden*. 2. One of the same town.

* **TOWNTALK**. *n. f.* [*town* and *talk*.] Common prattle of a place.—The secret, in twelve hours, shall be *towntalk*. *L'Estrange*.

TOWRIDGE, or **TOURICH**, a river of England, in Devonshire, which rises near the source of the Tamar, and near Bristol Channel; runs SE. to Hatherley, and then joining the Oke from Oakhampton, turns short to the N. and, passing by Torrington and Biddeford, falls into the sea at Barnstaple Bay.

TOWTON, a village of England, in the W. Riding of Yorkshire, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles SE. of Tadcaster; memorable for a bloody battle fought between the adherents of the houses of York and Lancaster, on Palm Sunday, 1461, wherein the latter were defeated, with the loss of 36,000 men, and Henry VI. obliged to fly into Scotland. (See ENGLAND, § 33.) Towton is 185 miles N. of London.

TOWY, a river of S. Wales, which rises in Cardiganshire, enters Caermarthenshire at its NE. extremity, and running past Caermarthen, falls into the Bristol Channel, at Caermarthen Bay, 6 miles below Caermarthen.

TOWYNMYN, a river of N. Wales, in the county of Montgomery, which falls into the Towy, 5 miles NE. of Machynlleth.

TOXANDRI, an ancient people of Gallia Belgica. *Plin. v. c. 7*.

TOXARIDIA, a festival held at Athens, in honour of

TOXARIS, a Scythian hero.

* **TOXICAL**. *adj.* [*toxicum*, Lat.] Poisonous; containing poison.

TOXICODENDRON, in botany. See RHUS.

* **TOY**. *n. f.* [*toyen*, *tooghen*, to dress with many ornaments, Dutch.] 1. A petty commodity; a trifle; a thing of no value.—Might I make acceptable unto her that *toy*. *Sidney*.—Knives, glasses, and such *toys*. *Abbot*.—That *toy* a woman! *Dryden*.

Dryden. 1. A plaything; a bauble.—To dally thus with death is no fit *toy*. *Spenser*.—Coaches, trappings, tables, cabinets, and the like precious *toys*! *Addison*.—In Delia's hand this *toy* is fatal found. *Pope*.—Florists enamour'd of a *toy*. *Young*. 3. Matter of no importance.—A knack, a *toy*, a trick, a baby's cap. *Shak*.—No light and idle *toys* my lines may vainly swell. *Drayton*. 4. Folly; trifling practice; silly opinion.—Follies and *toys*. *Hooker*. 5. Play; sport; amorous dalliance.—

Ye sons of Venus, play your sports at will;
For greedy pleasure, carelefs of your *toys*,
Thinks more upon her paradise of joys. *Spenser*.
So said he, and forbore not glance or *toy*
Of amorous intent. *Milton*.

6. Odd story; silly tale.—Antic fables, fairy *toys*. *Shak*. 7. Slight representation.—Shall that be now disguised with a *toy* of novelty? *Hooker*. 8. Wild fancy; irregular imagery; odd conceit.

The very place puts *toys* of desperation,
Without more motive, into every brain. *Shak*.
* To *TOY*. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To trifle;
to dally amorously; to play.

* *TOYISH*. *adj.* [from *toy*.] Trifling; wanton.

* *TOYISHNESS*. *n. f.* [from *toyish*.] Nugacity; wantonness.—*Toyishness* of wanton fancy, that plays tricks with words. *Glanville*.

* *TOYMAN*. *n. f.* [from *toy*.] A seller of toys.—The foremost *toyman* of his time. *Young*.

* *TOYSHOP*. *n. f.* [*toy* and *shop*.] A shop where playthings and little nice manufactures are sold.—The heart was nothing else but a *toyshop*. *Addison*.—They shift the moving *toyshop* of their heart. *Pope*.

* To *TOZE*. *v. a.* [See *TOWSE* and *TEASE*.] To pull by violence or importunity.—I *toze* from thee thy business. *Shak*.

TOZER, a town of Africa, in Biledulgerid.

TOZZETH, John Targioni, botanist, born at Florence in 1712. He studied physic at Pisa, and became keeper of the botanic garden at Florence. He wrote several works in Latin and Italian, on botany; one upon the *Utility of Plants in the practice of Physic*. He died at Florence in 1783.

TOZZIA, in botany, a genus of plants of the class *Didymia*, and order of *Angiospermia*; and ranking in the natural method, under the 40th order, *Perfonate*.

TRAARBACH, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Rhine and Moselle, and late county of *Sponheim*; 34 miles SW. of Coblenz, and 20 ENE. of Treves. Lon. 24. 26. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 2. N.

TRAAS. See *TERRAS*.

TRABAY, a river of Spain, in Grenada, which runs into the sea near Muxarra.

TRABEA, Quintus, a comic poet, who flourished at Rome, in the age of Regulus. Some fragments of his poetry are still extant. *Cic. in Tuf. iv. c. 13*.

TRABENKA, a town of Sweden, in the isle of Aland.

TRABIA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara, 2 miles W. of Termini.

* *TRACE*. *n. f.* [*trace*, Fr. *traccia*, Italian. 1. Mark left by any thing passing; footsteps.—

These as a line their long dimension drew,
Streaking the ground with sinuous *trace*. *Milt*. 2. Remain; appearance of what has been.—The people lived without any *traces* of orders, laws or religion. *Temple*.—There are not the least *traces* of it to be met. *Addison*.—No *trace* of war. *Pope*. 3. [From *tiraffer*, French; *tiraffes*, traces.] Harness for beasts of draught.—

Her wagon spokes made of long spinner's legs;

The *traces*, of the smallest spider's web. *Shak*.—The labour'd ox in his loose *traces*. *Milton*.—Lab'ring oxen, in their loose *traces*. *Pope*.—Unpractis'd in the *traces*. *Pope*.

* To *TRACE*. *v. a.* [*tracer*, Fr. *tracciare*, Italian.] 1. To follow by the footsteps, or remaining marks.—

I feel thy power to *trace* the ways
Of highest agents. *Milton*.

—You may *trace* the deluge round the globe.

Burnet.—They do but *trace* over the paths beaten by the ancients. *Temple*.—To this haste, a not due *tracing* of the arguments is owing. *Locke*. 2.

To follow with exactness.—*Tracing* word by word, and line by line. *Denham*. 3. To mark out.—He allows the soul power to *trace* images on the brain.

Locke.—His pen can *trace* out a true quotation.

Swift. 4. To walk over.—

Men as they *trace*,
Both feet and face one way are wont to lead.

Spenser.
We do *trace* this alley up and down. *Shak*.

* *TRACER*. *n. f.* [from *trace*.] One that traces.—*Tracers* of a plot. *Howel*.

TRACHAS, a town of Latium. *Ovid*.
TRACHEA. See *ANATOMY*, *Index*.

TRACHELIUM, in botany, *UMBELLIFEROUS THROATWORT*, a genus of plants in the class *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*; ranking in the natural method under the 29th order, *Campanaceae*.

(1.) *TRACHENBERG*, or } a principality of
(1.) *TRACHENBURG*, } Silicia, bounded on the N. by the late kingdom of Poland, E. and S. by Oels, and W. by Wolaw.

(2.) *TRACHENBURG*, the capital of the above principality, is seated on the Barch, 12 miles NE. of Wolaw, and 26 N. of Breslaw. Lon. 17. 15. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

TRACHINIA, a country of Thessaly, in Phthiotis. *Trachis* was the capital.

TRACHINUS, in ichthyology, the *weever*, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of *jugulares*. There is but one species, viz.

TRACHINUS DRACO, or common weever. It grows to the length of 12 inches, but is commonly found much less; the irides are yellow; the under jaw is longer than the upper, and slopes very much towards the belly; the teeth are small; the back is straight, the sides are flat, the belly is prominent, the lateral line straight: the covers of the gills are armed with a very strong spine: the first dorsal fin consists of five very strong spines, which, as well as the intervening membranes, are tinged with black; this fin, when quiescent, is lodged in a small hollow: the 2d consists of several soft rays, commences just at the end of the first, and continues

nues

nues almost to the tail: the pectoral fins are broad and angular; the ventral fins small; the vent is placed remarkably forward, very near the throat: the anal fin extends to a small distance from the tail, is a little hollowed in the middle, but not so much as to be called forked: the sides are marked lengthwise with 2 or 3 dirty yellow lines; and transversely by numbers of small ones; the belly silvery. The wounds inflicted by its spines are exceedingly painful, attended with a violent burning and most pungent shooting, and sometimes with an inflammation that will extend from the arm to the shoulder. The remedy used by some fishermen is the sea-land, with which they rub the place affected for a considerable time. At Scarborough, stale urine warmed is used with success. An inflame is mentioned of a person who was reduced to great danger by a wound from this fish, and who was cured by the application of sweet oil, and taking opium and Venice treacle. This fish buries itself in the sands, leaving only its nose out, and if trode on immediately strikes with great force. Notwithstanding this noxious property of the spines, it is exceedingly good meat.

TRACHONITIS. See GILEAD, N^o 4.

* TRACK. *n. f.* [*trac*, *John Fr. traccia*, Italian.] 1. Mark—left upon the way by the foot or otherwise.—Following the *track* of Satan. *Milt.*—With *tracks* of blood inscrib'd the dusty ground. *Dryd.*—*Tracks* or footsteps of wisdom. *Bentley.* 2. A road; a beaten path.—With *track* oblique side-long he works his way. *Milton.*—Behold Torquatus the same *track* pursue. *Dryden.*

* To TRACK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To follow by the footsteps or marks left in the way.—Hath *tracked* forth some savage beaſt's tread. *Spenser.*—You *track* him every where in their snow. *Dryd.*

* TRACKLESS. *adj.* [from *track*.] Untrodden; marked with no footsteps—

Loſt in *trackless* fields of ſhining day. *Prior.*

TRACOSOZ, a town of Spain, in Leon; 30 miles W. of Zamora.

* TRACT. *n. f.* [*tracſus*, Latin.] 1. Any kind of extended ſubſtance.—The deep *tract* of hell. *Milton.* 2. A region; a quantity of land.—There are ſome *tracts* which are barred from air and freſh wind. *Raleigh.*—Joined to the main land by a narrow *tract* of earth. *Addiſon.* 3. Continuity; any thing protracted, or drawn out to length.—A long *tract* of time. *Milt.*—In *tract* of ſpeech a dubious word is eaſily known by the coherence with the reſt. *Holder.* 4. Courſe; manner of proceſs; unleſs it means, in this place, rather, diſcourſe; explanation.—

The *tract* of every thing

Would, by a good diſcourſer, loſe ſome life

Which action's ſelf was tongue to. *Shak.*

5. It ſeems to be uſed by *Shakſpeare* for *tract*.—

The weary ſun hath made a golden ſet,

And, by the bright *tract* of his fiery car,

Gives ſignal of a goodly day to-morrow. *Shak.*

6. [*Tractatus*, Latin.] A treatiſe; a ſmall book.—Collection of *tracts* againſt popery. *Swift.*

* TRACTABLE. *adj.* [*tractabilis*, Lat. *tractabile*, Fr.] 1. Manageable; docile; compliant; obſequious; practicable; governable.—*Tractable* obedience. *Shak.*—If thou doſt find him *tractable* to

us. *Shak.*—Thoſe who yield themſelves *tractable* to good motions. *Tilloſt.*—Children will be *tractable*. *Locke.* 2. Palpable; ſuch as may be handled.—The other meaſures are of continued quantity, viſible, and for the moſt part *tractable*. *Holder.*

* TRACTABLENESS. *n. f.* [from *tractable*.] The ſtate of being tractable; compliance; obſequiouſneſs.—Children's *tractableneſs*. *Locke.*

* TRACTABLY. *adv.* In a tractable manner; gently.

* TRACTATE. *n. f.* [*tractatus*, Lat.] A treatiſe; a tract; a ſmall book.—Sermons and written *tractates*. *White.*—Philoſophical *tractates*. *Brown.*—No other evidence than Glanville's *tractate*. *Hob.*

* TRACTILE. *adj.* [*tractilis*, Lat.] Capable to be drawn out or extended in length; ductile.—*Tractile*, or to be drawn forth in length. *Bacon.*

* TRACTILITY. *n. f.* [from *tractile*.] The quality of being tractile.—The ductility and *tractility* of ſilver. *Derham.*

* TRACTION. *n. f.* [from *tractus*, Lat.] The act of drawing; the ſtate of being drawn.—The malleus follows the *traction* of the muſcle. *Holder.*

(1.) TRACTOR. *n. f.* A perſon or inſtrument that draws.

(2.) TRACTORS, METALLIC. See PERKINUM.

TRACTRIX. *n. f.* in geometry, a curve line; called alſo CATENARIA: which ſee,

(1.) * TRADE. *n. f.* [*tratta*, Ital.] 1. Traffic; commerce; exchange of goods for other goods, or for money.—Whoſoever commands the ſea, commands the *trade* of the world. *Raleigh.*—*Trade* increaſes in one place and decays in another. *Temple.* 2. Occupation; particular employment, whether manual or mercantile, diſtinguiſhed from the liberal arts or learned profeſſions.—Appoint every one a certain *trade* of life. *Spenser.*—Dreadful *trade*! *Shak.*—All the *trades* in Rome. *Shak.*

Inſtruction, manners, myſteries, and *trades*,

Decline to your confounding contraries. *Shak.*—Plund'ring was their *trade*. *Dryd.*—A captain is a very gainful *trade*. *Dryd.*—All *trades* of death.

Dryd.—Pertinax applied himſelf to a gainful *trade*. *Arbut.* 3. Inſtruments of any occupation.—His houſe and houſhold goods, his *trade* of war. *Dryd.*

4. Any employment not manual; habitual exerciſe.—Train them up in that *trade*. *Bacon.* 5. Cuſtom; habit; ſtanding practice.—Thy ſin's not accidental, but a *trade*. *Shak.* 6. Formerly *trade* was uſed of domeſtic, and *traffic* of foreign commerce.

(2.) TRADE, or COMMERCE, conſiſts in buying, ſelling, and exchanging of commodities, bills, money, &c. See COIN, MONEY, COMPANY, &c.

(3.) TRADE OF PERTH. The communication of this place with foreign countries was perhaps more frequent at an earlier period than it is now. Almoſt all the exports, and a conſiderable part of the imports, are now made through the medium of Dundee, Leith, Glaſgow, and London. Timber, iron, flax, and flax-ſeed, being the principal articles of immediate importation. There is not water in the Tay to admit veſſels drawing more than 10 feet. The tonnage of ſhipping which annually arrives with coals is about 27,000, with merchant goods 16,000, with lime 15,000, and with ſtones 500, in all about 52,000. The out-

with

ward freight consists of grain, salmon, wool, and manufactured goods of various descriptions. The number of quarters of grain exported in 1780 and in 1804 was as follows:

Wheat.	Barley.	Malt.	Pease.	Oats.	Total.
1780,	6440	10349	4920	1480	590, 23779
1804,	24936	35045	1449	857	3498 65785

Increase 42,006 quarters.—The quantity of salmon shipped for the London market is very great.—Paper is made in the neighbourhood to a considerable extent, and chiefly disposed of in London. There are several extensive tan-works established here; and the manufacture of leather into gloves, boots, shoes, &c. is prosecuted to no small amount, for English and foreign consumption. The most recent establishments are a foundry, and a manufactory of ink. The trade in all these branches was, however, insignificant, compared with the commerce in the staple of linen, that was carried on for many years very extensively; but the superior cheapness of German and Irish goods has caused the industry and capital of Perth of late to be directed to the making of cotton articles of all descriptions, from the coarsest calicoe to the finest muslin. For bleaching there are several great establishments in the neighbourhood; and the print-field at KUTHVEN is not inferior in extent to any in the country. The estimate of the trade of Perth in 1794 was £250,000. The amount may now be stated at double that sum at least.—N. B. The population of Perth, as ascertained in 1802, was about 15,000, and is now supposed by the well informed to exceed 17,000,—which number read for 11,000, erroneously printed in the article PERTH.

(4.) TRADES OF SCOTLAND. See INCORPORATION, § 4.

(1.) * TO TRADE. *v. a.* To sell or exchange in commerce.—They traded the persons of men in thy market. *Ezek.* xxvii. 13.

(2.) * TO TRADE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To traffic; to deal; to hold commerce.—Gained by trading. *Luke* xix. 15.—Nations reformed with their goods, and traded. *Arbutb.*—Maximus traded with the Goths. *Arbutb.* 2. To act merely for money.—To trade and traffic. *Shak.* 3. Having a trading wind.—They on the trading flood ply tow'rd the pole. *Milton.*

* TRADED. *adj.* [from trade.] Verified; practised.—Long traded in it. *Shak.*—Two traded pilots. *Shak.*

* TRADEFUL. *adj.* [trade and full.] Commercial; busy in traffic.—Tradeful merchants. *Spens.*

* TRADER. *n. f.* [from trade.] 1. One engaged in merchandise or commerce.—Traders riding to London. *Shak.*—Fortunate traders. *Dryd.*—Many traders will necessitate merchants to trade for less profit. *Child.*—Traders sum up accounts.—*Swift.* 2. One long used in the method of money getting; a practitioner.

(1.) TRADESCANT, John, an ingenious naturalist, said to have been a native of Flanders, who established the first museum in this country, at South Lambeth, about the end of the reign of Elizabeth. It was sold to Elias Ashmole, and deposited at Oxford.

(2, 3.) TRADESCANT, John, the son and grandson of the preceding, were also eminent botanists, antiquaries, and collectors of antiquities, plants,

fossils, &c. but no particular memoir is preserved of any of the three, except what is recorded on their monument in Lambeth church-yard.

TRADESCANTIA, in botany, VIRGINIAN SPIDER-WORT, a genus of plants, in the class *Hexandria*, and in the order of *monogynia*; ranking in the natural method under the 6th order, *Enfase.*

* TRADESFOLK. *n. f.* [trade and folk.] People employed in trades.—*Tradesfolk* would soon get money. *Swift.*

(1.) * TRADESMAN. *n. f.* [trade and man.] A shopkeeper. A merchant is called a *trader*, but not a tradesman; and it seems distinguished in *Shakspeare* from a man that labours with his hands.—I live by the awl, I meddle with no tradesmen's matters. *Shak.*—*Tradesmen* fingering in their shops. *Shak.*—Merchants and tradesmen. *Bacon.*—*Tradesmen* in their respective dealings. *Graunt.*—He would not be thought a tradesman. *Prior.*—A plain tradesman with a shop. *Arbutb.*—A tradesman, meek and much a liar. *Pope.*—Penitens was a busy notable tradesman. *Law.*

(2.) TRADESMEN'S TOKENS, copper coins which were issued by individuals, in the end of the 18th century, when half-pence were very scarce. The devices they bore were entirely regulated by the taste or fancy of the issuers. On Bolton's coinage of copper in 1799, they retired from circulation. Many hundred different specimens have been preserved from the melting pot, in the cabinets of collectors.

(1.) * TRADE-WIND. *n. f.* [trade and wind.] The monsoon; the periodical wind between the tropics.—

But now, the Cape once doubled, fear no more; A constant trade-wind will securely blow. *Dryd.*—Comfortable is the trade-wind to the equatorial parts. *Cheyne.*

(2.) TRADE-WINDS, certain regular winds at sea, blowing either continually the same way, or alternately this way and that; thus called from their use in navigation, and the Indian commerce. See WIND.

* TRADITION. *n. f.* [tradition, Fr. *traditio*, Lat.] 1. The act or practice of delivering accounts from mouth to mouth without written memorials; communication from age to age.—To learn it we have tradition. *Hooker.* 2. Any thing delivered orally from age to age.—

Superstitions and traditions taint, Left only in those written records pure. *Milton.*—A general tradition. *Wilkins.*—Fond tradition. *Pope.*

* TRADITIONAL. *adj.* [from tradition.] 1. Delivered by tradition; descending by oral communication; transmitted by the foregoing to the following age.—Traditional sense of Scripture. *Til-lotson.* Children born from wealthy parents, have the same traditional sloth and luxury. *Swift.* 2. Observant of tradition, or idle rites. Not used, nor proper.—

God forbid

We should infringe the holy privilege Of sanctuary!

—You are too senseless obstinate, my lord; Too ceremonious and traditional. *Shak.*

* TRADITIONALLY. *adv.* [from traditional.] 1. By

1. By transmission from age to age.—This doctrine is *traditionally* derived from St John. *Burnet.* 2. From tradition without evidence of written memorials.—It is *traditionally* related by Strabo. *Brown.*

* **TRADITIONARY.** *adj.* [from *tradition*] Delivered by traditions; transmissive; handed down from age to age.—

Suppose the same *traditionary* strain

Of rigid manners in the house remain. *Dryden.*
—*Traditionary* sense of scripture. *Tillotson.* *Traditionary* account of our Saviour. *Addison.*

* **TRADITIVE.** *adj.* [traditive, Fr. from *trado*, Lat.] Transmitted or transmissible from age to age.—Suppose we on things *traditive* divide. *Dryd.*

* **TO TRADUCE.** *v. a.* [traduco, Lat. *traduere*, Fr.] 1. To censure; to condemn; to represent as blameable; to calumniate; to decry.—*Traducing* the form and manner of prayer. *Hooker.*—Other things also *traduced* are, together with these, to be touched. *Hooker.*—As long as men are malicious and designing, they will be *traducing*. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—He *traduced* me in libel. *Dryden.* 2. To propagate; to encrease or continue by deriving one from another.—

None are so gross as to contend for this,

That souls from bodies may *traduced* be. *Davies.*
—From these animals were propagated and *traduced* over the earth. *Hale.*—Whether the soul be immediately created or *traduced*, hath been the great ball of contention. *Glanville.*

* **TRADUCEMENT.** *n. f.* [from *traduce*.] Censure; obloquy.—Worse than a *theft*, no less than a *traducement*. *Shak.*

* **TRADUCER.** *n. f.* [from *traduce*.] 1. A false censurer; a calumniator. 2. One who derives.

* **TRADUCIBLE.** *adj.* [from *traduce*.] Such as may be derived.—Not orally *traducible*. *Hale.*

TRADUCTA JULIA, the ancient name of Tariffa in Spain. See *TARIFFA*.

* **TRADUCTION.** *n. f.* [from *traduce*.] 1. Derivation from one of the same kind; propagation.—The patrons of *traduction*, and the asserters of creation. *Glanville.*—If by *traduction* came thy mind. *Dryden.* 2. Tradition; transmission from one to another.—Traditional communication and *traduction* of truth. *Hale.* 3. Conveyance; act of transferring.—The *traduction* of brutes could only be by shipping. *Hale.* 4. Transition.—Figures in rhetoric of repetition and *traduction*. *Bacon.*

(1.) **TRAETH BICHA**, a bay of the Irish Sea, on the W. coast of Merionethshire, in N. Wales.

(2.) **TRAETH COCH**, or REDWHARF BAY, a bay on the N. coast of Anglesey, 14 miles W. of Great Orme's Head.

(3.) **TRAETH MAWER**, a bay of the Irish Sea, on the W. coast of N. Wales, between the counties of Merioneth and Caernarvon, 4 miles N. of Harlech.

TRAFAGNOI, a river of the Tirolese, which runs into the Lavis, 4 miles N. of Castellier.

TRAFALGAR, CAPE. See *TREFALGAR*.

TRAFARIA, a town and fort of Portugal, in Estremadura, on the S. bank of the Tajo, 6 miles SW. of Lisbon.

* **TRAFFICK.** *n. f.* [*trafique*, Fr. *traffico*, Italian.] 1. Commerce; merchandising; large trade; exchange of commodities. *Traffick* was formerly used of foreign commerce in distinction from *trade*.—*Traffick's* thy god. *Shak.*—A merchant of great *traffick* through the world. *Shak.*—Tyre, a town of great wealth and *traffick*. *Heclyn.*—Advanced the *traffick* of his people. *Addis.* 2. Commodities; subject of traffick.—Filthy *traffick*. *Gay.*

* **TO TRAFFICK.** *v. n.* [*trafique*, Fr. *trafficare*, Italian.] 1. To practice commerce; to merchandise; to exchange commodities.—Things to *traffick* withal. *Bacon.* 2. To trade meanly or mercenarily.—

How did you dare

To trade and *traffick* with Baceth. *Shak.*
—I *traffick* with thee for a prince's ruin! *Rowe.*

* **TRAFFICKER.** *n. f.* [*trafique*, Fr. from *traffick*] Trader; merchant.—Your Argosies do overpeer the petty *traffickers*. *Shak.*—In it are many Jews, great *traffickers*. *Addison.*

(1.) * **TRAGACANTH.** *n. f.* [*tragacantha*, Lat.] A gum which proceeds from the incision of the root or trunk of a plant so called. *Trevoux.*

(2.) **TRAGACANTH.** See *ASTRAGALUS*, § 2, N° 2; and *PHARMACY*, Index.

TRAGARTH, a river of S. Wales, in Brecknockshire, which runs into the Neath.

* **TRAGEDIAN.** *n. f.* [from *tragedy*; *tragædius*, Lat.] 1. A writer of tragedy.—Verses out of the ancient *tragedian*. *Stillingfleet.* 2. An actor of tragedy.—I can counterfeit the deep *tragedian*. *Shak.*—The well-lung'd *tragedian's* rage. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **TRAGEDY.** *n. f.* [*tragedie*, Fr. *tragædia*, Lat.] 1. A dramatick representation of a serious action.—Blotted *tragedy*. *Shak.*—All our *tragedies* are of kings and princes. *Taylor.*—Imitate the sister of painting, *tragedy*. *Dryden.*—An anthem was called the goat-song or *tragedy*. *Rymer.*

There to her heart fady *tragedy* address

The dagger.

2. Any mournful or dreadful event.—I live to look upon their *tragedy*. *Shak.*—Another act of the same *tragedy*. *K. Charles.*

(2.) **TRAGEDY.** See *ARTS*, § 1, 8; *DRAMA*, § 2; *ORATORY*, Part III. and IV. and *THEATRE*, § 2—6.

TRAGEIN, a town of Germany, in the empire of Austria, 10 miles ENE. of Stayregg.

TRAGIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class of *Monacia*, and order of *Triandria*, ranking according to the natural method, in the 18th order, *Tricocce*.

* **TRAGICAL, TRAGICK.** *adj.* [*tragicus*, Lat. *tragicus*, Fr.] 1. Relating to tragedy.—The *tragick* stage. *Spenser.*—This *tragick* play. *Shak.* 2. Mournful; calamitous; sorrowful; dreadful.—Bitter, black, and *tragical*. *Shak.*—The *tragick* melancholy night. *Shak.*—Why look you still so stern and *tragical*? *Shak.*—So *tragical* a fate. *Sandys.*—I now must change those notes to *tragick*. *Milton.*—A pretty *tragical* story. *Addis.*—*Tragick* pomp. *Rowe.*

* **TRAGICALY.** *adv.* [from *tragical*.] 1. In a tragical manner; in manner besitting tragedy.—He hath revenged them *tragically*. *Dryden.* 2. Mournfully; sorrowfully; calamitously.

* **TRAGICALNESS.** *n. f.* [from *tragical*.] Mournfulness;

Mournfulness; calamitousness.—*Tragicalness* of the event. *Decay of Piety.*

* **TRAGICK.** See **TRAGICAL.**

* **TRAGI-COMEDY.** *n. f.* [*tragi-comédie*, Fr. from *tragedy* and *comedy*.—A drama compounded of merry and serious events.—*Life's tragi-comedy.* *Denham.*—We have often had *tragi-comedies* upon the English theatre with success. *Gay.*

* **TRAGI-COMICAL.** *adj.* [*tragi-comique*, Fr. *tragic* and *comical*.] 1. Relating to *tragi-comedy*.—The art of the *tragi-comical* farce lies in interweaving the several kinds of the drama. *Gay.* 2. Consisting of a mixture of mirth with sorrow.

* **TRAGI-COMICALLY.** *adv.* [from *tragi-comical*.] In a *tragi-comical* manner.—I was *tragi-comically* got. *Brampston.*

TRAGOI, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, 24 miles E. of *Ternova*.

TRAGOLLES, a town of Africa, in *Bambouk*.

TRAGONISI, an island in the Grecian Archipelago, 2 miles W. of *Myconi*; chiefly inhabited by goats.

TRAGOPOGON, **GOAT'S BEARD**, in botany; a genus of plants belonging to the class of *syngenesia*, and to the order of *polygamia equalis*; and in the natural system ranging under the 4th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is naked, the calyx simple, and the pappus plumose. There are 14 species; of which two are British:

1. **TRAGOPOGON FORRISOLIUM**, the purple goat's beard, has the calyx longer than the radius of the floret; the flowers are large, purple, single, and terminal; and the leaves long, pointed, and bluish. The root is long, thick, and esculent. It grows in meadows, and is cultivated in gardens under the name of *salsafy*.

2. **TRAGOPOGON PRATENSE**, the yellow goat's beard, has its calyxes equal with the florets, and its leaves entire, long, narrow, sessile, and grassy. In fair weather this plant opens at sun rising, and shuts between nine and ten in the morning. The roots are conical and esculent, and are sometimes boiled and served up at table like asparagus. It grows on meadows.

TUAGURIUM, an ancient town of Dalmatia on the sea coast.

TRAGUS, a river of ancient Arcadia, running into the *Alpheus*. *Paus.* 8. c. 13.

TRAHONA, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the ci-devant Valteline, seated on a rivulet which runs into the *Adda*, 2 miles N. of *Morbeggio*.

(1.) **TRAJAN**, *Marcus Ulpius*, a celebrated Roman emperor, who gained many victories over the Parthians and Germans, pushing the empire to its utmost extent on the east and north sides. He died at *Selinunte*, a city of Cilicia, which from him was called *Trajanopolis*. See **PARTHIA**, § 9, 10; and *ROME*, § 54.

(2.) **TRAJAN**, in geography, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, on the *Perth*, 16 miles N. of *Galatz*.

TRAJANOPOLI, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, on the *Maritza*; 40 miles SW. of *Adrianople*, and 115 W. of *Constantinople*. *Lon.* 26. 18. E. *Lat.* 41. 15. N.

VOL. XXII. PART II.

TRAJANOPOLIS, an ancient town of Thrace 2. a name given to *Selinus*, where *Trajan* died.

TRAJAN'S COLUMN, a famous historical column erected in Rome, in honour of the emperor *Trajan*. It is of the Tuscan order, though somewhat irregular: its height is 8 diameters, and its pedestal Corinthian; it was built in a large square called *Forum Romanum*. Its base consists of 12 stones of an enormous size, and is raised on a socle, or foot, of 8 steps; within is a staircase illuminated with 44 windows. It is 140 feet high, which is 35 feet short of the *ANTONINE* column, but the workmanship of the former is much more valued. It is adorned from top to bottom with basso relievo, representing the great actions of the emperor against the *Dacians*.

* **TRAJECT.** *n. f.* [*trajet*, Fr. *trajet*, Latin.] A ferry; a passage for a water-carriage.—Bring to the *traject*, to the common ferry. *Shak.*

* **To TRAJECT.** *v. a.* [*trajec*, Latin.] To cast through; to throw.—The shadow of an horse *trajected*. *Glanville.*—Æther becomes a fit medium for *trajec*ing the light of celestial bodies. *Greav.*—If the sun's light be *trajected* through prisms. *Newton.*

* **TRAJECTION.** *n. f.* [*trajec*, Latin.] 1. The act of darting through.—Comets by a *trajec*tion through the æther, wander through the celestial part of the universe. *Boyle.* 2. Emission.—The *trajec*tions of such an object more sharply pierce the martyred soul of John, than afterwards did the nails the crucified body of Peter. *Brown.*

TRAJECTORIUM LUNARE. See **ASTRONOMY, Index.**

TRAJECTORY, *n. f.* a term often used, generally for the path of any body, moving either in a void, or in a medium that resists its motion; or even for any curve passing through a given number of points.

TRAJECTUS RHENI, the name given by the Romans to the town and province now called *UTRECHT*.

TRAJETTO, a town of Naples, in *Lavora*, built on the ruins of the ancient *MINTURNE*, near the mouth of the *Garigliano*; 6 miles SW. of *Sezza*, 25 NW. of *Capua*, 20 SW. of *Venafro*. *Lon.* 14. 4. E. *Lat.* 41. 20. N.

* **TRAIL.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Scent left on the ground by the animal pursued; track followed by the hunter.—If I cry out thus upon no *trail*, never trust me when I open again. *Shak.*—False *trail*. *Shak.*—Hunts not the *trail* of policy to sure. *Shak.* 2. Any thing drawn to length.—The *smoking trail* began to spread. *Dryden.*—When lightning shoots in glittering *trails* along. *Rowe.* 3. Any thing drawn behind in long undulations.—An ivy winding *trail*. *Spenser.*—A radiant *trail* of hair. *Pope.*

(1.) * **To TRAIL.** *v. a.* [*trailer*, Fr.] 1. To hunt by the track. 2. To draw along the ground.—*Trail* your steel pikes. *Shak.*—*Trail'd* his legs along. *Dryden.* 3. To draw a long floating or waving body.—He *trails* his pompous robe. *Pope.* 4. [*Treglen*, Dutch.] To draw; to drag.—They shall not *trail* me through the streets. *Milton.*

Thrice happy poet, who may *trail*
Thy house about thee like a snail. *Swift*

K k k (2) * **To**

(2.) * *To TRAIL. v. n.* To be drawn out in length.—

When his brother saw the red blood trail
Adown so fast. *Spenser.*
—*Trailing* hair. *Chapman.*—The flames pursued
the *trailing* smoke. *Dryden.*—

The blaze began to move,
And *trailing* vanished in th' Ideal grove. *Dryd.*
TRAILFLAT, a parish of Damfries-shire, united to that of Tinwald. See *TINWALD*.

(1.) * *TRAIN. n. f.* [*train*, Fr.] 1. Artifice; stratagem of enticement.—

He cast by treaty and by *trains*
Her to persuade. *Spenser.*
—To save his men from ambush and from *trains*.
Fairfax.—

This mov'd the king,
To lay to draw him in by any *train*. *Daniel.*
Swol'n with pride, into the snare I fell
Of fair fallacious looks, venerable *trains*. *Milton.*
Now to my charms

And to my wily *trains*. *Milton.*
—Others lay *trains* and pursue a game. *Temple.*
2. The tail of a bird.—While a man make his
train longer he makes his wings shorter. *Bacon.*—
The hinder grow too weak, and suffer the *train*
to fall. *Brown.*—The bird guideth her body with
her *train*. *Hakewill.*—

'Th' other, whose gay *train*
Adorns him. *Milton.*
The *train* reveals their flights. *Ray.* 3. The part
of a gown that falls behind upon the ground.—

Honour's *train*
Is longer than his fore skirts. *Shak.*
4. A series; a consecution: either local or mental.—Rivers now stream and draw their humid
train. *Milt.*—An easy and orderly *train*. *Locke.*—
Our ideas are always passing in *train*. *Locke.*—
They laboured in the *train* of what he said. *Locke.*—
A *train* of ideas. *Locke.*—*Train* of ill. *Addis.*
—A *train* of heavy sentiments. *Watts.* 5. Process; method; state of procedure.—If things
were once in this *train*. *Swift.* 6. A retinue; a
number of followers or attendants.—My *train* are
men of choice. *Shak.*—

Our fire walks forth, without more *train*
Accompany'd. *Milt.*
—Angels numberless, thy daily *train*. *Milt.*—He
comes not with a *train* to move our fear. *Dryden.*
—A lovely *train* of fellow nymphs. *Addison.*—Sins
which are in the *train* of war. *Smallridge.* 7. An
orderly company; a procession.—Fairest of stars,
last in the *train* of night. *Milton.*—

Who the knights ingreen, and what the *train*
Of ladies dress'd with daisies on the plain? *Dryd.*
8. The line of power reaching to the mine.—
Laying *trains* to fire the rabble. *Hudibras.*—He
that gives fire to the *train*. *L'Estrange.* 9. *TRAIN*
of artillery. Cannons accompanying an army.—
With an army abundantly supplied with a *train*
of artillery. *Clarendon.*

(2.) *TRAIN*, in geography, a river of the French
empire, in the department of the Dyle, and ci-
devant province of Austrian Brabant; which runs
into the Dyle, 3 miles S. of Louvain.

(3.) *TRAIN*, a town of Bavaria, on the Ambs;
5 miles S. of Abensperg, and 20 E. of Ingoldstadt.

(4.) *The TRAIN OF ARTILLERY* (§ 1. def. 10.)
includes the great guns and other pieces of or-
nance belonging to an army in the field.

* *To TRAIN. v. a.* [*trainer*, Fr.] 1. To draw
along.—

In hollow cube he *train'd*
His devilish engineering. *Milton.*
2. To draw; to entice; to invite; to allure.—
if but twelve French

Were there in arms, they would be as a call
To *train* ten thousand English to their side. *Shak.*
3. To draw by artifice or stratagem.—For that
cause I *train'd* thee to my house. *Shak.*—Ob *train*
me not, sweet mermaid, with thy note. *Shak.* 4.
To draw from act to act by persuasion or pro-
mise.—We did *train* him on. *Shak.* 5. To edu-
cate; to bring up; commonly with *up*.—I was
train'd up in the English court. *Shak.*—

His *training* such
That he may furnish and instruct great teachers.
Shak.

—A place for *training up* of youth. 2. *Mac.*—*Train*
them *up* in that trade. *Bacon.*—Spirits *train'd up*
in feast and song. *Milton.*—*Trained up* for glory.
Tillotson.—The young soldier is to be *trained on*
to the warfare of life. *Locke.* 6. To exercise, or
form to any practice by exercise.—Abram armed
his *trained* servants. *Gen.*—The warrior horse here
bred he's taught to *train*. *Dryden.*

TRAINA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of De-
monia, seated on the *TRAINA*, 50 miles SE. of
Cefalu, 22 W. of Mount Etna, and 20 SW. of
Messina. Lon. 14. 30. E. Lat. 37. 46. N.

* *TRAINBANDS. n. f.* [*train and bands*: 1. I op-
pose for *trained band*.] The militia; the part of
a community trained to martial exercise.—The
trainbands consisted of the most substantial house-
holders. *Clarendon.*—Let him raise the *trainbands*
of the city. *Dryden.*—The *trainbands* fled first.
Addison.

* *TRAINEER. n. f.* [from *train* and *bearer*.]
One who holds up a train.

TRAINEL, a town of France in the depart-
ment of the Aube; 6 miles S. of Nugent, and 27
W. of Troyes.

(1.) * *TRAINOIL. n. f.* [*train* and *oil*.] Oil
drawn by coction from the fat of the whale.

(2.) *TRAINOIL*, the oil procured from the blub-
ber of a whale by boiling.

* *TRAINY. adj.* [from *train*.] Belonging to
train oil. A bad word.—The huge hogheads
sweat with *trainy* oil. *Gay.*

* *To TRAIPE. v. a.* A low word. See
TRAPE.] To walk in a careless or fluttish man-
ner.—Two slip shod mules *traipe* alone. *Pope.*

(1.) * *TRAIT. n. f.* [*trait*, Fr.] A stroke; a
touch. Scarce English.—By this single *trait*
Homer marks an essential difference between the
Iliad and Odyssey. *Brown.*

(2.) *TRAIT*, in geography, a town of European
Turkey in Romania, on the Mariza, 12 miles
SW. of Philippopoli.

(1.) * *TRAITOR. n. f.* [*traître*, Fr. *traditor*,
Lat.] One who being trusted betrays.—The law
laid grievous punishment upon *traitors*. *Spenser.*
You are a great *traitor* to him. *Bacon.*—He should
be secured as a *traitor*. *Dryden.*—There is no dis-
tinction

ference whether a man calls me *traitor* in one word, or says I am one hired to betray my religion. *Swift*.

(2.) **TRAITOR'S ISLAND**, one of the Archipelago called **NAVIGATOR'S ISLANDS**, in the South Sea.

* **TRAITORLY**. *adj.* [from *traitor*.] Treacherous; perfidious.—*These traitorly rascals miseries.* *Shak.*

* **TRAITOROUS**. *adj.* [from *traitor*.] Treacherous; perfidious; faithless.—*Trait'rous wight.* *Daniel*.—*Traitorous terms.* *B. Jonf.*—*The traitorous or treacherous have misled others.* *Bacon*.—*Traitorous subjects.* *Addison*.

* **TRAITOROUSLY**. *adv.* [from *traitorous*.] In a manner suiting traitors; perfidiously; treacherously.—*Good duke Humphry traitorously is murder'd.* *Shak.*—*Me traitorously hast betray'd.* *Donne*.—*They had traitorously endeavoured to subvert the laws.* *Clarendon*.

* **TRAITRESS**. *n. f.* [from *traiter*.] A woman who betrays.—*Traitress, restore my beauty and my charms.* *Dryden*.—*By the dire fury of a traitress wife.* *Pope*.

* **TRALATITIOUS**. *adj.* [from *translatius*, *Lat.*] Metaphorical; not literal.

* **TRALATITIOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *tralatitius*.] Metaphorically; not literally; not according to the first intention of the word.—*Language properly is that of the tongue directed to the ear by speaking; written language is tralatitiously so called.* *Holder*.

(1.) **TRALEE**, a town of Ireland, in Kerry county, seated on a rivulet, that runs into the bay (N^o 2.) near a mineral spring; 45 miles NW. of Cork, and 30 SW. of Limerick. Lon. 9. 35. W. Lat. 52. 16. N.

(2.) **TRALEE BAY**, a spacious bay of Ireland, on the coast of Kerry, 9 miles long and 6 broad.

* **To TRALINEATE**. *v. n.* [*trans* and *line*.] To deviate from any direction.—*If you tralineate from your father's mind.* *Dryden*.

TRALLEBORG, a sea-port town of Sweden, in Skone, near the coast of the Baltic, 19 miles S. of Lund. Lon. 13. 5. E. Lat. 55. 20. N.

(1.) **TRALLES**, an ancient town of Lydia. (*Liv.* 37. c. 45. *Juv.* iii. 70.) It is now called **SULTAN-HISER**.

(2.) **TRALLES**, an ancient people of Illyricum.

TRALLIAN, Alexander, a Greek writer on physic, a native of Tralles in Lydia, who lived about the middle of the 6th century. He was the first who opened the jugular vein, and used cantharides as a blister for the gout.

TRA-LOS-MONTES, a province of Portugal, called in Latin **TRANSMONTANA**, because situated on the E. side of a chain of hills that separate it from Entre Duero e Minho. It is bounded on the N. by Galicia; on the S. by Beira and Leon; by the last of which it is bounded also on the E. Its length from N. to S. is upwards of 120 miles, and its breadth about 80. It is full of mountains, and produces little corn, but plenty of vines, fruits of several sorts, and abundance of game.

TRAMACASTREL, a town of Spain, in Aragon; 12 miles SSE. of Albarasin.

TRAMANDY, a town of Brasil, in the province of Rio Janeiro.

TRAMAYE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Saone and Loire; 7½ miles S. of Cluny, and 9. W. of Maçon.

TRAMIN, a town of the Tirolese, seated on a rivulet which runs into the Adige; 8 miles SSW. of Bolzano. It was taken by the French, with 600 prisoners and two cannons, March 22, 1797.

(1.) * **TRAMMEL**. *n. f.* [*tramail*, *Fr.* *trama*, *trugula*, *Lat.*] 1. A net in which birds or fish are caught.—*The trammel differeth not much from the shape of the bunt.* *Carew*. 2. Any kind of net.

Her golden locks the roundly did unty

In braided *trammels*. *Spenser*.

3. A kind of shackles in which horses are taught to pace.—*I was never before walked in trammels.* *Dryden's Spanish Fryar*.

(2.) **TRAMMELS**, in mechanics, are also an instrument used by artificers for drawing ovals upon boards, &c. One part of it consists of a cross with two grooves at right angles; the other is a beam carrying two pins, which slide in those grooves, and also the describing pencil.

* **To TRAMMEL**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To catch; to intercept.—

If th' assassination
Could *trammel* up the consequence. *Shak.*

TRAMMONEI, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and late duchy of Savoy; 14 miles W. of Chambéry.

(1.) * **To TRAMPLE**. *v. a.* [*trampo*, *Danish*.] To tread under foot with pride, contempt, or elevation.—*Cast not your pearls before swine, lest they trample them under their feet.* *Matt.* vii. 6.—*My strength shall trample thee as mire.*

Milton.

(2.) * **To TRAMPLE**. *v. n.* 1. To tread in contempt.—*Diogenes trampled on Plato's pride.* *Gore of the Tongue*.—*I trample on their ignominious altars.* *Rowe*. 2. To tread quickly and loudly.—*Trampling feet that shake the solid ground.* *Dryd.*

* **TRAMPLER**. *n. f.* [from *trample*.] One that tramples.

TRAMUTULO, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Basilicata; 13 miles SSE. of Potenza.

* **TRANATION**. *n. f.* [*trano*, *Latin*.] The act of swimming over.

TRANCAULT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aube; 9 miles S. of Nogent.

* **TRANCE**. *n. f.* [*transse*, *Fr.* *transitus*, *Latin*. It might therefore be written *transse*.] An extasy; a state in which the soul is rapt into visions of future or distant things; a temporary absence of the soul from the body. See **TRANCE**.—*In a trance of musing.* *Sidney*.—*My soul was ravish'd quite as in a trance.* *Spenser*.—*Rais'd the mountains from their trance.* *Drayt*.—*Abstract as in a trance.* *Milt.*—*Shook from his tender trance.* *Thomson*.

* **TRANCED**. *adj.* [from *trance*.] Lying in a trance or extasy.—*There I left him tranc'd.* *Shak.*

TRANCHIN, a handsome city of Upper Hungary, the capital of a county so named. It is seated on the Wagg, over which it has a wooden bridge. It has a castle built so high on a rock, that it is seen 30 miles off. It has also two warm baths, and several mineral springs. It is 50 miles NE. of Presburg. Lon. 17. 50. E. Lat. 49. 56. N.

TRANCON, an ancient town of Portugal, in the prov. of Tra-los-montes; with a handsome

castle

Kkkz

castle, seated in a fertile district; 24 miles from Pinnel. Lon. 7. 6. E. Lat. 40. 44. N.

TRANCOSO, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Tra-os-montes, 9 miles W. of Pinnel. In the 12th century it was besieged by Alboacan, the Moorish king of Badajoz; but without success, he being defeated by king Alphonfus.

TRANE, a town of Sweden, in Skone; 9 miles W. of Christianstadt.

TRANEMO, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 46 miles ESE. of Gottenburg.

(1.) TRANENT, a parish of Scotland, in East Lothian; 6 miles long and 3 broad, along the coast of the Frith of Forth. The surface is level, and except a small extent of sandy links, and 100 acres of common, the rest is all cultivated and produces very fertile crops of all the usual grain. The coast is level and sandy; except a part that is rocky, where the villages of PORT SETON and COCKENZIE are built. The coast abounds with beds of oysters, which, however, have been much exhausted. A manufacture of salt is carried on at the villages to a great extent, and there has been for many years a great distillery of Scottish spirits carried on at St Clement's Wells. The parish abounds with coal mines, which are wrought to a great extent at 3 different coaleries. The population, in 1791, was 2732; and had increased 273 since 1755. The most ancient edifice is *St Germans*, the seat of David Anderson, Esq. where an hospital of the Knights of St John of Jerusalem was founded in 1296.

(2.) TRANENT, a town in the above parish, pleasantly situated on the great E. road from Edinburgh to London; 8 miles from the metropolis. It is neatly built, and in a healthy climate. The church is an ancient Gothic building with a square tower for a steeple.

TRANGARDE, a town of Hindoostan, in Calicut; 8 miles NE. of Paniany.

* TRANGRAM. *n. f.* [A cant word.] An odd intricately contrived thing.—*Trangrams* and ginn-cracks? *Arbutnot.*

TRANI, a handsome and populous town of Naples, with a castle, a harbour, and archbishop's see; seated on the coast of the Adriatic; 10 miles W. of Barri, and 125 NE. of Naples. Lon. 16. 36. E. Lat. 41. 18. N.

* TRANNEL. *n. f.* A sharp pin. Perhaps from *tranel*—A small trannel of iron. *Moxon.*

TRANQUEBAR, a sea port town of Hindoostan, on the coast of Coromandel; with a harbour, fort, and factory; belonging to Denmark. It is seated at the mouth of the Cauvery; 165 miles S. of Madras. Lon. 79. 57. E. Lat. 10. 14. N.

* TRANQUIL. *adj.* [tranquille, Fr. *tranquillus*, Latin.] Quiet; peaceful; undisturbed.—

Farewell the tranquil mind. *Shak.*

* TRANQUILLITY. *n. f.* [tranquillitas, Lat. *tranquillitas*, Fr.] Quiet; peace of mind; peace of condition; freedom from perturbation.—Dying souls *tranquillity*. *Spenser*.—Looking *tranquillity*. *Congr.*—Passing from one stage of life to another with so much *tranquillity*. *Pope.*

TRANQUILLO, a cape at the S. end of the island of Raoué. Lon. 45. 14. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 2. N.

TRANQUILLUS. See SUTTONIUS.

(1.) TRANS, [Lat.] a Latin preposition, signifying *beyond* or *on the farther side*; makes part of many English words, conveying some idea of that kind, either local or metaphorical. It also made part of the ancient names of many countries, distant from Rome, and opposed *Cis*, on this side; as *Transalpine*, beyond the Alps; *Transpadane*, beyond the Po, &c.

(2.) TRANS, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ille and Vilaine; 6 miles SE. of Dole, and 4½ NW. of Antrain.

TRANSACEO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra; 8 miles S. of Celano.

* To TRANSACT. *v. a.* [*transactus*, Latin.] 1. To manage; to negotiate; to conduct a treaty or affairs. 2. To perform; to do; to carry on.—Particulars which were *transacted* amongst some few only. *Addison.*

(1.) * TRANSACTION. *n. f.* [*transactio*, Fr. from *transact.*] Negotiation; dealing between man and man; management; affairs; things managed.—The particular *transactions* of this treaty. *Clarendon.*

(2.) TRANSACTIONS, a name generally given to a collection of the papers read before literary or philosophical societies. The name of *Philosophical Transactions* was first adopted by the Royal Society of London. See SOCIETY, Part II. *Sec. II. § 1.*

TRANSALPINA GALLIA. See GALLIA, No 7.

TRANSALPINE, *adj.* [*trans* and *Alpes*.] Beyond the Alps.

* TRANSANIMATION. *n. f.* [*trans* and *anima*.] Conveyance of the soul from one body to another.—The *transanimation* of Pythagoras was, that the souls of men transmigrated into species answering their former nature. *Brown.*

TRANSARART, a town of Algiers, near the coast of the Mediterranean; on the Gulf of Immisca; 30 miles SW. of Oran.

TRANSATLANTIC, *adj.* [*trans* and *Atlantic*.] Beyond the Atlantic Ocean; a term applied to America in respect of Europe.

(1.) * To TRANSCEND. *v. a.* [*transcendo*, Lat.] 1. To pass; to overpass.—*Transcend* their limits. *Bacon*.—She must herself *transcend*. *Davies*. 2. To surpass; to outgo; to exceed; to excel.—This glorious piece *transcends* what he could think. *Waller*.—What they act *transcends* what they command. *Dryden*.—Her worth *transcended* all her kind. *Dryd.* 3. To surmount; to rise above.—Meteorological impressions not *transcending* the upper region. *Howell*.

(2.) To TRANSCEND. *v. n.* 1. To climb. Not in use.—They *transcend* from one unto another. *Brown*. 2. To surpass thought.—The confidence of grace and free will is no such *transcending* mystery. *Hammond*.

* TRANSCENDENCE. } *n. f.* [from *transcend.*] 1. Excellence; unusual excellence; supereminence. 2. Exaggeration; elevation beyond truth.—In poetry *transcendencies* are more allowed. *Bacon's Essays*.

* TRANSCENDENT. *adj.* [*transcendens*, Lat. *transcendent*, Fr.] Excellent; supremely excellent; passing others.—The eminent and *transcendent* honour of the day. *White*.—*Transcendens* worth. *Croshaw*.—*Transcendent* nature. *Bp. Sanderson*.—*Trans-*

Transcendent brightness. Milton.—Oh *transcendent* maid! *A. Philips*.—The right of our Creator is of a high and *transcendent* nature. *Rogers*.

(1.) * **TRANSCENDENTAL**. *adj.* [*transcendentalis*, low Lat.] 1. General; pervading many particulars. 2. Supereminent; passing others.—The Deity must have a perfect and *transcendental* perception of all things. *Grew's Cosmol.*

(2.) **TRANSCENDENTAL CURVES**, and } terms
(3.) **TRANSCENDENTAL EQUATIONS**; } used
by *LEIBNITZ* and his followers, for the illustration
of the mechanical cuive. See **MECHANICAL**, § 4.

* **TRANSCENDENTLY**. *adv.* [from *transcendent*.] Excellently; supereminently.—Eminently
and *transcendently*. *South*.

* **To TRANSCULATE**. *v. a.* [*trans* and *colo*, Latin.] To strain through a sieve or colander; to suffer to pass, as through a strainer.—To imbibe and *transculate*. *Harvey*.

* **To TRANSCRIBE**. *v. a.* [*transcribo*, Latin; *transcribere*, Fr.] To copy; to write from an exemplar.—Others did but *transcribe* copies. *Clarend.*—They do but *transcribe* his folly. *Decay of Piety*.—We *transcribe* their faults. *Rogers*.

* **TRANSCRIBER**. *n. s.* [from *transcribe*.] A copier; one who writes from a copy.—Copiers and *transcribers*. *Addison*.—Writings have been corrupted by unskilful *transcribers*. *Waterland*.

(1.) * **TRANSCRIPT**. *n. s.* [*transcript*, French; *transcriptum*, Latin.] A copy; any thing written from an original.—The Grecian learning was but a *transcript* of the Chaldean and Egyptian. *Glanv.*—The decalogue was but a *transcript*. *South*.

(2.) **TRANSCRIPT** denotes particularly a copy of an act or instrument inserted in the body of another.

* **TRANSCRIPTION**. *n. s.* [*transcription*, Fr. from *transcriptus*, Lat.] The act of copying.—The practice of *transcription* in our days was no monster in their's. *Brown*.—Corruptions have crept in by many *transcriptions*. *Brerewood*.

* **TRANSCRIPTIVE**, *adj.* belonging to transcription.

* **TRANSCRIPTIVELY**. *adv.* [from *transcript*.] In manner of a copy.—*Transcriptively* subscribing to other men's endeavours. *Brown*.

* **To TRANSCUR**. *v. n.* [*transcurro*, Lat.] To run or rove to and fro.—The mind doth spaciately and *transcur*. *Bacon*.

* **TRANSCURSION**. *n. s.* [from *transcursum*, Lat.] Ramble; passage through; passage beyond certain limits; extraordinary deviation.—The sense and the affects of any one part of the body instantly make a *transcurSION* through the whole. *Bacon*.—I have briefly run over *transcurSIONS*. *Wotton*.—His philosophy gives them *transcurSIONS* beyond the vortex we breathe in. *Glanville*.—*TranscurSIONS* into the neighbouring forests. *Howel*.—The *transcurSIONS* of comets. *More*.

* **TRANSE**. *n. s.* [*transe*, Fr. See **TRANCE**.] A temporary absence of the soul; an ecstasy.—Abstract as in a *transe*. *Milton*.

* **TRANSELEMENTATION**. *n. s.* [*trans* and *element*.] Change of one element into another.—Rain we allow, but no other *transelementation*. *Burnet*.

TRANSEXION. *n. s.* [*trans* and *sexus*, Latin.]

Change from one sex to another.—It much impeacheth the iterated *transexion* of hares, if it be true, that transmutation of sexes was only so in opinion. *Brown*.

* **TRANSFER**. *n. s.* A change of property; a delivery of property to another.

* **To TRANSFER**. *v. a.* [*transferer*, Fr. *transfere*, Lat.] 1. To convey; to make over from one to another; with *to*, sometimes with *upon*.—He *transfers* the laws of the Lacedemonians to the people of Athens. *Spenser*.—I was well pleased to have *transferred* my right. *Dryd.*—To the Grecian chiefs *transferr'd* the cause. *Dryden*.—They *transferred* all the honour of it upon themselves. *Atterbury*.—*Transfer* the power and set the people free. *Prior*.—By reading we *transfer* to ourselves the knowledge and improvements of the most learned men. *Watts*. 2. To remove; to transport.—He could not with safety *transfer* his own person. *Bacon*.—Then from Lavinium shall the seat *transfer*. *Dryden*.

* **TRANSFERRER**. *n. s.* He that transfers.

* **TRANSFIGURATION**. *n. s.* [*transfiguration*, 1. Change of form.—In caterpillars there is a visible and triple *transfiguration*. *Brown*. 2. The miraculous change of our blessed Saviour's appearance on the mount.—The *transfiguration* and the agony in the garden. *Addison*.—Are Raphael's works *transfigurations* all? *Blackmore*.

* **To TRANSFIGURE**. *v. a.* [*transfigurer*, Fr. *trans* and *figura*, Lat.] To transform; to change with respect to outward appearance.—I am zealous to *transfigure* your love into devotion. *Boyle*.—*Transfigur'd* friends. *Garth*.

* **To TRANSFIX**. *v. a.* [*transfixus*, Lat.] To pierce through.—

The bold Semiramis, whose sides *transfix'd*
With son's own blade. *Spenser*.
Transfix us to the bottom of this gulph. *Milt.*
In an unhappy chace *transfix'd* her heart. *Dryd.*
He *transfix'd* the pigeon in the skies. *Dryden*.
Till Fate *transfix* the pair it cannot part. *Fenton*.

(1.) * **To TRANSFORM**. *v. a.* [*transformer*, French; *trans* and *forma*, Lat.] To metamorphose; to change with regard to external form.—Had the goddess of those woods a power to *transform* every body. *Sidney*.—*Transformed* to a boy. *Shak.*—She saw herself *transform'd* she wist not how. *Davies*.

(2.) * **To TRANSFORM**. *v. n.* To be metamorphosed. His hair *transforms* to down. *Addison*.

(1.) * **TRANSFORMATION**. *n. s.* [from *transform*.] Change of shape; act of changing the form; state of being changed with regard to form; metamorphosis.—

Something you have heard
Of Hamlet's *transformation*; so I call it,
Since not th' exterior, nor the inward man,
Remembers that it was. *Shak.*
What beast could'st thou be, that wert not
subject to a beast?

And what a beast art thou already, and seest
not thy loss in *transformation*! *Shak.*
—The mensuration of all manner of curves, and
their mutual *transformation*. *Watts*.

(2.) **TRANSFORMATION**, in geometry, is the changing or reducing of a figure, or of a body,
into

into another of the same area, or of the same solidity, but of a different form. As, to transform or reduce a triangle to a square, or a pyramid to a parallelopipedon.

(3.) TRANSFORMATION OF EQUATIONS, in algebra, is the changing equations into others of a different form, but of equal value. This operation is often necessary to prepare equations for a more easy solution.

* TRANSFRETATION. *n. s.* [*trans* and *fretum*, Lat.] Passage over the sea.—The last *transfretation* of king Richard II. *Davies.*

* To TRANSFUSE. *v. a.* [*transfusus*, Latin.] To pour out of one into another.—Man hath a natural delight to *transfuse* from himself into others those things wherein the excellency of this kind doth most consist. *Hooker.*—*Transfus'd* on thee his ample spirit rests. *Milton.*

When did his muse from Fletcher scenes purloin,

Transfus'd as oil and waters flow. *Dryden.*
—Were all the unfound juices taken away and found juices *transfus'd*, the found juices would grow morbid. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) * TRANSFUSION. *n. s.* [*transfusio*, Fr. *transfusio*, Lat.] The act of pouring out of one into another.—Poetry is of so subtle a spirit, that in the pouring out of one language into another it will all evaporate, if a new spirit be not added in the *transfusion*. *Denham.*—Something must be lost in all *transfusion*. *Dryden.*—Transplantation of diseases and *transfusion* of blood. *Baker.*

(2.) TRANSFUSION OF BLOOD, an operation by which the blood of one animal was conveyed into the veins of another, and by which it was some time ago imagined the age of animals would be renewed, and *immortality*, or the next thing to it, conferred on those who had undergone it. In the *Philos. Trans.* we have an account of the success of various transfusions practised at London, Paris, Italy, &c. Sir Edmund King transfused 49 oz. of blood out of a calf into a sheep; the sheep, after the operation, appearing as well and as strong as before. M. Denis transfused the blood of 3 calves into 3 dogs, which all continued brisk, and eat as well as before. The same person transfused the blood of 4 weathers into a horse 26 years old, which thence received much strength, and a more than ordinary appetite. Soon after this operation was introduced at Paris, viz. in 1667 and 1668, M. Denis performed it on 5 human subjects, two of whom recovered of disorders under which they laboured; one, being in perfect health suffered no inconvenience from it; and two persons who were ill, and submitted to the operation, died; in consequence of which the magistrates issued a sentence, prohibiting the transfusion of human bodies under pain of imprisonment. Mr John Hunter made many ingenious experiments to determine the effects of transfusing blood, some of which are sufficient to attract attention. But whether such experiments can ever be made with safety on the human body, is a point not easily determined. They might be allowed in desperate cases, proceeding from a corruption of the blood, from poison, &c. as in hydrophobia.

(1.) * To TRANSGRESS. *v. a.* [*transgresser*, Fr. *transgressus*, Lat.] 1. To pass over; to pass be-

yond.—*Transgressing* nature's law. *Dryd.* 2. To violate; to break.—The world is ruled by so good a guide as *transgresseth* not his own law. *Hooker.*—As often as we *transgress* the divine commandments. *Wake.*

(2.) * To TRANSGRESS. *v. n.* To offend by violating a law.—I would not marry her, though she were endowed with all Adam had left him before he *transgressed*. *Shak.*—Achan *transgressed* in the thing accursed. 1 *Chron.* iii. 7.—He objected to our infamy the *transgressings* of our education. *Wisdom.*

* TRANSGRESSION. *n. s.* [*transgression*, Fr. from *transgress*.] 1. Violation of a law; breach of a command.—My great *transgression*. *Milton.*—Where there is no law, there can be no *transgression*. *South.* 2. Offence; crime; fault.—The *transgression* is in the stealer. *Shak.*—Rude *transgression*. *Shak.*

* TRANSGRESSIVE. *adj.* [from *transgress*.] Faulty; culpable; apt to break laws.—*Transgressive* infirmities. *Brown.*

* TRANSGRESSOR. *n. s.* [*transgressor*, Fr. from *transgress*.] Lawbreaker; violator of command; offender.—Discipline should be applied to the most splendid *transgressors*, as well as to meaner offenders. *Glarendon.*

I go to judge

On earth these thy *transgressors*. *Milton.*
—To me *transgressor*. *Milton.*

* TRANSCIENT. *adj.* [*transiens*, Latin.] Soon past; soon passing; short; momentary; not lasting; not durable.—This *transient* world. *Milton.*—A *transient* view. *Locke.*—A *transient* guest. *Swift.*—What is loose love? a *transient* gust. *Pope.*

* TRANSCIENTLY. *adv.* [from *transient*.] In passage; with a short passage; not with continuance.—I touch here but *transiently*. *Dryden.*

* TRANSCIENTNESS. *n. s.* [from *transient*.] Shortness of continuance; speedy passage.—They resemble the wind in *transcieness* and sudden expiration. *Decay of Piety.*

* TRANSILIENCY. *n. s.* [from *transilio*, Lat.] Leap from thing to thing.—By unadvised *transiliency* leaping from the effect to its remotest cause. *Glanville.*

(1.) * TRANSIT. *n. s.* [*transitus*, Latin.] In astronomy, the passing of any planet just by or under any fixed star; or of the moon covering or moving close by any other planet. *Harris.*

(2.) TRANSIT INSTRUMENT. See ASTRONOMY, Index.

(3.) TRANSIT OF MERCURY. On Tuesday the 9th Nov. 1802, astronomers were gratified with the sight of a transit of Mercury over the Sun's disk.

The ingress was at 6 16 o A. M. apparent at Edinburgh.

Geocentric Latitude, 0 1 28 S.
Middle of the transit, 9 1 30
Geocentric Latitude, 0 1 0
Egress, 11 47 0
Geocentric Latitude, 0 3 16 N.
By M. La Lande's computation the apparent time of conjunction at Edinburgh was 8 57 17

the aberration of the Sun and Moon being reckoned.

Geocentric

Transferring.—The *translatory* is a lie that transfers the merits of a man's good action to another. *Arbutnot.*

* **TRANSLLOCATION.** *n. f.* [*trans* and *locus*, Latin.] Removal of things reciprocally to each other's places.—There happened certain *translocations* at the deluge, the matter constituting animal and vegetable substances being dissolved, and mineral matter substituted in its place. *Woodw.*

* **TRANSLUCENCY.** *n. f.* [*from translucent.*] Diaphanous; transparency.—They exchanged their *translucency* for whiteness. *Boyle.*

* **TRANSLUCENT.** } *adj.* [*trans* and *lucens* or

* **TRANSLUCID.** } *lucidus*, Latin.] Transparent; diaphanous; clear; giving a passage to the light.—The eyes are *translucid*. *Bacon.*—The eastern ray, *translucent*, pure. *Milton.*—Replenish'd from the cool *translucent* springs. *Pope.*

* **TRANSMARINE.** *adj.* [*transmarinus*, Latin.] Lying on the other side of the sea; found beyond sea.—Tauraurania, her next *transmarine* neighbour. *Howel.*

* **To TRANSMEW.** *v. a.* [*transmuto*, Latin; *transmuo*, Fr.] To transmute; to transform; to metamorphose; to change. Obsolete.—Men into stones therewith he could *transmew*. *Spenser.*

* **TRANSMIGRANT.** *adj.* [*transmigrans*, Latin.] Passing into another country or state.—Colonies or *transmigrants* towards their mother nation. *Bac.*

* **To TRANSMIGRATE.** *v. n.* [*transmigro*, Latin.] To pass from one place or country into another.—The natives which *transmigrate* omit it not without commixture. *Brown.*—If the souls of men *transmigrate* into species answering their former natures, some men must live over many serpents. *Brown.*—Their souls may *transmigrate* into each other. *Howel.*—His soul within the *transmigrating* roll. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **TRANSMIGRATION.** *n. f.* [*transmigration*, Fr. from *transmigrate*.] Passage from one place or state into another.—There is no transition or *transmigration* out of one substance into another. *Hooker.*—Plants may have a *transmigration* of species. *Bacon.*—The metempsychosis, or *transmigration* of the souls of men into the bodies of beasts. *Brown.*

'Twas taught by wife Pythagoras,

One soul might through more bodies pass:

Seeing such *transmigration* there,

She thought it not a fable here. *Denham.*

In life's next scene, if *transmigration* be,

Some bear or lion is reserv'd for thee. *Dryd.*

(2.) **TRANSMIGRATION**, in a large sense, is the removal or translation of a whole people into another country, by the power of a conqueror.

(3.) **TRANSMIGRATION** is particularly used for the passage of the soul out of one body into another. See **METEMPSYCHOSIS**, **MYTHOLOGY**, § 19. and **PYTHAGORAS**.

* **TRANSMISSION.** *n. s.* [*transmissio*, French; *transmissus*, Latin.] The act of sending from one place to another, or from one person to another.—If there were any *transmission* of a colony hither out of Spain. *Spens.*—Operations of *transmission* of spirits is one of the highest secrets in nature. *Bac.*—In the *transmission* of the water through the vessels, it falteth. *Bacon.*—These move swiftly, but their *transmission* is easily stopped. *Bacon.*—The

transmission of light. *More.*—Languages of countries are lost by *transmission* of colonies of a different language. *Hale.*—The *transmission* of the English laws into Scotland. *Hale.*—Reflexion or *transmission*. *Newton.*

* **TRANSMISSIVE.** *adj.* [*from transmissus*, Latin.] Transmitted; derived from one to another.

And still the fire inculcates to his son

Transmissive lessons of the king's renown. *Prior.*

Itself a fun; it with *transmissive* light

Enlivens worlds deny'd to human sight. *Prior.*

His praise eternal on the faithful stone,

Had with *transmissive* honour grac'd his son.

Pope.

* **To TRANSMIT.** *v. a.* [*transmitto*, Latin. *transmettre*, French.] To send from one person or place to another.—By writing, former ages *transmit* the memorials of ancient times to posterity. *Hale.*—He sent orders to his friend to *transmit* the money. *Addison.*—*Transmitted* safe in Dryden's lofty scenes. *Granville.*—

Shine forth, ye planets, with distinguish'd light;

Again *transmit* your friendly beams to earth.

Prior.

* **TRANSMITTAL.** *n. f.* [*from transmitt.*] The act of transmitting; transmission. I know not that this word has any authority.—The *transmittal* to England of two-thirds of the revenues of Ireland. *Swift.*

* **TRANSMITTER.** *n. f.* [*from transmitt.*] One that transmits.

TRANSMONTANA. See **TRA-LOS-MONTES**.

TRANSMUTABILITY. *n. s.* capability of being changed. See **TRANSMUTATION**, § 3.

* **TRANSMUTABLE.** *adj.* [*transmutabile*, Fr. from *transmute*] Capable of change; possible to be changed into another nature or substance.—It is no easy matter to demonstrate that air is *transmutable* unto flesh. *Brown.*—The fluids and solids are easily *transmutable* into one another. *Arbutn.*

* **TRANSMUTABLY.** *adv.* [*from transmutare*.] With capacity of being changed into another substance or nature.

(1.) * **TRANSMUTATION.** *n. s.* [*transmutatio*, Fr. *transmutatio*, from *transmuto*, Latin.] 1. Change into another nature or substance. The great aim of alchemy is the transmutation of base metals into gold.—Am not I by education a card-maker, by *transmutation* a bear herd. *Shak.*—The *transmutation* of plants one into another. *Bacon.*—The conversion into a body merely new, is called *transmutation*. *Bacon.*—The changing of bodies into light and light into bodies, is very conformable to the course of nature, which seems delighted with *transmutations*. Water which is a very fluid tasteless salt, she changes by heat into vapour, which is a sort of air, and by cold into ice, which is a hard, pellucid, brittle, fusible stone; and this stone returns into water by heat, and water returns into vapour by cold. *Newton.*—The supposed change of worms into flies is no real *transmutation*. *Bentley.* 2. Successive change. Not proper.—The same land suffereth sundry *transmutations* of owners. *Bacon.*

(2.) **TRANSMUTATION OF ACIDS.** See **CHEMISTRY**, **Index**.

(3.) **TRANSMUTATION OF METALS**, in alchemy,

my, denotes the act of changing imperfect metals into gold or silver. This is also called the *grand operation*, and, they say, it is to be effected by the philosopher's stone. Alchemists suppose that all metals are composed of the same principles; and that the imperfect metals do not differ from gold and silver, but because their principles are not so well combined, or because they contain heterogeneous matters. We have then only these two faults to remedy, which, as they say, may be done by proper coction, and by separating the pure from the impure. But we would advise those making such experiments to determine previously, if metals have each a peculiar earth, or only one common to them all. In the second place, if it should be demonstrated that the earthy principle is the same in all metals, and if that be demonstrated as clearly as the identity of the inflammable principle in metals, they must then determine whether these two be the only principles in metals, whether the mercurial principle exists, and whether it be essential to all metals or to some only, and what is the proportion of these two or three principles in the several metallic substances. These facts must be ascertained previous to asserting the possibility of transmutation.

* **TO TRANSMUTE.** *v. n.* [*transmuta*, Latin; *transmu*, French.] To change from one nature or substance to another.—It was taught there how metals might be *transmuted*. *Ral.*—Metals *transmuted* one into another. *Ray*.

* **TRANSMUTER.** *n. f.* [from *transmute*.] One that transmutes.

(1.) * **TRANSOM.** *n. f.* [*transenna*, Lat. 1. Aihwart, beam or lintel over a door. 2. [Among mathematicians.] The vane of an instrument called a cross staff, being a piece of wood fixed across with a square socket upon which it slides. *Bailey*.

(2.) **TRANSOM**, among builders, denotes the piece that is framed across a double light window.

(3.) **TRANSOMS**, in a ship, certain beams or timbers extended across the sternpost of a ship, to fortify her afterpart, and give it the figure most suitable to the service for which she is calculated. See *SHIP-BUILDING*, Part II.

(1.) * **TRANSPARENCY.** *n. f.* [*transparence*, Fr. from *transparent*.] Clearness; diaphaneity; transference; power of transmitting light.—*Transparency* of the stream. *Addison*.—*Transparency* of the vessels occasioned by the thinness of their coats. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **TRANSPARENCY**, in physics, a quality in certain bodies, whereby they give passage to the rays of light: in contradistinction to opacity, or that quality of bodies which renders them impervious to the rays of light. It has been generally supposed by philosophers, that transparent bodies have their pores disposed in straight lines, by which means the rays of light have an opportunity of penetrating them in all directions; but some experiments in electricity have made it apparent, that by the action of this fluid the most opaque bodies, such as sulphur, pitch, and sealing wax, may be rendered transparent as glass, while yet we cannot suppose the direction of their pores to be any way altered from what it originally was. (See *ELECTRICITY*, *Index*.) A curious instance of an increase of transparency we have in rubbing a

piece of white paper over one that has been written upon or printed; while the white paper is at rest, the writing or print will perhaps scarce appear through it; but when in motion, will be very easily legible, and continue so till the motion is discontinued.

* **TRANSPARENT.** *adj.* [*transparent*, French; *trans* and *appareo*, Latin.] Previous to the light; clear; pellucid; diaphanous; translucent; not opaque.—The *transparent* bosom of the deep. *Shak.*—Secret hearts and *transparent* countenances. *Bacon*.—*Transparent* veil. *Dryden*.—Her bosom appeared so *transparent*, that I saw every thought in her heart. *Addison*.—*Transparent* forms. *Pope*.

* **TRANSPICUOUS.** *adj.* [*trans* and *specio*, Latin.] Transparent; pervious to the sight.—The wide *transpicious* air. *Milton*.—The wine's *transpicious*. *Philips*.

* **TO TRANSPIERCE.** *v. n.* [*transpiercer*, Fr. *trance* and *pierce*.] To penetrate; to make way through; to permeate.—

A mind which wholly doth *transpierce*.

All this great body of the universe. *Raleigh*.—The sides *transpierced* returned a rattling sound. *Dryden*.

* **TRANSPIRATION.** *n. s.* [*transpiration*, Fr.] Emission in vapour.—That a bullet dipped in oil, by preventing the *transpiration* of air, will carry farther, I cannot discern. *Brown*.—*Transpiration* of obstructed fluids. *Sharp*.

(1.) * **TO TRANSPIRE.** *v. a.* [*transpiro*, Lat. *transpirer*, Fr.] To emit in vapour.

(2.) * **TO TRANSPIRE.** *v. n.* [*transpirer*, Fr.] 1. To be emitted by insensible vapour.—The nuts are full of a pulpy matter, which *transpires* and passes through the shell. *Woodward*. 2. To escape from secrecy to notice: a sense lately innovated from France, without necessity.

* **TO TRANSPLEASE.** *v. a.* [*trans* and *place*.] To remove; to put into a new place.—It was *transplaced* from the left side of the Vatican. *Wilkins*.

* **TO TRANSPLANT.** *v. a.* [*trans* and *planto*, Lat. *transplanter*, Fr.] 1. To remove and plant in a new place.—

The noblest fruits *transplanted* in our isle,
With early hope and fragrant blossoms smile.

Roscommon.

—This apple to *transplant*. *Phillips*. 2. To remove and settle.—They *transplant* themselves into plantations abroad. *Bacon*. 3. To remove.—*Transplanted* from her cloudy throne. *Milton*.—*Transplanted* out of his diocese of Saint David's into a warmer climate. *Clarendon*.

* **TRANSPLANTATION.** *n. s.* [*transplantation*, Fr.] 1. The act of transplanting or removing to another soil.—Love needs no *transplantation*, or change of soil, to make it fruitful. *Suchling*. 2. Conveyance from one to another.—*Transplantation* of diseases, and transfusion of blood. *Bulter*. 3. Removal of men from one country to another.—Most kingdoms have felt the calamities of forcible *transplantations*. *Raleigh*.—*Transplantation* of Ulysses to Sparta. *Broomer*.

(1.) * **TRANSPLANTER.** *n. s.* [from *transplant*.] One that transplants.

(2.) **TRANSPLANTER**, an instrument calculated for expeditiously raising plants with their roots,

and confining them to other parts of the field in which they grow. Notwithstanding every precaution, it frequently happens in turnip fields that large spots remain barren. In *Pl. CCCXXXIX.* we have given a representation of a simple instrument invented by Mr Gray of South Reppe, Norfolk, for the purpose of filling up such vacant spaces from the adjoining parts of the same field; and which has also been employed for transplanting other vegetables. The handle A, must be held with the left hand; and the short handle B, drawn up with the right. The transplanter should next be put over the vegetable intended to be taken up, and forced into the ground with the foot: it is then to be twisted round, and carefully drawn up, so that the earth may adhere to the root. A hole should, in the mean time, be made by an assistant, furnished with a similar instrument, for the reception of the turnip; the root may be converted in the first transplanter, and deposited in the cavity; after which, the right hand being kept steady, the left must be gradually raised, when the earth and plant will be left in the hole undisturbed.

* **TRANSPORT.** *n. s.* [*transport*, Fr. from the verb.] 1. Transportation; carriage; conveyance.—Ships for transport and war. *Arbutnot.* 2. A vessel of carriage; particularly a vessel in which soldiers are conveyed.—Nor dares his transport vessel cross the waves. *Dryden.*—Some spoke of the men of war only, and others added the transports. *Arbutnot.* 3. Rapture; ecstacy.—A spiritual mind received a temporal blessing with ecstacy and transport. *South.* 4. A felon sentenced to exile.

* **To TRANSPORT.** *v. a.* [*trans* and *porto*, Latin; *transporter*, French.] 1. To convey by carriage from place to place.—I came hither to transport the tidings. *Shak.*—Transport her purposes by word! *Shak.*—Rivers were made to transport men. *Raleigh.*—A subterranean wind transports a hill. *Milton.*—Cæsar was fain to make ships to transport his army. *Heyl.*—The wife Pomponious transported all the wisdom of his country into the sanctuary of peace. *Dryden.* 2. To carry into banishment, as a felon.—We return after being transported. *Swift.* 3. To sentence as a felon to banishment. 4. To hurry by violence of passion.—You are transported by calamity. *Shak.*—They laugh as if transported with some fit. *Milton.*—Transported by sudden passion. *Dryden.*—If his romantick disposition transport him so far. *Swift.* 5. To put into ecstacy; to ravish with pleasure.—Here transported I behold, transported touch. *Milt.*—Those on whom Christ bestowed miraculous cures were transported with them. *Decay of Piety.*

* **TRANSPORTANCE.** *n. s.* [from *transport*.] Conveyance; carriage; removal.—Oh, give me swift transportance to those fields. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TRANSPORTATION.** *n. s.* [from *transport*.] 1. Conveyance; carriage.—Provide a vessel for the transportation. *Wotton.* 2. Transmission or conveyance.—Some were solicitous to know whether we had the plague, from the malignity of our own air, or by transportation. *Dryden.* 3. Banishment for felony. 4. Ecstacy violence of passion.—All pleasures that affect the body must

needs weary, because they transport, and all transportation is a violence. *South.*

(2) **TRANSPORTATION**, in law. See **BANISHMENT**, and **EXILE**.

* **TRANSPORTER.** *n. s.* [from *transport*.] One that transports.—The pilchard merchant may reap benefit by selling to the transporters. *Carver.*

* **TRANSPOSAL.** *n. s.* [from *transpose*.] The act of putting things in each other's place. *Swift.*

* **To TRANSPOSE.** *v. a.* [*transposer*, French; *transpositum*, Latin.] 1. To put each in the place of other.—The letters of Elizabetha regina may be transposed thus, *Anglia Hera bedisti. Camden.*—Transpose the propositions. *Locke.* 2. To put out of place.—

That which you are my thoughts cannot transpose;

Angels are bright still, though the brightest fell. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TRANSPPOSITION.** *n. s.* [*transposition*, Fr. from *transpose*.] 1. The act of putting one thing in the place of another. 2. The state of being put out of one place into another.—The common centre of gravity is ready, and not liable to any accidental transposition. *Woodward.*

(2.) **TRANSPPOSITION**, in grammar, a disturbing or dislocating the words of a sentence, or a changing their natural order of construction, to please the ear by rendering the contexture more smooth, easy, and harmonious.

* **To TRANS-SHAPE.** *v. a.* [*trans* and *shape*.] To transform; to bring into another shape.—I said thou hadst a fine wit; right, said she, a fine little one; thus did she trans-shape thy particular virtues. *Shak.*

TRANS-TIBERINA, a part of the city of ROME, on the farther side of the TIBER. Mount Vatican was in that part of the city. *Mart.* 1. ep. 109.

* **To TRANSUBSTANTIATE.** *v. a.* [*transubstantier*, Fr.] To change to another substance.—The spider love which transubstantiates all. *Donne.*

(1.) * **TRANSUBSTANTIATION.** *n. s.* [*transubstantiation*, Fr.] A miraculous operation believed in the Romish church, in which the elements of the eucharist are supposed to be changed into the real body and blood of CHRIST.—How is a Romanist prepared easily to swallow the doctrine of transubstantiation? *Locke.*

(2.) **TRANSUBSTANTIATION**, in theology, is the conversion or change of the substance of the bread and wine in the eucharist, into the body and blood of Jesus Christ; which the Romish church suppose to be wrought by the consecration of the priest. It is known to all our readers that this doctrine of transubstantiation was one cause of the breach between the church of Rome and those various societies which call themselves reformed churches. The real and substantial change of the bread and wine into the body and blood of our Lord, is rejected by every reformer as a change contradictory and impossible, and fraught with the most impious consequences; and volumes have been written by protestants to expose the weakness of those arguments which have so often been urged in its support.

* **TRANSUDATION.** *n. s.* [from *transude*.] The

The act of passing in sweat, or perspirable vapour, through any integument.—The drops proceeded not from the *transudation* of the liquors within the glass. *Boyle*.

* *To TRANSUDE*. *v. n.* [*trans* and *sudo*, Lat.] To pass through in vapour.—Purulent fumes cannot *transude* through the bag of an apothem. *Harvey*.

* *TRANSVERSAL*. *adj.* [*transversal*, Fr. *trans* and *versalis*, Lat.] Running crosswise.—An ascending line, direct, as from son to father, is not admitted by the law of England; or in the *transversal* line, as to the uncle or aunt. *Hale*.

TRANSVERSALIS, in anatomy, a name given to several muscles. See *ANATOMY*.

* *TRANSVERSALLY*. *adv.* [from *transversal*.] In a cross direction.—An arrow shot vertically, horizontally, or *transversally*. *Wilkins*.

(1.) * *TRANSVERSE*. *adj.* [*transversus*, Lat.] Being in a cross direction.—

His violent touch

Fled and pursu'd *transverse* the resonant fugue.

Milton.

—Part in strait lines, part in *transverse* are found. *Blackmore*.—A *transverse* side blow. *Bentley*.

(2.) *TRANSVERSE* denotes something that goes across another from corner to corner: thus bends and bars in heraldry are *transverse* pieces or bearings; the diagonals of a parallelogram or a square are *transverse* lines.

* *To TRANSVERSE*. *v. a.* [*transversus*, Latin.] To change; to overturn.—Nothing can be believed to be religion by any people, that is in the power of man to alter or *transverse*. *Lefley*.

* *TRANSVERSELY*. *adv.* [from *transverse*.] In a cross direction.—At Stonebenge the stones lie *transversely* upon each other. *Stillingfleet*.—If a fibre be cut *transversely*. *Arbutnot*.

TRANSUMPT. *n. f.* in Scots law. See *LAW*, Part III. Chap. III. Sect. I. § 24.

* *TRANSUMPTION*. *n. f.* [*trans* and *sumo*, Latin.] The act of taking from one place to another.

TRANSYLVANIA, a province of Europe, annexed to Hungary, and bounded on the north by Upper Hungary and Poland, on the east by Moldavia and Walachia, on the south by Walachia, and on the west by Upper and Lower Hungary. It is surrounded on all parts by high mountains, which, however, are not barren. The inhabitants have as much corn and wine as they want themselves; and there are rich mines of gold, silver, lead, copper, quicksilver, and alum. The inhabitants are of all religions. It is about 162 miles in length, and 150 in breadth. It is divided into several small districts, called *palatines*, and counties; and is inhabited by three different nations, Saxons, Sicilians, and Hungarians. Heranstadt is the capital town.

* *TRANTERS*. *n. f.* Men who carry fish from the sea-coast to sell in the inland countries. *Sailey*.

TRAEON, or *TRAW*. See *TRAW*.

* *TRAP*. *n. f.* [*trappe*, Saxon; *trape*, Fr. *trappola*, Italian.] 1. A snare set for thieves or vermin.—Die not like a fox caught in a *trap*. *Taylor*.—The *trap* springs and catches the ape by the

fingers. *L'Esrange*. 2. An ambush; a stratagem to betray or catch unawares.—

And lurking closely, in await now lay.
How he might any in his *trap* betray. *Spenser*.—The *trap* is laid for me. *Shak*.—They continually laid *traps* to ensnare him. *Calamy*.—He seems a *trap* for charity to lay. *Dryden*. 3. A play at which a ball is driven with a stick.—Unruly boys learn to wrangle at *trap*. *Locke*.—From nine pins, coits, and from *trap*-ball abstaing. *King*.

* *To TRAP*. *v. a.* [*trappen*, Saxon.] 1. To ensnare; to catch by a snare or ambush; to take by stratagem.—Tedious snares to *trap* mine enemies. *Shak*.—I *trapp'd* the foe. *Dryden*. [See *TRAPPINGS*.] To adorn; to decorate.—*Trapp'd* with polish'd steel. *Spenser*.—To deck his hearse and *trap* his tomb black steel. *Spenser*.—Four milk-white horses *trapt* in filver. *Shak*.—Steeds with scarlet *trapp'd*. *Cowley*.

TRAPA, in botany, *WATER CACTOPS*, a genus of plants, in the class *Tetrandria*, and in the order of *Monogynia*; ranking according to the natural method, in the order which Linnæus left doubtful.

TRAPANI, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara, seated on a peninsula, with a good harbour; defended by a fort on the adjacent island of *Columbara*. It has a good pearl fishery, and considerable salt works. The population is about 20,000. It lies 43 miles WSW. of Palermo, and 72 NW. of Girgenti. Lon. 12. 20. E. Lat. 38. 10. N.

TRAPASSI. See *METASTASIO*.

* *TRAPDOOR*. *n. f.* [*trap* and *door*.] A door opening and shutting unexpectedly.—The arteries which carry from the heart to the several parts, have valves which open outward like *trapdoors*. *Ray*.

* *To TRAPE*. *v. a.* [commonly written to *traipse*; probably of the same originally with *drab*.] To run idly and fluttishly about. It is used only of women.

* *TRAPES*. *n. f.* [I suppose from *trape*.] An idle flatteringly woman.—

He found the fullen *trapes*
Possess with th' devil, worms, and claps. *Hudib*.—Marry such a *trapes*! *Gay*.—The greatest *trapes* in town? *Young*.

* *TRAPEZIUM*. *n. f.* [*τετραγωνος*; *trapeze*, Fr.] A quadrilateral figure, whose four sides are not equal, and none of its sides parallel. *Diæ*.—Two of the lateral *trapezia* are as broad. *Woodward*.

TRAPEZIUS, a muscle. See *ANATOMY*, § 209.

* *TRAPEZOID*. *n. f.* [*τεραπεζοειδης* and *ειδος*; *trapezoid*, Fr.] An irregular figure, whose four sides are not parallel. *Diæ*.

TRAPEZUNTIUS, George, a learned author, born in Crete, about 1396. He was one of those learned men, to whom we are indebted for the revival of science in Europe; by introducing the knowledge of the Greek language into the West. He translated many of the Greek authors into Latin; and was also author of several works of his own. He died at Rome in 1485.

TRAPEZUS, a city of Pontus, with a harbour on the Euxine sea, built by the people of Sinope. It became famous under the emperors

of the East, and was for some time their capital. Is now called TREBISOND.

TRAPOLIZZA, a town of European Turkey, in the Morea, 18 miles SW. of Argos.

(1.) TRAPP, Dr Joseph, an English divine born at Cherington in Gloucestershire, where his father was rector in 1579. He was the first person chosen to the professorship of poetry founded at Oxford by Dr Birkhead; and published his lectures under the title of *Prædicationes Poeticae*. He obtained the living of Christ-church in Newgate Street, and St Leonard's, Foster-lane, London; but his very high-church principles obstructed his farther preferment. He published several occasional poems, a tragedy called *Abramule*, translated Milton's *Paradise Lost* into Latin verse, and died in 1747. Also a *Preservative against Unsettled notions* in several sermons.

(2.) TRAPP, in mineralogy, the obsolete name of a species of SILICA. It was the LAPIS LYDIUS, or TOUCHSTONE of the ancients. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Gen. XXIII. Sp. 1. Var. 2.

TRAPPE, a ci-devant celebrated monastery of France, in the dep. of Orne, and late prov. of Perche, seated in a large valley surrounded by mountains. The monks were famed in the days of superstition, for their austerity; and keeping a perpetual silence!

* TRAPPINGS. *n. s.* [This word *Minshaw* derives from *drap*, French, *cloth*.] 1. Ornaments appendant to the saddle.—Bales and tinzel *trappings*. Milton. 2. Ornaments; drefs; embellishments; external, superficial, and trifling decorations.—These but the *trappings* and the suits of woe. Shak.—Rich *trappings*, and large promises. L'Estrange.—

The points of honour poets may produce, *Trappings* of life, for ornament, not use. Dryd.—Thy horse's *trappings*. Dryden.—So—He needs no *trappings* of fictitious fame. Dryden.—The gay *trappings* of a birth-day night. Swift.

TRAPRAIN, or } LAW, a conical hill of Scotland, in E. Lothian, 1½ miles NW. of Whittingham, and 4 E. of Haddington.

* TRAPSTICK. *n. s.* [*trap* and *stick*.] A stick with which boys drive a wooden ball.—A foolish sloop between a couple of thick bandy legs and two long *trapsticks* that had no calfs. Spectator.

TRAQUAIR, (abbreviated from *Strathquair*.) a parish of Scotland, in the county of Peebles, on the S. bank of the Tweed, watered also by the QUAIR. It is 9 miles long and from 4 to 5 broad; and contains 17,290 acres, of which about 4000 are arable. The surface is mountainous and rocky. The soil in the low grounds is stony and shallow, yet pretty fertile. The old mansion-house of Traquair, the residence of the ancient earls of Traquair, is seated on the banks of the Tweed; and on the side of the hill overlooking the lawn, is "The bonny bush upon Traquair," memorable for virtuous love and poetry; still pointed out by five thorn trees. The population in 1793, was 446, the decrease 205, since 1755. There is a quarry of excellent flates; and considerable quantities of lead ore have been discovered; though

not sufficient to defray the charges of working. A specimen of *galena* was also found in a rivulet that runs into the Quair.

THARBACH. See TRAARBACH.

TRASCALETA, a town of Spain, in Galicia, 16 miles SE. of Lugo.

TRASEN, a river of Austria, which rises on the borders of Silisia; passes by Lilienfeld, Willamburg, St Pölten, &c. and falls into the Danube; 8 miles below Mautern.

* TRASH. *n. f.* [*tros*, Islandick; *drusen*, German.] 1. Any thing worthless; dross; dregs.—Lay hands upon these traitors, and their *trash*. Shak.—A wardrobe—Is but *trash*. Shak.—Who steals my purse, steals *trash*. Shak.—Trivial household *trash*. Donne.—The greater fame a writer is in possession of, the more *trash* he may bear to have tacked to him. Swift.—

Weak foolish man! will heav'n reward us
With the same *trash* mad mortals wish for here?

Pope.

2. A worthless person.—

—I suspect this *trash*

To be a party in this injury.

Shak.

3. Matter improper for food, frequently eaten by girls in the green sickness.—O that instead of *trash* thou'dst taken steel. Garth. 4. I believe that the original signification of *trash* is the loppings of trees, from the verb.

* To TRASH. *v. a.* 1. To lop; to crop.—To *trash* for overtopping. Shak. 2. To rush; to humble.—Not such as to encumber and *trash* them. Hammond.

* TRASHY. *adj.* [from *trash*.] Worthless; vile; useless.—*Trashy* stuff, whose glittering deceived him. Dryden.

(1.) TRAU, TRAW, or TRAO, a county of Dalmatia, east of Sebenico, 22 miles long, 27 broad, and, on the continent, 100 in circumference. The mountains, on the one side, produce corn, figs, vines, almonds, and olives. But the breeding of cattle on these hills is so great that 400,000 lbs. of cheese, and 10,000 lb. of wool are annually produced in this district and its isles; and about 50,000 casks of wine, 13,000 casks of oil, 300,000 lb. of figs, and nearly the same quantity of almonds are produced annually. The population is about 24,000, and the people are very industrious. It contains 42 towns and villages. (Oppen.)

(2.) TRAU, or TRAW, the capital of the above county, anciently called TRAGURUM, contains about 4800 inhabitants. It was formerly joined to the continent by an isthmus, but now forms a small island, which has a bridge over the channel to the continent. It is separated from the isle of Bua by a canal 350 feet broad, over which it has 2 bridges. Bua is 10 miles long, 21 in circuit, and has a good harbour. It is populous and fertile, abounding in wine, oil, and fruits. It has also some asphaltum. It lies 12 miles W. of Spalatro. Lon. 17. 52. E. Lat. 44. 0. N.

(3.) TRAU, OLD, a decayed town, 9 miles from Trau.

* TRAVAIL. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Labour; toil; fatigue.—As every thing of price, so this

this doth require *travail*. *Hooker*.—Such persons as are unable for strong *travail*. *Spenser*. 2. Labour in childbirth.—In the time of her *travail* twins were in her. *Gen.* xxxviii.—Easy *travails* of women. *Bacon*.

(1.) * *To TRAVAIL*. *v. n.* [*travailler*, Fr.] 1. To labour; to toil. 2. To be in labour; to suffer the pains of childbirth.—I *travail* not, nor bring forth children. *Isa.* xxiii. 4.—*Travailing* in birth. *Rev.* xii. 2.—His heart *travails* with the obligation. *South*.

(2.) * *To TRAVAIL*. *v. a.* To harass; to tire.—As if all these troubles had not been sufficient to *travail* the realm. *Hayward*.—

A gleam of light turn'd thitherward in haste
His *travail*'d steps. *Milton*.

(1.) *TRAVANCORE*, a province of Hindoostan, extending along the coast of Malabar, from Cape Comorin to Lat. 10. 15. N. bounded on the N. by Myfore, and on the E. by the Carnatic. It is subject to a rajah, who is in alliance with the English East India Company; and in defence of whom they engaged, in conjunction with the Marattas and the Nizam of the Deccan, in the late successful war with Tippoo. See *INDIA*, § 29.

(2.) *TRAVANCORE*, a city of Hindoostan, capital of the above province; 108 miles SSW. of Madras, and 254 S. of Seringapatam. Lon. 77. 14. E. Lat. 8. 22. N.

TRAVAY BAY, a bay on the S. coast of the island of *TIU*.

(1.) * *TRAVE*, *TRAVEL*, or *TRAVISE*. *n. s.* A wooden frame for shoeing unruly horses. *Ains*.

(2.) *TRAVE*, in geography, a river of Holstein, which runs into the Baltic, 10 miles ENE. of Lubeck.

* *TRAVEL*. *n. s.* [*travail*, Fr. from the noun.] 1. Journey; act of passing from place to place.—His *travels* ended at his country-seat. *Dryden*.—Thy eastern *travel*. *Prior*. 2. Journey of curiosity or instruction.—Having known no *travel* in his youth. *Shak*.—*Travel* is a part of education. *Bacon*.—In my *travels*. *Brown*.—A man not enlightened by *travel* or reflexion. *Addis*. 3. Labour; toil. This should be *travel*; as in *Daniel*.—

He wars with a retiring enemy,
With much more *travel* than with victory.

Daniel.

What think'st thou of our empire now, tho'
earn'd

With *travel* difficult? *Milton*.

4. Labour in childbirth. This sense belongs rather to *travail*.—The nauseous qualms of ten long months and *travel* to requite. *Dryden*. 5.

TRAVELS. Account of occurrences and observations of a journey into foreign parts.—A book of *travels*. *Brown*.—Voyages, *travels*, and accounts of countries. *Watts*.

(1.) * *To TRAVEL*. *v. n.* [This word is generally supposed originally the same with *travail*, and to differ only as particular from general: in some writers the word is written alike in all its senses; but it is more convenient to write *travail* for labour, and *travel* for journey.] 1. To make journeys: it is used for sea as well as land, though sometimes we distinguish it from *voyage*, a word appropriated to the sea.—I've watch'd and *travel*'d hard. *Shak*.—O ye *travelling* companies of

Dedanim. *Isa.* xxi. 13.—Raphael deign'd to *travel* with Tobias. *Milton*.—Fain would I *travel* to some foreign shore. *Dryden*.—It proves that he *travel*'d. *Pope*. 2. To pass; to go; to move.—Dark night strangles the *travelling* lamp. *Shak*.—Time *travels* in divers paces, with divers persons. *Shak*.—News *travel*'d with increase from mouth to mouth. *Pope*. 3. To make journeys of curiosity.—Nothing tends so much to enlarge the minds as *travelling*. *Watts*. 4. To labour; to toil. This should be rather *travail*.—Let not any think that we *travel* about a matter not needful. *Hooker*.

(2.) * *To TRAVEL*. *v. a.* 1. To pass; to journey over.—Thither to arrive I *travel* thus profound. *Milton*. 2. To force to journey.—They shall not be *travel*'d forth of their own franchises. *Spenser*.

* *TRAVELLER*. *n. s.* [*travailleuse*, Fr. from *travel*.] 1. One who goes a journey; a wayfarer.—The weary *traveller*. *Spenser*.—From those dark shores no *travellers* return. *Sandys*.—Strangers and *travellers*. *Bentley*.—A poor *traveller*. *Law*. 2. One who visits foreign countries.—Farewell, monsieur *traveller*; look you up and wear strange suits, and disab all the benefits of your own country. *Shak*.—

These *travellers* for cloths, or for a meal,
At all adventures, any lye will tell. *Chapman*.—The *traveller* into a foreign country. *Bacon*.—*Travellers* newly arrived in a strange country. *Locke*.

TRAVELLER'S JOY. See *CLIMATIS*.
TRAVELLING. See *EDUCATION*, Part II. Sec. XXXIV.

* *TRAVELTAINTED*. *adj.* [*travel* and *tainted*.] Harassed; fatigued with *travel*.—I have foundered nine score and odd posts; and here, *travel*-tainted I am. *Shak*.

TRAVEMUNDE, or ? a sea-port town of Hol-
TRAVEMUNDEN, a stein, at the mouth of the Trave, with a good harbour, capable of containing 60 ships, and deep enough for those of 100 guns. It has a fort with 40 guns, and garrison of 50 men. It is 8 miles NE. of Lubeck. Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 54. 1. N.

* *TRAVERS*. *adv.* [French.] Athwart; across. Not used.—He swears brave oaths, and breaks them bravely, quite *travers*, athwart the heart of his lover. *Shak*.

TRAVERSARI, Ambrose, a learned Italian monk, born at Camaldoni, near Florence, in 1386. He acted as interpreter between the Greeks and Italians. His translation of *Diogenes Laertius*, dedicated to that great patron of literature, Cosmo de Medicis, has been often printed.

(1.) * *TRAVERSE*. *adj.* [*transversus*, Lat. *traverse*, Fr.] Lying across; lying athwart.—*Traverse* trenches. *Hayward*.—Cross and *traverse* work. *Wotton*.

(2.) * *TRAVERSE*. *adv.* [*a travers*, French.] Crosswise; athwart.—Bring water from some hanging grounds, in long furrows, and from those drawing it *traverse* to spread. *Bacon*.—The ridges of the fallow field lay *traverse*. *Hayward*.

(3.) * *TRAVERSE*. *prep.* Through crosswise.—He soon *traverse*
The whole battalions views their order due.

Milton.

(4.) * *TRAVERSE*.

(4.) * **TRAVERSE**, *n. f.* 1. Any thing laid or built across.—There is a *traverse* placed in a loft where the fitteth. *Bacon*. 2. Something that thwarts, crosses, or obstructs; cross, accident; thwarting obstacle. This is a sense rather French than English.—Human nature in its actions, passions, and *traverses* of fortune. *Dryd.*—He should have carried on his designs well enough, had it not been for unlucky *traverses*. *Locke*.

(5.) **TRAVERSE**, in navigation, implies a compound course, or an assemblage of various courses, lying at different angles with the meridian. See **NAVIGATION**.

(6.) **TRAVERSE**, in gunnery, is the turning a piece of ordnance about, as upon a centre, to make it point in any particular direction.

(7.) **TRAVERSE**, in fortification, denotes a trench with a little parapet, sometimes two, one on each side, to serve as a cover from the enemy that might come in flank.

(8.) **TRAVERSE**, in a wet foss, is a sort of gallery, made by throwing saucissons, joists, fascines, stones, earth, &c. into the foss, opposite the place where the miner is to be put, in order to fill up the ditch, and make a passage over it.

(9.) **TRAVERSE** also denotes a wall of earth, or stone, raised across a work, to stop the shot from rolling along it.

(10.) **TRAVERSE** also sometimes signifies any retrenchment, or line fortified with fascines, barts, or bags of earth, or gabions.

(11.) **TRAVERSE BAY**, a bay on the E. side of Lake Michigan, in the North-Western Territory.

(12.) **TRAVERSE BOARD**, a thin circular piece of board, marked with all the points of the compass, and having eight holes bored in each, and eight small pegs hanging from the centre of the board. It is used to determine the different courses run by a ship during the period of the watch, and to ascertain the distance of each course.

(13.) **TRAVERSE ISLANDS**, a range of islands in Lake Michigan.

(1.) * **To TRAVERSE**. *v. a.* [*traverse*, French. It was anciently accented on the last syllable.] 1. To cross; to lay thwart.—Our *traverse* arms. *Shak.*—*Traversed* or crossed. *Dryden*. 2. To cross by way of opposition; to thwart with obstacles.—This treatise has been often *traversed* with other thoughts. *Wotton*.—Frog resolved to *traverse* this new project. *Arbuthnot*. 3. To oppose; to cross by an objection. A law term.—Where suits are *traversed*. *Dryden*.—One may lose himself in *traversing* the decree. *Baker*. 4. To wander over; to cross.—He many a walk *traversed*. *Milton*.—He that shall *traverse* over all this habitable earth. *Wilkins*.—In sudden fury *traverses* the plain. *Prior*.—An African that *traverses* our vast Numidian deserts. *Addison*.—What leas you *traverse*, and what fields you sought! *Pope*. 5. To survey; to examine thoroughly.—My purpose is to *traverse* the nature of ingratitude. *South*.

(2.) * **To TRAVERSE**. *v. n.* To use a posture of opposition in fencing.—To see thee fight, to see thee *traverse*. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TRAVESTY**. *adj.* [*travesti*, Fr.] Dressed so as to be made ridiculous; burlesqued.

(2.) **TRAVESTY**, in literature, a name given to an humorous translation of any author.

TRAVIS, George, M.A. a learned English divine, born at Royton, in Lancashire; educated at Manchester, and St John's College, Cambridge. He became vicar of Eastham, rector of Hanley in Cheshire, and archdeacon of Chester. He wrote some acute *Letters to Mr Gibbon*, in which he defended the authenticity of the controverted passage in 1 John v. 7. He died in 1797.

TRAVERSE. See **TRAVER**, N^o 1.

(1.) * **TRAUMATICK**. *adj.* [*τραυματικος*] Vulnery; useful to wounds.—I put the patient into a *traumatick* decoction. *Wifeman*.

(2.) **TRAUMATICK BALSAM**. See **PHARMACY**, *Index*.

(1.) **TRAUN**, a river of Austria, which rises from the *Halfstatter See*, forms a great lake, called **TRAUN SEE**, which it runs through, and falls into the Danube, 3 miles below Steyregg.

(2.) **TRAUN**, a river of Bavaria, which rises from lakes *Foribensee* and *Daubensee*, and falls into the Alza, 4 miles N. of Chiemsee.

TRAUNSTEIN, a town of Upper Bavaria, on the Traun, near some great salt-works, 18 miles W. of Salzburg, and 23 ESE. of Wassenburg. Lon. 30. 24. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 53. N.

TRAUTENAU, a town of Bohemia, in Koniggratz. In 1647, it was taken by assault by the Swedes. It is 21 miles N. of Koniggratz.

TRAUTMANT, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganshire.

TRAW. See **TRAU**.

* **TRAY**. *n. f.* [*tray*, Swedisch.] A shallow wooden vessel in which meat or fish is carried.—Sift it into a *tray*, or bole of wood. *Mexen*.—The hollow *tray*. *Gay*.

TRAYAGUERA, or } a town of Spain, in Va-
TRAYGUERA, } lencia, surrounded by a wall, and flanked by towers. It has a manufacture of porcelain, and lies 80 miles NE. of Valencia, and 23 or 30 SW. of Tortosa. Lon. 0. 30. E. Lat. 40. 26. N.

* **TRAYTRIP**. *n. f.* A play, I know not of what kind.—I shall play my freedom at *traytrip*. *Shak.*

TREA. *n. f.* [*trois*, Fr.] The three at dice. *Asb.*

* **TREACHEROUS**. *adj.* [from *treachery*.] Faithless; perfidious; guilty of deserting or betraying.—Those same *treacherous* vile. *Spenser*.—Saw the *treach'rous* goddess smile. *Swift*.

* **TREACHEROUSLY**. *adv.* [from *treacherous*.] Faithlessly; perfidiously; by treason; by dishonest stratagem.—Him Alectus *treacherously* slew. *Spenser*.—*Treacherously* hast thou vanquish'd him. *Shak.*—They *treacherously* poor fish beset. *Donne*.—You *treacherously* practise'd to undo me. *Otway*.—His poor father *treacherously* lost. *Dryd.*

* **TREACHEROUSNESS**. *n. s.* [from *treachery*.] The quality of being treacherous; perfidiousness.

* **TREACHERY**. *n. s.* [*tricherie*, French.] Perfidy; breach of faith.

* **TREACHTOR**. } *n. s.* [from *tricher*, *tricheur*,
* **TREACHOUR**. } Fr.] A traitor; one who betrays; one who violates his faith or allegiance. Not in use.—By a *treachour* disguised slain. *Spens*. Where may that *treachour* then be found. *Spens*.

(1.) * **TREACLE**. *n. s.* [*triacle*, Fr. *triacle*, Dutch;

Dutch; *theriaca*, Lat.] 1. A medicine made up of many ingredients.—Medicinal virtues of *treacle*. Boyle.—*Treacle* water has much of an acid in it. Floyer. 2. Melasses; the spume of sugar.

(2.) *TREACLE*. See *THERIACA*.—Some also give the name *treacle* to melasses. See *PHARMACY*, *Index*.

(3.) *TREACLE BEER*. See *SPRUCE*.

(4.) *TREACLE MUSTARD*. See *CLYPEOLA*.

(5.) *TREACLE MUSTARD*. See *THLAPSI*.

* *TREAD*. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Footing; step with the foot.—

If the streets were pay'd with thine eyes,
Her feet were much too dainty for such *tread*.
Shak.

The quaint mazes in the wanton green,
For want of *tread*, are undistinguishable. *Milt.*

—The passive air upbore their nimble *tread*. *Milt.*

—The dancer on the rope, with doubtful *tread*.
Dryd.—How wert thou wont to walk with cau-

tionous *tread*. *Swift.* 2. Way; track; path.—The gap and *tread* for more piercement. *Shak.* 3. The cock's part in the egg.

(1.) * *To TREAD*. *v. n.* pret. *trod*. part. pass. *trodden*. [*tradan*, Gothic; *tredan*, Saxon; *treden*, Dutch.] 1. To set the foot.—

He ne'er drinks,

But Timon's silver *treads* upon his lip. *Shak.*

—When you walk or *tread*. Bacon.—If we mean

to *tread* with ease. *Milt.*—Where'er you *tread*,

the blushing flow'rs shall rise. *Pope.* 2. To trample;

to set the feet in scorn or malice.—Triumphantly *tread* on thy country's ruin. *Shak.*—Thou

shalt *tread* upon their high places. *Deut.* xxxiii.

29. 3. To walk with form or state.—The ground

shrinks before his *treading*. *Shak.*—Ye that stately

tread or lowly creep. *Milton.* 4. To copulate as

birds.—When turtles *tread*. *Shak.*—*Treading* or

coupling. Bacon.—They bill, they *tread*. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To TREAD*. *v. a.* 1. To walk on; to

feel under the foot.—Would I had never *trod* this

English earth. *Shak.*—Forbid to *tread* the prom-

is'd land he saw. *Prior.* 2. To press under the

foot.—*Tread* the spuff out on the floor. *Swift.* 3.

To beat; to track.—If we walk not in the *trod-*

den paths. *Shak.* 4. To walk on in a formal or

stately manner.—Methought she *trod* the ground

with greater grace. *Dryd.* 5. To crush under

foot; to trample in contempt or hatred.—We

will *tread* them under that rise against us. *Psal.*

xliv. 5.

Why was I rais'd the meteor of the world,

To be *trod* out by Cæsar? *Dryden.*

6. To put in action by the feet.—They *tread* their

wine-presses. *Job* xxiv. 7. To love as the male

bird the female.—He feather'd her and *trod* her

Dryden.

* *TREADER*. *n. s.* [from *tread*.] He who

treads.—The *treaders* shall tread out no wine. *Isa.*

* *TREADLE*. *n. s.* [from *tread*.] 1. A part of

an engine on which the feet act to put it in mo-

tion.—The greater the sweep of the fore-end of

the *treadle* be, the more revolutions is made at

one *tread*. *Maxon.* 2. The sperm of the cock.—

The gam, or *treadle* of the egg. *Brown.* At each

end of the egg is a *treadle*. *Derham.*

(1.) * *TREASON*. *n. s.* [*trahison*, French.] An

offence committed against the king's majesty, & the dignity and majesty of the commonwealth.—He made the overture of thy *treasons* to us. *Shak.*

—To expiate his *treason* hath nought left. *Milton.*

Treason against God. *Holyday.* Athaliah cried,

Treason, treason. 2 *Kings* xi. 14.

(II.) *TREASON*, a general appellation, made use

of by the law, to denote not only offences against

the king and government, but also that accumu-

lation of guilt which arises whenever a superior re-

poses a confidence in a subject or inferior, be-

tween whom and himself there subsists a natural,

a civil, or even a spiritual relation; and the inferior

so abuses that confidence, so forgets the obligations

of duty, subjection, and allegiance, as to destroy

the life of any such superior or lord.

Hence treason is of two kinds, *high* and *petty*.

i. *TREASON, HIGH*, or *TREASON PARAMOUNT*,

(which is equivalent to the *crimen lese majestatis*

of the Romans), is an offence committed against

the security of the king or kingdom, whether by

imagination, word, or deed. The stat. 25. Edw.

III. c. 2. defines what offences should be held to

be treason; and it comprehends all kinds of high

treason under seven branches. "1. When a man

doth compass or imagine the death of our lord

the king, of our lady his queen, or of their eldest

son and heir," the stat. requires, that the accused

"be thereof upon sufficient proof attained of some open act by men of his own condition."

Thus, to provide weapons or ammunition for the

purpose of killing the king, is held to be a palpable

overt act of treason in imagining his death.

To conspire to imprison the king by force, and

move towards it by assembling company, is an

overt act of compassing the king's death. It seems

clearly to be agreed, that by the common law and

the statute of Edw. III. words spoken amount only

to a high misdemeanour, and not treason. If the

words be set down in writing, it argues more delib-

erate intention; and it has been held, that writing

is an overt act of treason. But even in this

case the bare words are not the treason, but the

deliberate act of writing them. 2. "If a man do

violate the king's companion, or the king's eldest

daughter unmarried, or the wife of the king's

eldest son and heir." By the king's companion is

meant his wife; and by violation is understood

carual knowledge, as well without force as with

it. 3. The third species of treason is, "if a man

do levy war against our lord the king in his realm."

And this may be done by taking arms, not only

to dethrone the king, but under pretence to re-

form religion, or the laws, or to remove evil

counsellors, or other grievances whether real or

pretended. 4. "If a man be adherent to the

king's enemies in his realm, giving to them aid

and comfort in the realm or elsewhere," he is also

declared guilty of high treason. 5. "If a man

counterfeit the king's great or privy seal," this is

also high treason." But if a man takes wax bear-

ing the impression of the great seal off from one

patent and fixes it to another, this is held to be

only an abuse of the seal, and not a counterfeiting

of it. 6. "If a man counterfeit the king's mo-

ney; and if a man bring false money into the

realm counterfeit to the money of England, know-

ing

ing the money to be false, to merchandise and make payment withal." But gold and silver money only are held to be within this statute. It is held that uttering counterfeit money without importing it, is not within the statute. 7. "If a man slay the chancellor, treasurer, or the king's justices of the one bench or the other, justices in eyre, or justices of assize, and all other justices assigned to hear and determine, being in their places doing their offices." But this statute extends only to the actual killing of them; and not to wounding or a bare attempt to kill them. The barons of the exchequer, as such, are not within the protection of this act; but the lord keeper or commissioners of the great seal now seem to be within it, by virtue of the Statutes 5 Eliz. c. 18. and 1 W. and M. c. 21. The new treasons, created since the statute 1 M. c. 1. and not comprehended under the description of Statute 25 Edw. III. may be comprised under three heads. The first species relates to Papists; the second to falsifying the coin or other royal signatures, as falsely forging the sign manual, privy signet, or privy seal, which shall be deemed high treason (1 M. Stat. ii. c. 6.) The third new species of high treason is such as was created for the security of the Protestant succession in the house of Hanover. For this purpose, after the act of settlement was made, it was enacted by statute 13 and 14 W. III. c. 3. that the pretended prince of Wales, assuming the title of king James III. should be attainted of high treason; and it was made high treason for any of the king's subjects to hold correspondence with him or any person employed by him, or to remit money for his use. And by 17 Geo. II. c. 39. it is enacted, that if any of the sons of the pretender shall land or attempt to land in this kingdom, or be found in the kingdom or any of its dominions, he shall be adjudged attainted of high treason; and corresponding with them or remitting money to their use is made high treason. By 1 Ann. Stat. 2. c. 17. the offence of hindering the next in succession from succeeding to the crown is high treason: and by 6 Ann. c. 7. if any person shall maliciously, advisedly, and directly, by writing or printing, maintain, that any other person hath any right to the crown of this realm, otherwise than according to the act of settlement, or that the kings of this realm with the authority of parliament are not able to make laws to bind the crown and its descent; such person shall be guilty of high treason. The punishment of high treason in general is very solemn and terrible. 1. That the offender be drawn to the gallows, and not be carried or walk; though usually (by clemency, at length ripened by humanity into law) a sledge or hurdle is allowed, to preserve the offender from the torment of being dragged on the ground or pavement. 2. That he be hanged by the neck, and then cut down alive. 3. That his entrails be taken out, and burned while he is yet alive. 4. That his head be cut off. 5. That his body be divided into four parts. 6. That his head and quarters be at the king's disposal. The king may, and often doth, discharge all the punishment except beheading, especially where any of noble blood are attainted. But where beheading is no part of the judgment, as in murder or other

felonies, it hath been said that the king cannot change the judgment. In the case of COXWOLD, the punishment is milder for male offenders; being only to be drawn and hanged by the neck till dead. But in treasons of every kind the punishment of women is the same, being different, and perhaps more terrible than that of men. Their sentence is to be drawn to the gallows, and there to be burned alive. This barbarous punishment, to the disgrace of the law of England, was actually inflicted upon a poor woman, at London, so late as the year 1786. The poor woman fainted when led to the place of suffering. This circumstance excited the humanity of — Martin, Esq. M. P. to bring in a bill for its abolition, which passed both houses during the winter Session, 1788, very much to the honour of the British Parliament. For the consequences of this judgment, see ATTAINDER, FORFEITURE, and CORRUPTION OF BLOOD.

ii. TREASON, PETTY, or PETIT, according to the statute 25 Edw. III. c. 2. may happen three ways: by a servant killing his master, a wife her husband, or an ecclesiastical person (either secular or regular) his superior, to whom he owes faith and obedience. Whatever has been said with respect to wilful MURDER, is also applicable to the crime of petit treason, which is no other than murder in its most odious degree; except that the trial shall be as in cases of high treason, before the improvements therein made by the statutes of William III. But a person indicted of petit treason may be acquitted thereof, and found guilty of manslaughter or murder. The punishment of petit treason in a man, is to be drawn and hanged, and in a woman to be drawn and burned: the idea of which latter punishment seems to have been handed down to us from the laws of the ancient Druids, which condemned a woman to be burned for murdering her husband. Persons guilty of petit treason were first debarred the benefit of clergy by statute 12 Henry VII. c. 7. which has since been extended to their aiders, abettors, and counsellors, by statute 13 Henry VIII. c. 1. and 5 and 5 P. and M. c. 4.

(III.) TREASON, HIGH, in Scots law. See LAW, Part III. Chap. III. Sect. IV. § 9—11.

(IV.) TREASON, MISPRISION OF. See LAW, Part III. Chap. III. Sect. IV. § 12.

* TREASONABLE. } adj. [from treason.]

* TREASONOUS. } adj. [from treason.] Having the nature or guilt of treason. Treasonous is out of use.—Corrupt and treasonous. Shak.—Treasonous malice. Shak.—Plots, and treasonable practices. Clarend.—I would not taste thy treasonous offer. Milt.—It is dangerous, illegal, and perhaps treasonable. Swift.

(1.) * TREASURE. n. s. [treasor, Fr. thesauri, Latin.] Wealth hoarded; richness accumulated.—The several parcels of his plate, his treasure. Shak.—Collecting of treasure. Bacon.—Gold is treasure as well as silver. Locke.

(2.) TREASURE, in general, denotes a stock of money.

* To TREASURE. v. a. [from the noun.] To hoard; to reposit; to lay up.—Thou treasurest up unto thyself wrath. Rom. ii. 5.—Practical principles are treasured up in man's mind. South.—No, my remembrance treasures honest thoughts. Rowe.

—All

—All things lost on earth are *treasur'd* there. *Pope*.

* **TREASUREHOUSE.** *n. f.* [*treasure* and *house*.] Place where hoarded riches are kept.—Let there be any grief incident to the soul, for which there is not in this *treasurehouse* a present remedy. *Hooker*.—Thou silver *treasurehouse*. *Shak*.—Your spirit and its *treasurehouse*, the memory. *Taylor*.

(1.) * **TREASURER.** *n. f.* [*from treasurer*; *tresorer*, Fr.] One who has care of money; one who has charge of treasure.—This is my *treasurer*. *Shak*.—Before the invention of laws, private affections in rulers made their own fancies both their *treasurers* and hangmen. *Raleigh*.

(2.) A **TREASURER** is an officer to whom the treasure of a prince or corporation is committed to be kept and duly disposed of, in payment of officers and other expences. See **TREASURY**. Of these there is a great variety. His majesty of Great Britain, in quality of elector of Brunswick, is *arch treasurer* of the Roman empire. In England, the principal officers under this denomination are, the lord high-treasurer, the treasurer of the household, treasurer of the navy, of the king's chamber, &c.

(3.) **TREASURER, LORD HIGH, OF GREAT BRITAIN**, or first commissioner of the treasury, when in commission, has under his charge and government all the king's revenue which is kept in the exchequer. He holds his place during the king's pleasure; being instituted by the delivery of a white staff to him. He has the check of all the officers employed in collecting the customs and royal revenues; and in his gift and disposition are all the offices of the customs in the several ports of the kingdom; and scribes in every county are nominated by him; he also makes leases of the lands belonging to the crown. The office of lord treasurer is *now* in commission. The number of lords commissioners is 5, one of whom is the first lord, whose annual salary was formerly £.282, but is now £.4000; and who, unless he be a peer, is also chancellor of the exchequer, and prime minister in the government of this country; the other lords commissioners have an annual salary of £.1600 each.

(4.) **TREASURER OF THE COUNTY**, he that keeps the county stock. There are two of them in each county in England, chosen by the major part of the justices of the peace, &c. at their general quarter session; under previous security given for the money entrusted with them, and the faithful execution of the trusts reposed in them.

(5.) **TREASURER OF THE HOUSEHOLD**, is an officer who, in the absence of the lord steward, has power, with the comptroller and other officers of the green-cloth and the steward of the Marshalsea, to hear and determine treasons, felonies, and other crimes committed within the king's palace. See **HOUSEHOLD**. There is also a treasurer belonging to the establishment of her majesty's household, &c.

(6.) **TREASURER OF THE NAVY**, is an officer who receives money out of the exchequer, by warrant from the lord high treasurer, or the lords commissioners executing that place; and pays all charges of the navy, by warrant of the principal officers of the navy.

* **TREASURERSHIP.** *n. f.* [*from treasurer*.] Office or dignity of treasurer.—He was a suitor for the *treasurership*. *Habeswill*.

TREASURE-TROVE. *n. f.* in law, derived from the French word *trouver*, to find, called in Latin *thesaurus inventus*, is where any money or coin, gold, silver, plate, or bullion, is found hidden in the earth or other private place, the owner thereof being unknown; in which case the treasure belongs to the king; but if he that hid it be known, or afterwards found out, the owner and not the king is intitled to it.

(1.) * **TREASURY.** *n. f.* [*from treasure*, *tresorerie*, Fr.] 1. A place in which riches are accumulated. *The treasury* of life. *Shak*.—A very *treasury*—Of brags, and gold. *Chapman*.—That famous *treasury* of knowledge at Oxford. *Wotton*.—The state of the *treasury* the king best knows. *Temple*.—*Treasures* of just observations. *Watts*.—2. It is used by *Shakespeare* for *treasure*.—Sunken wreck and sumless *treasuries*. *Shak*.—

The sumptuous buildings

Have cost a mass of public *treasure*. *Shak*.

(2.) *The TREASURY* is the place wherein the revenues of a prince are received, preserved, and disbursed. In England the treasury is a part of the exchequer; by some called the *lower exchequer*. The officers of his majesty's treasury, or the lower exchequer, are the lords commissioners, one of whom is chancellor, two joint secretaries, private secretary to the first lord, two chamberlains, an auditor, four tellers, a clerk of the pells, ushers of the receipt, a tally-cutter, &c. See each officer under his proper article, **CHANCELLOR, TALLY, TELLER, &c.**

(3.) **TREASURY, LORDS OF THE.** See **TREASURER, LORD HIGH, § 3.**

* **TREAT.** *n. s.* [*from the verb*.] 1. An entertainment given.—A parting *treat*. *Dryd*.—Professions, when recommended by a *treat*, dispose an audience to her reason. *Collier*.—

What tender maid but must a victim fall

For one man's *treat*, but for another's ball? *Pope*.

2. Something given at an entertainment.—

Figs and grapes, and wrinkled dates were set,
In canisters t' enlarge the little *treat*. *Dryd*.

Lycaon's guilt and his inhuman *treat*. *Dryd*.

(1.) * **TO TREAT.** *v. a.* [*traiter*, Fr. *tratar*, Lat.] 1. To negotiate; to settle.—A hundred senators to *treat* the peace. *Dryden*. 2. [*Tratō*, Lat.] To discourse on. 3. To use in any manner, good or bad.—He *treated* his prisoner with great harshness. *Speñ*.—The best men are *treated* like the worst. *Pope*. 4. To handle; to manage; to carry on.—They *treated* their subjects in their pictures, as Homer did in his poetry. *Dryd*. 5. To entertain without expence to the guest.

(2.) * **TO TREAT.** *v. n.* [*traiter*, Fr. *trabian*, Saxon.] 1. To discourse; to make discussions.—Of love they *treat* till th' evening star appear'd. *Milt*.—Authors who have *treated* of love in verse. *Addison*. 2. To practice negotiation.—The king *treated* with them. 2 *Mac*. xiii. 22. 3. To come to terms of accommodation.—Inform us, will the emperor *treat*? *Swift*. 4. To make gratuitous entertainments.—If we do not please, at least we *treat*. *Prior*.

* **TREATABLE.** *adj.* [*traitable*, French.] Mode-
M m m rate;

rate; not violent.—A virtuous mind should rather wish to depart with a kind of *treatable* dissolution than be suddenly cut off. *Hooker*.—The heats or the colds of seasons are less *treatable* than with us. *Temple*.

* **TREATISE.** *n. f.* [*tractatus*, Lat.] Discourse; written tractate.—A dismal *treatise*. *Shak*.—Rules are given in this *treatise* to judge of good pictures. *Dryden*.

* **TREATMENT.** *n. f.* [*traitement*, Fr.] Usage; manner of using, good or bad.—Were they to entertain this age, they could not now make such *plenteous treatment*. *Dryden*.

Accept such *treatment* as a swain affords. *Pope*.

(1.) * **TREATY.** *n. f.* [*traité*, Fr.] 1. Negotiation; act of treating.—

She began a *treaty* to procure. *Spenser*.

He calls by *treaty* and by trains

Her to persuade. *Spenser*.

2. A compact of accommodation relating to public affairs.—A peace, rather a bargain than a *treaty*. *Bacon*.—And with the rest a peaceful *treaty* makes. *Addison*. 3. [For *entreaty*.] Supplication; petition; solicitation.—

To the young man send humble *treaties*. *Shak*.

(1.) **TREATY**, § 1, *def.* 1, 2, may be farther illustrated by the following, which are some of the most important treaties that have occurred in the history of Britain and of Europe, within these last centuries.

(3.) **TREATY OF AIX LA CHAPELLE.** See **AIX**, and **ENGLAND**, § 81.

(4.) **TREATY OF AMIENS.** See **REVOLUTION**, N^o VI, § 47.

(5.) **TREATY OF CAMPO FORMIO.** See **CISALPINE**, § 2.

(6.) **TREATY OF COMMERCE WITH FRANCE.** See **ENGLAND**, § 128.

(7.) **TREATY OF PARIS.** See **ENGLAND**, § 83.

(8.) **TREATY OF PASSAU.** See **REFORMATION**, § 6.

(9.) **TREATY OF QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE.** See **ENGLAND**, § 78.

(10.) **TREATY OF RYSWICK.** See **ENGLAND**, § 71.

(11.) **TREATY OF VERSAILLES.** See **ENGLAND**, § 107.

(12.) **TREATY OF UNION WITH IRELAND.** See **IRELAND**, § 24.

(13.) **TREATY OF UNION WITH SCOTLAND.** See **ENGLAND**, § 74.

(14.) **TREATY OF U. RECHT.** See **ENGLAND**, § 75.

(1.) **TREBA**, in ancient geography, a town of Italy, belonging to the *Equi*. *Plin.* iii. 12.

(2.) **TREBA**, in modern geography, a town of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia; 2 m. SW. of Salza.

TREBATIUS TESTAS, Caius, a writer of the Augustan age, who was banished by Cæsar as a partizan of Pompey, but was afterwards reconciled to him. He was eminent for his integrity. He wrote on civil law, and some good poems, and other tracts. *Hor.* 2. *Sat.*

TREBELLIVS POLLIO, a Latin historian, who flourished about A. D. 305. He wrote the *Lives of the Roman Emperors*; the beginning of this work is lost; but part of the life of Valerian, the reigns of the two Gallieni, and the reigns of the 10 tyrants are extant.

TREBENSKA, a river of European Turkey, in Dalmatia; which runs into the Adriatic at Trebigni.

TREBIA, a river of Italy, anciently in Cisalpine Gaul, which rises in Geneva, runs past Bobbio, in the dep. of Olona, in the Italian kingdom; and falls into the Po a little below Placentia. After the defeat of the Romans under Sempronius, on its banks, by Hannibal, great numbers of the Roman soldiers, in flying from the victorious Carthaginians, were drowned in this river. It still retains the name it had in the days of Hannibal.

TREBIGNA, } a town of European Turkey,
TREBIGNI, or } in Dalmatia, with a Greek
TREBIGNO, } bishop's see; seated on the Adriatic, at the mouth of the Trebenska, 14 miles NE. of Ragusa, and 60 S. of Mostar. The inhabitants are partly Turks, partly Greek Christians; and a few are Roman catholics. Lon. 18. 12. E. Lat. 43. 4. N.

TREBILIS, the ancient name of Tripoli. See **TRIPOLI**, N^o 2.

TREBISOND, a large, populous, and strong town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Jenich, with a Greek archbishop's see, a harbour, and a castle, seated at the foot of a very steep hill. The walls are square and high, with battlements; and are built with the ruins of ancient structures. The town is not populous. The harbour is at the E. end of the town, and the mole built by the Genoese is almost destroyed. It stands on the Black Sea, 104 miles NW. of Erzerum, and 440 E. of Constantinople. Lon. 40° 25' E. Lat. 40° 45' N.

(1.) **TREBITZ**, a town of Moravia, seated on the Iglaw, 21 miles SE. of Iglaw, and 52 NW. of Budweis. It has considerable manufactures of cloth, iron, glass, &c. Lon. 16. 12. E. Lat. 49. 4. N.

(2.) **TREBITZ**, a town of Upper Saxony; 3 miles NNW. of Schmiedelberg.

(1.) * **TREBLE.** *n. f.* A sharp sound.—The treble cutteth the air sharp. *Bacon*.—The *trebles* squeak for fear. *Dryden*.

(2.) * **TREBLE.** *adj.* [*triple*, Fr. *triplex*, *triplex*, Lat.] 1. Threefold; triple.—They twofold balls and *treble* sceptres carry. *Shak*.—Dreadful teeth in *treble* ranks are set. *Sandys*.—*Treble* confusion, wrath, and vengeance. *Milton*.—A lofty tow'r with *treble* walls. *Dryden*.—Through *treble* plates his jav'lin went. *Dryd.* 2. Sharp of sound. A musical term.—The quicker percussive of air causeth the more *treble* sound. *Bacon*.

(3.) **TREBLE**, in music, the highest or most acute of the four parts in symphony, or that which is heard the clearest and shrillest in a concert.

(1.) * **To TREBLE.** *v. a.* [from the adjective; *triplico*, Latin; *tripler*, Fr.] To multiply by three; to make conceive as much.—

She conceiv'd, and *trebling* the due time,
Brought forth this monstrous mass. *Spens.*

I would not be ambitious in my wish,
To wish myself much better; yet for you,
I would be *trebled* twenty times myself. *Shak.*
—Four years he *trebles*. *Creech*.

(2.) * **To TREBLE.** *v. n.* To become threefold.—Debt doubles and *trebles* upon him. *Swift*.

* **TREBLENESS.** *n. f.* [from *treble*.] The state of being *treble*.—*Trebleness* of tones. *Bacon*.

* **TREBLY.** *adv.* [from *treble*.] Thrice told; in threefold number or quantity.—Linen *trebly* roll'd.

roll'd. *Dryd.*—The seed is doubly and *trebly* defended. *Ray.*

TREBNITZ, a town of Silesia, in the county of Oels, 12 miles N. of Breslaw, and 13 W. of Oels. It has a famous nunnery. Near it is a hill consisting of soft clay, which the people form into vessels of all kinds, and it requires nothing but exposure to the air to become as hard as if baked in an oven. Lon. 17. 15. E. Lat. 51. 15. N.

TREBNIZ, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz, 6 miles SW. of Leitmeritz.

TREBUCHET, } TRIBUCH, (*Trebichetum*), a
TREBUCKET, } tumbrel or cucking stool. Also
a great engine to cast stones to batter walls.

TREBURGET, a town of England, in Cornwall; near Michaelstow.

TRECARROL, a small town of England, in Cornwall; SW. of Launceston.

TRECASTLE, a town of S. Wales in Brecknockshire, 10 miles W. of Brecknock, and 174 of London. It has 6 fairs; on April 3; May 2; August 14; October 14; November 13; and December 14.

TREDACK, a town of England in Cornwall, near Lescard.

TREDDINGTON, a town of England, in Worcestershire, seated on the Stour; N. of Ship-ton.

TREDINGTON a town of England, in Gloucestershire; 2½ miles SE. of Tewksbury.

TREDONOCK, a town of England, in Monmouthshire, 3 miles from Caerleon.

TREDRUSTON, a town of England, in Cornwall; near Bodwin.

(1.) * TREE. *n. f.* [*trie*, Islandick; *tree*, Danish.] 1. A large vegetable, rising with one woody stem, to considerable height.—*Trees* and shrubs, of our native growth in England, are distinguished by Ray. 1. Such as have their flowers disjointed and remote from the fruit; and these are, 1. Nuciferous ones; as, the walnut tree, the hazel-nut tree, the beech, the chestnut, and the common oak. 2. Coniferous ones; of this kind are the Scotch fir, male and female; the pine, the common alder tree, and the birch tree. 3. Bacciferous, as the juniper and yew trees. 4. Lanigerous ones; as, the black, white, and trembling poplar, willows, and others of all kinds. 5. Such as bear their seeds, having an imperfect flower, in leafy membranes; as, the horse-bean. 6. Such as have their fruits and flowers contiguous; of these some are pomiferous; as, apples and pears; and some bacciferous; as, the forb or service tree, the white or hawthorn, the wild rose, sweet brier, currants, the great bilberry bush, honey-suckle, &c. Pruniferous ones, whose fruit is pretty large and soft, with a stone in the middle; as, the blackthorn or sloe tree, the black and white bullace tree, the black cherry, &c. Bacciferous ones; as, the strawberry tree in the west of Ireland, mistletoe, water elder, large laurel, the viburnum or way-faring tree, the dog berry tree, the sea black thorn, the berry-bearing elder, the privet bar-berry, common elder, the holly, the buckthorn, the berry-bearing heath, the bramble, the spindle tree or prickwood. Such as have their fruit dry when ripe; as, the bladder nut tree, the box tree, the common elm and ash,

the maple, the gale or sweet willow, common heath, broom, dyers wood, furze or gorse, the lime tree, &c. *Miller.*—With *trees* that nod. *Shak.*—Who can bid the *tree* unfix his earth-bound root. *Shak.*—It is pleasant to look upon a *tree* covered with green leaves. *Burnet.*—Gooseberries are shrubs, and oaks are *trees*. *Locke.* 2. Any thing branched out.—*Trees* of pedigrees. *Dryden.*

(2.) * TREE GERMANDER. *n. f.* A plant.

(3.) TREE GERMANDER, in botany. See TRICRIUM.

(4.) TREE MOSS, a species of LICHEN.

(5.) * TREE OF LIFE. *n. f.* [*lignum vite*, Latin.] An evergreen; the wood is esteemed by turners. *Miller.*

(6.) TREE OF LIFE, or LIGNUM VITÆ, in botany. See GUAIACUM; § II. N° 2.

(7.) * TREE PRIMROSE. *n. f.* A plant.

(8.) TREE PRIMROSE, in botany. See OENOTHERA.

(9.) TREE TREFOIL. See CYTISUS.

(10.) TREES, ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY OF. See PLANT, § 1, 2, 10—32; and SAP, § 1, 2, 5, 6.

(11.) TREES, BARRINGTON'S RULES FOR ASCERTAINING THE ORIGINAL SOIL OF. Certain trees are natives of particular districts; but many of them have been transplanted from their native soil, and now flourish luxuriantly in distant countries, so that it is a matter of considerable difficulty to ascertain their original soil. The following rules are given by the Hon. Daines Barrington: 1. They must grow in large masses, and cover considerable tracts of ground, the woods not ending abruptly, by a change to other trees, except the situation and strata become totally different. 2. They must grow kindly in copses, and shoot from the stool, so as to continue for ever, if not very carefully grubbed up. 3. The seeds must ripen kindly; nature never plants, but where a succession in the greatest profusion will continue. Lastly, trees that give names to many places are probably indigenous.

(12.) TREES, CLASSES OF. All trees may be divided into two classes, *timber* and *fruit-trees*; the first including all those trees which are used in machinery, ship-building, &c. or, in general, for purposes of utility; and the second comprehending those trees valued only, or chiefly, for their fruit. It is not necessary to form a third class to include trees used for fuel, as all timber is used for this purpose where it is abundant. For the botanical classification of trees and plants in general, see BOTANY, *Index*.

(13.) TREES, DIFFERENT SIZES AND GROWTH OF. Few experiments have been made to determine what the additions are which a tree receives annually in different periods of its age. Mr Barker has drawn up a table to point out the growth of three kinds of trees, *oaks*, *ashes*, and *elms*; which may be seen in the *Philos. Trans.* for 1788. His conclusions are these: "I find the growth of oak and ash to be nearly the same. The common growth of an oak or an ash is about an inch in girth in a year; some thriving ones will grow an inch and a half. Great trees grow more timber in a year than small ones; for if the annual growth be an inch, a coat of one 6th of an inch is laid on

M m m 2

all

all around, and the timber added to the body every year, is its length multiplied into the thickness of the coat and into the girth, and therefore the thicker the tree is the more timber is added." The following table shows the growth of 17 kinds of trees for three years. The trees grew at Caenham in Suffolk.

N ^o	July, 1785.			July, 1786.			July, 1787.		
	F. In.			F. In.			F. In.		
1 Oak	-	-	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 4
2 Larch	-	-	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 3	-	1 4	-	1 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
3 Scots fir	-	-	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Spruce fir	-	-	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 8
5 Spanish chestnut	0	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 8	-	0 8	-
6 Elm	-	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 9	-	2 11	-	2 11	-
7 Pinaster	-	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
8 Larch	-	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 6	-	1 7	-	1 7	-
9 Weymouth pine	0	5	-	0 6	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
10 Acacia	-	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
11 Beech	-	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
12 Plane occidental	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
13 Lombardy poplar	1	8	-	2 0	-	2 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
14 Black poplar	1	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
15 Willow	-	2 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	3 2	-	3 3	-	3 3	-
16 Silver fir	-	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	-
17 Lime	-	1 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 0	-	2 0	-

The growth of 11 kinds of trees, in 21 years, is given under RURAL ECONOMY, Part III. *See* §. X. Heat is so essential to the growth of trees, that as we go from the place within the polar circles where vegetation begins, and advance to the equator, we find the trees increase in size remarkably. Greenland, Iceland, and other places in the same latitude, yield no trees at all; and the shrubs which they produce are dwarfish; whereas, in warm climates, they often grow to an immense size. The *largest tree* in Europe, mentioned by travellers, is the chestnut tree on mount Etna. (*See* ETNA. § 13.) It is certain, that trees acquire a very great size in volcanic countries. Besides the multitude of fine groves in the neighbourhood of Albano in Italy, there are many detached oaks 20 feet in circumference, and many elms of the same size, especially in the romantic way to Estello, called the *Galleria*. In travelling by the side of the lake of BOLSENA, the road leads us through an immense number of oaks, spread upon beautiful hills. Some yews have been found in Britain 60 feet round. Palms in Jamaica attain the height of 200 feet; and some of the pines in Norfolk Island are 280 feet high.

(14.) TREES, FELLING OF, FOR TIMBER. The goodness of timber not only depends on the soil and situation in which it stands, but likewise on the season wherein it is felled. In this people disagree very much; some are for having it felled as soon as its fruit is ripe, others in the spring, and many in the autumn. But as the sap and moisture of timber is certainly the cause that it perishes much sooner than it otherwise would do, it seems evident, that timber should be felled when there is the least sap in it, viz. from the time that the leaves begin to fall till the trees begin to bud. This work usually commences about the end of April in England, because the bark then rises most freely; for where a quantity of timber is to be

felled, the statute requires it to be done then, for the advantage of tanning. The ancients chiefly regarded the age of the moon in felling their timber; their rule was to fell it in the wane, or 4 days after the new moon, or sometimes in the last quarter. Pliny advises it to be in the very instant of the change; which happening to be in the last day of the winter solstice, the timber, says he, will be incorruptible. Timber should likewise be cut when of a proper age; for when it is either too young or too old, it will not be so durable as when cut at a proper age. It is said that oak should not be cut under 60 years old, nor above 200. Timber, however, should be cut in its prime, when almost fully grown, and before it begins to decay; and this will be sooner or later according to the dryness or moistness of the soil where the timber grows, as also according to the bigness of the trees; for there are no fixed rules in felling of timber: experience and judgment must direct here as in most other cases.

(15.) TREES, FOUNTAIN. *See* FOUNTAIN, § 5.

(16.) TREES, FRUIT, MR FORSYTH'S METHOD OF MANAGING, CURING, PRUNING, &c. *See* FRUIT-TREES, § IV, 1-3. Mr Forsyth's method of managing, curing, &c. fruit-trees, has not only met with universal approbation; but is now found to answer equally well in the treatment of *forest trees*, as in that of *fruit-trees*.

(17.) TREES, GRAFTING OF. *See* GRAFTING, § I-VIII; 1-8.

(18.) TREES, GROWTH OF. *See* § 5.

(19.) TREES, METHOD OF PRESERVING, FROM FROSTS. The chevalier de Blenheim of Prague, we are told, has discovered a method of effectually preserving trees in blossom from the fatal effects of those frosts which sometimes in the spring destroy the most promising hopes of a plentiful crop of fruit. His method is extremely simple. He surrounds the trunk of the tree in blossom with a wisp of straw or hemp. The end of this he sinks, by means of a stone tied to it, in a vessel of spring water, at a little distance from the tree. One vessel will conveniently serve two trees; or the cord may be lengthened so as to surround several, before its end is plunged into the water. It is necessary that the vessel be placed in an open situation, and by no means shaded by the branches of the neighbouring trees, that the frost may produce all its effect on the water, by means of the cord communicating with it.—This precaution is particularly necessary for those trees the flowers of which appear nearly at the same time as the leaves; which trees are peculiarly exposed to the ravages of the frost. The proofs of its efficacy, which he had an opportunity of observing in the spring of 1787, were remarkably striking. Seven apricot espaliers in his garden began to blossom in March. Fearing that they would suffer from the late frosts, he surrounded them with cords as above directed. In effect, pretty sharp frosts took place 6 or 8 nights; the apricot-trees in the neighbouring gardens were all frozen, and none of them produced any fruit, whilst each of the chevalier's produced fruit in abundance, which came to the greatest perfection.

(20.) TREES, MOST PROPER FOR BUILDING. Of all the different kinds known in Europe, oak is best for building. Fir-timber is the next in degree of goodness. It differs from oak in this, that it requires not much seasoning. Fir is used for flooring, waincotting, and the ornamental parts of building within doors. Elm is the next in use, especially in England and France; it is very tough and pliable, and therefore easily worked; it does not readily split; and it bears driving of bolts and nails better than any other wood; for which reason it is chiefly used by wheel-wrights and coach-makers, for shafts, naves, &c. Beech is also used for many purposes; it is very tough and white when young, and of great strength; but liable to warp very much when exposed to the weather, and to be worm-eaten when used within doors; its greatest use is for planks, bedsteads, chairs, and other household goods. Ash is likewise a very useful wood, but very scarce in most parts of Europe; it serves in buildings, or for any other use, when screened from the weather; hand-spikes and oars are chiefly made of it. Wild chestnut timber was formerly much esteemed, but is now little used. Walnut-tree is excellent for the joiner's use, it being of a more curious brown colour than beech, and not so subject to the worms. The poplar, abel, and aspen trees, which are very little different from each other, are much used instead of fir; they look well, and are tougher and harder. See QUERCUS, OAK, PINUS, PLANTANUS, POPULUS, ULMUS, &c.

(21.) TREES, NATURAL HISTORY OF. See NATURAL HISTORY; *See* III.

(22.) TREES, PLANTING OF. See GARDENING, *See* II. and V.; and ORCHARD, § 2—5.

(23.) TREES, SEASONING OF, AND PRESERVING OF THE TIMBER. After trees are cut down, great attention is necessary in the seasoning of timber. Some advise the planks of timber to be laid for a few days in some pool or running stream, in order to extract the sap, and afterwards to dry them in the sun or air. By this, it is said, they will be prevented from either chopping, casting, or cleaving; but against shrinking there is no remedy. Some again are for burying them in the earth, others in a heat; and some for scorching and seasoning them in fire, especially piles, posts, &c. which are to stand in water or earth. The Venetians first found out the method of seasoning by fire; which is done after this manner. They put the piece to be seasoned into a strong and violent flame; in this they continually turn it round by means of an engine, and take it out when it is everywhere covered with a black coally crust; the internal part of the wood is thereby so hardened, that neither earth nor water can damage it for a long time afterwards. Dr Plott says, it is found by long experience, that the trunk or body of the trees, when barked in the spring, and left standing naked all the summer exposed to the sun and wind, are so dried and hardened, that the sappy part in a manner becomes as firm and durable as the heart itself. This is confirmed by M. Buffon, who, in 1778, presented to the royal academy of sciences at Paris a memoir, entitled, "An easy method of increasing the solidity, strength and duration of timber;" for which purpose he ob-

serves, "nothing more is necessary than to strip the tree entirely of its bark during the season of the rising of the sap, and to leave it to dry completely before it be cut down." By many experiments, particularly described in that essay, it appears, that the tree should not be felled till the 3d year after it has been stripped of the bark; that it is then perfectly dry, and the sap become almost as strong as the rest of the timber, and stronger than the heart of any other oak tree which has not been so stripped; and the whole of the timber stronger, heavier, and harder; from which he thinks it fair to conclude, that it is also more durable. "It would no longer (he adds) be necessary, if this method were practised, to cut off the sap; the whole of the tree might be used as timber; one of 40 years growth would serve all the purposes for which one of 60 years is now required; and this practice would have the double advantage of increasing the quantity, as well as the strength and solidity, of the timber." After the planks of timber have been well seasoned and fixed in their places, care is to be taken to defend or preserve them; to which the smearing them with linseed oil, tar, or the like oleaginous matter, contributes much. The ancients, particularly Hesiod and Virgil, advise the smoke drying of all instruments made of wood, by hanging them up in the chimneys where wood fires are used. The Dutch preserve their gates, portcullises, draw bridges, sluices, &c. by coating them over with a mixture of pitch and tar, whereon they fire small pieces of cockle and other shells, beaten almost to powder, and mixed with sea-sand, which incrusts and arms them wonderfully against all assaults of wind and weather. When timber is felled before the sap is perfectly at rest, it is very subject to worms; but to prevent and cure this, Mr Evelyn recommends the following remedy as the most approved: Put common sulphur into a cucurbit, with as much aquafortis as will cover it three fingers deep; distil it to dryness, which is performed by two or three rectifications. Lay the sulphur that remains at bottom, being of a blackish or sand-red colour, on a marble, or put it in a glass, and it will dissolve into an oil; with this oil anoint the timber which is infected with worms. This, he says, will not only prevent worms, but preserve all kinds of woods, and many other things, as ropes, nets, and masts, from putrefaction, either in water, air, or snow. An experiment to determine the comparative durability of different kinds of timber, when exposed to the weather, was made by a nobleman in Norfolk; of which an account is given by Sir Thomas Beevor. This nobleman, in 1774, ordered three posts, forming two sides of a quadrangle, to be fixed in the earth on a rising ground in his park. Into these posts were mortised planks, an inch and an half thick, cut out of trees from 30 to 45 years growth. These, after standing 10 years, were examined, and found in the following state and condition: The cedar was perfectly sound; larch, the heart sound; but the sap quite decayed; spruce fir, sound; silver fir; in decay; Scots fir, much decayed; pinaster, quite rotten; chestnut, perfectly sound; abel, sound; beech, sound; walnut, in decay; lycamore

more, much decayed; birch, quite rotten. Sir Thomas Beevor justly remarks, that the trees ought to have been of the same age; and Mr Arthur Young adds, they ought to have been cut out of the same plantation.

(24.) TREES, WASTE OF, IN BRITAIN, AND MEANS OF SUPPLYING THAT LOSS. The immense quantity of timber consumed of late years in ship-building and for other purposes, has diminished in a very great degree the quantity produced in this country. On this account, many gentlemen who with well to their country, alarmed with the fear of a scarcity, have strongly recommended it to government to pay some attention to the cultivation and preservation of timber. The price of wood has risen in proportion to the demand and to its diminution. At the conquest woods were valued, not by the quantity of timber which they contained, but the number of swine which the acorns could support. In 1608, oak in the forests was sold at 10s. per load, and fire-wood for 2s. per load. In 1663 or 1665, in navy contracts from L.2 to L.2, 15s. 6d. per load was given. In 1756 it rose to L.4, 5s. per load, and 3s. in addition, because no tops are received. Plank four inch fold in 1796 for L.7 a load, three inch L.4; which prices were the same in 1792. The expenditure of valuable timber is now so very great as to give reason to fear that the forests of this country will soon be entirely dismantled, unless something is done to raise fresh supplies. The building of a 70 gun ship, it is said, would take 40 acres of timber. This calculation appears so excessive, that it is scarcely credible, but it is however no exaggeration. According to the prevailing opinion of experienced surveyors, it will require a good soil and good management to produce 40 trees on an acre, which, in a hundred years, may, at an average, be computed at two loads each. Reckoning, therefore, two loads at L.8, 16s. one acre will be worth L.350, and consequently 40 acres will only be worth L.14,200. Now a 70 gun ship is generally supposed to cost L.70,000; and as ships do not last many years, the navy continually requires new ships, so that the forests must be stripped in a century or two, unless young trees are planted to supply their place. No doubt we depend greatly on Russia, Sweden, Norway, and America, for supplying us with timber; and while these countries take our manufactures in exchange, we have no reason to complain. Still, however, we ought surely not to neglect the cultivation of what is of so much importance to our existence as a nation; for it may often be impossible in time of war to obtain timber from foreign countries.

(1.) * **TREEN**, old plural of *tree*.—He knows his tackle and his *treen*. *Ben Jonson*.

(2.) * **TREEN**, *adj.* Wooden; made of wood. Obsolete.—I had rather drink out of *treen* and pay gold and silver, than drink out of gold and silver and make wooden payments. *Camden*.

TREFALGAR, CAPE, or CAPE TRAFALGAR, a cape, promontory, or head-land, on the coast of Seville, or Andalusia, in Spain; projecting 5 miles beyond the general direction of the coast. It is situated at the entrance of the Straits of Gibraltar, 20 miles SSE. of Cadiz, 26 due N. of Cape

Spartel in Africa, and 36 W. by N. of Gibraltar. This promontory will ever be memorable in history, for the great and decisive naval victory obtained within sight of it, by the British fleet, under the celebrated Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson, on the 21st October, 1805, over the combined French and Spanish fleets. The enemy's fleet consisted of 37 ships of the line, viz. 18 French and 19 Spanish, while the British amounted only to 27. In this battle the British took no less than 19 ships, but the great Nelson lost his life in the action, living only so long as to be assured of his victory. (See NELSON, Lord Viscount.) Lon. 6. 2. W. Lat. 36. 10. N.

(1.) **TREFURT**, or **TREFORT**, a town of Germany, lately in the circle of the Lower Rhine, in Eichfeld, 10 miles WSW. of Mulhausen, and 32 W. of Erfurt. It was allotted by the division of the indemnities to the K. of Prussia. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

(4.) **TREFFURT**. See **TREFURT**.

* **TREFOIL**, *n. s.* [*trifolium*, Latin.] A plant. *Miller*.—A trefoil, or three-leaved grass. *Peascham*.—Some four trefoil or rye-grass with their clover. *Mortimer*.

(2.) **TREFOIL**, in botany. See **TRIFOLIUM**.

(3.) **TREFOIL**, BEAN, a species of **CYTISUS**.

(4.) **TREFOIL**, BIRD'S FOOT. See **LOTUS**, N° 1.

(5.) **TREFOIL**, MARSH. See **MENYANTHES**.

(6.) **TREFOIL**, MOON, a species of **MEDICAGO**.

(7.) **TREFOIL**, SHRUB. See **PTELEA**.

(8.) **TREFOIL**, SHRUB, OF MONTPELIER. See **LOTUS**, N° 2.

(9.) **TREFOIL**, SNAIL. See **MEDICAGO**.

(10.) **TREFOIL**, STINKING BEAN. See **ANAGYRIS**.

(11.) **TREFOIL**, THORNY, a species of **FAGONIA**.

(12.) **TREFOIL**, TREE. See **CYTISUS**.

TREFORT. See **REVOLUTION**, § VIII; and **TREBURT**, N° 1.

TREFRHIW, a town of N. Wales, in Caernarvonshire. It has fairs on May 12. Sept. 3d and Nov. 3d.

TREGANETHAW, a town of England, in Cornwall, SW. of Truro. It has fairs on May 6th and Aug. 12.

TREGANNON, an incorporated town of S. Wales, in Cardiganshire, with a handsome church. It has a market on Thurs. and a fair on March 5; and is seated on the Tivy, 15 miles SSE. of Aberystwith, and 197 W. of London, or 202 W. by N. *Brookes*. Lon. 3. 56. W. Lat. 52. 15. N.

TREGONY, a borough of England, in Cornwall, which sends 2 members to the imperial parliament, though much decayed. Yet it has still a market on Sat. and fairs on Shrove Tues. May 3, July 25, Sept. 2, and Nov. 6. It is seated on the Falles, which is navigable by boats up to it from Falmouth; 16 miles NE. of Falmouth, 41 W. by S. of Plymouth, and 245 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 43. W. Lat. 50. 16. N.

(1.) **TREQUIER**, a sea-port town of France, in the dep. of the North Coasts, and ci-devant prov. of Lower Bretagne; seated in a peninsula, on the banks of the Trequier, near the English Channel. Lon. 14. 26. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 48. N.

(2.) **TREQUIER**, a river of France, in the dep. of the

the North coasts, and late prov. of Bertagne, which passes by and gives name to the above town, and falls into the English Channel, 6 miles below it.

TREKAN, a town of England, in Cornwall, NE. of Truro.

TREILLAGE. *n. f.* [French.] *Treillage* is a contexture of pales to support espaliers. *Trevoux*.—Bowers, grottos, *treillages*, and cascades. *Speß.*

TREILLEBURG, a sea-port town of Sweden, in the prov. of Schonen, on the coast of the Baltic, 30 miles SE. of Copenhagen. Lon. 13. 26. E. Lat. 55. 26. N.

TREISHNISH, or **TRESHUNISH ISLES**, a cluster of uninhabited islands, of Argyllshire, among the Hebrides, 12 miles W. of the isle of Mull. Two of them, named *Cairnbulg* and *Little Cairnbulg*, have relics of forts on them.

TREISTICK, a town of England, in Cornwall, near Treigny.

TREKEVE, a small town of England, in Cornwall, on the N. of Liskard.

TRELANK, a town of England, in Cornwall, SW. of Launceston.

TRELASE, a town of Cornwall, on the coast, E. of Padflow Haven.

TRELASK, a town of England, in Cornwall, SE. of Camelford.

(1.) **TRELAWNEY**, a town of England, in Cornwall, on the W. side of the Lows or Looas.

(2.) **TRELAWNEY**, a town of Jamaica, 60 miles NW. of Kingston. Lon. 77. 42. W. Lat. 18. 21. N.

* **TRELLIS**. *n. f.* [French.] Is a structure of iron, wood, or other, the parts crossing each other like a lattice. *Trevaux.*

* **To TREMBLE**. *vin.* [*trembler*, Fr. *tremo*, Lat.] 2. To shake as with fear or cold; to shiver; to quake; to shudder.—My heart—*trembles* by surprise. *Shak.*—God's power thou *tremblest* at. *Shak.*—Make your bondmen *tremble*. *Shak.*—He fell into such a *trembling* that he could hardly speak.

Clarend.—Frighted Turnus *trembl'd* as he spoke.

Dryd.—With terror *trembl'd* heav'n's subduing hill.

Dryd. 2. To quiver; to totter.—Sinai's grey top shall *tremble*. *Milt.*—A *trembling* jelly. *Burnet.* 3.

To quaver; to shake as a sound.—Winds when vehement, *tremble* at the height of their blast. *Bac.*

TREMBLEY, Abraham, F. R. S. a learned author, born at Geneva, in 1710. He was admitted F. R. S. of London, and wrote, 1. *Memoirs upon Polyptes*, 4to: 2. *Instructions from a Father to his Children*: 3. *Instructions upon Natural Religion*, &c.

* **TREMBLINGLY**. *adv.* [from *trembling*] So as to shake or quiver.—*Tremblingly* the food. *Shak.*—*Tremblingly* alive all o'er. *Pope.*

TREMECEN. See **TREMESEN**.

TREMELLA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *cryptogamia*, and natural order of *algæ*. It is a gelatinous membranous substance; the parts of the fructification scarcely visible. There are 11 species, of which the 5 following are indigenous.

1. **TREMELLA HEMISPHERICA**, the sea *tremella*, is scattered among conservez, fuci, &c.

2. **TREMELLA LICHENOIDES**, the transparent *tremella*, is erect, plane, the margin curled, lacinulated, and brown. It grows on heaths and in woods, &c.

3. **TREMELLA NOSTOC**, the jelly rain *tremella*, is found in pastures and by the sides of gravel walks in gardens after rains; not uncommon in spring, summer, and autumn. It is a membranaceous, pellucid, and gelatinous substance, without any visible root; of a yellowish dull green colour; assuming various forms, either round, angular, plaited or folded together irregularly, like the intestines, an inch or two or more in diameter; soft to the touch when moist; but thin, membranaceous, and brittle, when dry; and of a black fuscous colour. The ancient alchemists called this vegetable the *flowers of heaven*, and imagined that from it they would procure the universal menstruum; but all their researches ended in discovering that by distillation it yielded some phlegm, volatile salt, and empyreumatic oil.

4. **TREMELLA PURPUREA**, the purple *tremella*, is globular, sessile, solitary, and smooth. It grows on ditch banks about London.

5. **TREMELLA VERRUCOSA**, the wart *tremella*, is tubercular, solid, wrinkled, roundish, and resembling a bladder; it is of a blackish yellow. It grows on stones in rivulets.

TREMELLIUS, Emanuel, a Jew born at Ferrara in 1510. He was a great master of the Hebrew tongue; and was converted to Christianity by the celebrated Peter Martyr. After travelling to Germany and England, he was made professor of Hebrew, first at Heidelberg, and then at Sedan, where he died in 1580. He translated the Hebrew Bible and Syriac Testament into Latin; in the former he was assisted by Junius, who also corrected the 2d edition in 1587.

* **TREMENDOUS**. *adj.* [*tremendus*, Latin.] Dreadful; horrible; astonishingly terrible. Mysteries sacred and *tremendous*. *Tatler*. Each hand *tremendous* with a brazen spear. *Pope*.

(1.) **TREMESEN**, **TREMECEN**, **TLEMSAN**, or **TREMEZEN**, a province of Algiers; bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean, E. by the province called *Africa*, S. by the desert of *Zarab*, and W. by the kingdom of *Fez*. It is above 370 miles long, and 125 broad. The soil is dry, barren, and mountainous; except on the N. side, where there are fertile plains abounding in corn, fruits, and pastures. This province comprehends the W. division of Algiers, and is governed by a dey.

(2.) **TREMESEN**, ? **TREMECEN**, or **TLEMSAN**,

(2.) **TREMEZEN**, an ancient and celebrated city of Algiers, capital of the above province. It is seated on an eminence, below some precipitous rocks, from which run many springs into a large basin. It has strong walls. In 1670 Hassan, dey of Algiers, demolished great part of this city, so that it is not so extensive as formerly. In the E. part of the city are many elegant pillars, altars, and other relics of Roman antiquity. The inhabitants are a mixture of Arabs, Moors, and Jews. It is 50 miles SW. of Oran, and 200 SW. of Algiers. Lon. 1. 29. W. Lat. 34. 40. N. (*Brooker*.) Lon. 0. 18. E. of Greenwich. Lat. 35. 1. N. *Cruttwell*.

TREMITI, 3 islands of Italy in the Adriatic, 15 miles from the coast of Naples. Their distinct names are, *Capraria*, *St Nicolo*, and *St Domino*. Lon. 33. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 42. 10. N.

TREMOILLE. See **TREMOUILLE**.

TREMOLA,

TREMOLA, a valley in the Alps, where the celebrated **SAUSSURE** found a peculiar species of *Shiftus*, which he hence named.

TREMOLITE. *n. f.* See **MINERALOGY**, Part II. Chap. IV. Cl. I. Ord. I. Gen. XXIII. Sp. 2.

TREMOLIERE, Peter Charles, an historical painter, born at Cholet in Poitou, in 1703. He studied under Vanlo Semor; painted several grand altar-pieces at Lyons; and died in 1739.

TREMONT, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire; 3 miles NE. of Vihiers.

TREMOR. *n. s.* See Johnson's definitions under the obsolete spelling, **TREMOUR**. Tremor is an involuntary shaking, chiefly of the hands and head, sometimes of the feet, and sometimes of the tongue and heart.—Tremors arising from a too free use of spirituous liquors require the same treatment as palfies.

TREMOREL, a town of France, in the dep. of the North coasts, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. of Brooms, and 18 E. of Loudeac.

TREMOUILLE, a town of France in the dep. of the Vienne, and ci-devant prov. of Poitou; seated on the Benaile, 33 miles ESE. of Poitiers, and 6 E. of Montmorillon. Lon. 1. 10. E. Lat. 46. 28. N.

* **TREMOUR**. *n. s.* [*tremor*, Lat.]. 1. The state of trembling.—Universal *tremour* of the joints. *Harvey*.—It affects the nerves, occasioning *tremours*. *Arbutnot*. 2. Quivering or vibratory motion.—Various, and contrary *tremours*. *Newton*.

* **TREMULOUS**. *adj.* [*tremulus*, Lat.]. 1. Trembling; fearful.—The tender *tremulous* Christian. *Decay of Piety*. 2. Quivering; vibratory.—Where there was nothing to determine him, the balance, by hanging even, became *tremulous*. *Fell*.—Breath vocalized, impresses a swift *tremulous* motion in the lips, tongue, or palate. *Holder*.—Th' effulgence *tremulous* I drink. *Thomson*.

* **TREMULOUSNESS**. *n. s.* [from *tremulous*.] The state of quivering.

* **TREN**. *n. s.* A fish spear.

* **TRENCH**. *n. s.* [*tranche*, Fr.]. 1. A pit or ditch.—With a *trench* enclose the fruitful field. *Dryden*.—Make a small *trench* to carry some of the water in. *Mortimer*. 2. Earth thrown up to defend soldiers in their approach to a town, or to guard a camp.—I saw our party to the *trenches* driven. *Shak*.

William carries on the *trench*

Till both the town and castle yield. *Prior*.

* **To TRENCH**. *v. a.* [*trancher*, Fr.]. 1. To cut.—Twenty tremendous gashes on his head. *Shak*.—A figure *trench'd* in ice. *Shak*. 2. To cut or dig into pits or ditches.—*Trench* the ground, and make it ready for the spring. *Evelyn*.—*Trench* the black earth a cubit long and wide. *Pope*.—The *trenching* plough or coulter. *Mortimer*. 3. To fortify by earth thrown up.—

Pioneers with spades and pick-ax arm'd,

Forerun the royal camp to *trench* a field. *Milt*.

* **TRENCHANT**. *adj.* [*trenchant*, Fr.]. Cutting sharp.—He fiercely took his *trenchant* blade in hand. *Spenser*.—

Against a vanquish'd foe, their swords

Were sharp and *trenchant*, not their words. *Hud*.

TRENCHARD, John, a political writer, born in Somersetshire in 1669. He studied the law, but

never practised it. Being elected M. P. for Taunton, in his native county, he wrote several political pamphlets. In conjunction with Mr Gordon, he wrote *Cato's Letters*, and *The Independent Whig*. (See GORDON, N° 4.) He died in 1723; and his friend Gordon married his widow.

* **TRENCHER**. *n. f.* [from *trench*; *trenchoir*, Fr.] 1. A piece of wood on which meat is cut at table.—I'll scrape *trencher*. *Shak*.—One which holds a *trencher*. *Shak*.—Set the dish or *trencher* on the ground. *More*.—

Their homely fare dispatch'd; the hungry band

Inva'de their *trenchers* next. *Dryd*.

—A square *trencher*, or round plate. *Locke*. 2. The table.—

How often hast thou

Fed from my *trencher*. *Shak*.

3. Food; pleasures of the table.—Some men could not place their *sumum bonum* upon their *trenchers*, and their utmost felicity in wine. *South*.

* **TRENCHERFLY**. *n. s.* [*trencher* and *fly*]. One that haunts tables; a parasite.—*Trencherflies* and spongers. *L'Estrange*.

* **TRENCHERMAN**. *n. s.* [*trencher* and *man*]. 1. A cook. Obsolete.—The skillfullest *trenchermen* of Media. *Sidney*. 2. A feeder; an eater.—He's a very valiant *trencherman*; he hath an excellent stomach. *Shak*.

* **TRENCHMATE**. *n. s.* [*trencher* and *mate*]. A table companion; a parasite. These *trenchmates* frame to themselves a way more pleasant. *Hooker*.

TRENCH'S ISLAND, an island of the United States, on the coast of S. Carolina; 25 miles in circumference. Lon. 80. 58. W. Lat. 32. 13. N.

TRENCK, Francis baron, a Prussian nobleman, who, by some trivial piece of imprudence, had given such offence to Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, that he was kept, by the iniquitous power of that despot under a tedious, cruel, and solitary confinement for above 40 years, without ever being brought to trial, or confronted with his accusers. From this cruel imprisonment, he at last effected his escape, and published a very interesting memoir of his life, sufferings, and innocence. But while this narrative interested the feelings of every humane reader in Europe, in favour of the author, he took refuge in France, expecting to enjoy that *liberty and equality* which the French democrates professed to hold out to all mankind. But instead of this, the revolutionary tribunal of the French republic, proved more savage, than the despot of Prussia himself, and condemned to the guillotine a man whose life of protracted misfortune ought to have pled in his favour, even if he had been convicted of something really criminal, of which there never was any shadow of evidence. This unfortunate baron completed his unfortunate career in Aug. 1794.

* **To TREND**. *v. a.* To tend; to lie in any particular direction. It seems a corruption of *tend*. The coasts and *trendings* of the crooked shore. *Dryden*.

* **TRENDLE**. *n. s.* [*trendel*, Saxon.] Any thing turned round. Now improperly written *trundle*.

(1.) **TRENT**, one of the largest rivers in England, which rises in the Moorland of Staffordshire, and

and runs SW. by Newcastle under Line; and afterwards dividing the county in two parts, runs to Burton, below which it receives the water of the Dove, Derwent, Irwast, and Soar; then to Nottingham and Newark; and so continuing its course due N. to Gainfborough, it falls into the Humber. Its name is derived from *Triginta*, Lat. or *Trente*, Fr. *thirty*, because it receives 30 smaller rivers, or has 30 different kinds of fish in it.

(2.) TRENT, a province and ci devant bishopric of Germany, in Austria, near the frontiers of Italy, bounded on the N. by Tirol; on the E. by Feltrino and Bellunese; on the S. by Vicentino, all now included in Maritime Austria, also by the late Veronese, Bresciano, and lake Garda, now included in the department of the Mella and the Mincio, in the Italian kingdom; and on the W. by the said Bresciano, or department of the Mella, and the lake of Garda. The soil is fertile, and abounds in vines and olives.

(3.) TRENT, a city of Germany, capital of the above province is a very ancient place, and stands in a fertile and pleasant plain, in the midst of the high mountains of the Alps. The river Adige washes its walls. Trent has three considerable churches, the principal of which is the cathedral. The church of St Maria Major is all of red and white marble; and is remarkable for being the place where the famous COUNCIL of TRENT was held. On the 5th Sept. 1796 this city was taken by the French republicans; but restored by the treaty of Campo Formio. Lon. 11. 5. E. Lat. 46. 10. N.

(4.) TRENT, a town of Upper Saxony, in the Isle of Rugen; 11 miles NW. of Berg.

(5.) TRENT, a river of Canada, which runs from the Rice Lake into Lake Ontario.

(6.) TRENT, a river of the United States, in N. Carolina; which runs into the Neuse, at Newbern.

(7.) TRENT, a town of England, in Somersetshire, between Elcheffer and Milburn Port.

(8.) TRENT, COUNCIL of, in ecclesiastical history, denotes a council assembled by Paul III. in 1545, and continued by 25 sessions till the year 1563, under Julius III. and Pius IV. in order to correct, illustrate, and fix with perspicuity, the doctrine of the church, to restore the vigour of its discipline, and to reform the lives of its ministers. The decrees of this council, together with the creed of Pope Pius IV. contain a summary of doctrines of the Roman Catholics. These decrees were subscribed by 255 clergymen consisting of 4 legates, 2 other cardinals, 3 patriarchs, 25 archbishops, 168 bishops, besides inferior clergy. Of these 150 came from Italy; of course the council was entirely under the influence of the pope. For a more particular account of the council of Trent, see *Mosheim's Church History*, the *Modern Universal History*, Vol. XXIII. and *Father Paul's History of the Council of Trent*.

* TRENTALS. *n. f.* [*trente*, Fr.] *Trentals* or *trigintals* were a number of masses, to the tale of thirty, said on the same account, according to a certain order instituted by Saint Gregory. *Ayliff.*

TRENTHAM, a town of England in Staffordshire, on the Trent: 3 miles from Newcastle under Line.

VOL. XXII. PART II.

(1.) TRENTON, the capital of New Jersey, is seated in the Hunterdon county, on the NE. bank of the Delaware, opposite the Falls, 30 miles above Philadelphia. It contains about 300 houses; besides a state-house, a handsome court-house, where courts are held quarterly, and 4 churches for Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Quakers, and Methodists. A federal court is also held in it on the 2d April and 2d October. The environs of this city are ornamented and improved by a great number of gentlemen's seats along the banks of the Delaware. The river is navigable only a short way above the town for vessels carrying 500 bushels. At this town the British troops were defeated by the Americans, on the 25th December 1776. (See AMERICA, § 17.) Trenton lies 24 miles NNE. of Philadelphia. Lon. 74. 48. W. Lat. 40. 15. N.

(2.) TRENTON, a town of N. Carolina, capital of Jones county. It is seated on the S. bank of Trent. It has a court-house, and county courts are held in it, the 2d Monday of February, May, August and November.

(3.) TRENTON, a post town of the United States, in Maine, Hancock county: 286 miles from Boston, and 634 from Philadelphia.

TRENTWITH, a town of England, in Cornwall, near Madern.

TREOUEN, a town of England, in Monmouthshire on the SW. of Monmouth.

(1.) * TREPAN. *n. f.* [*trepan*, Fr.] 1. An instrument by which chirurgeons cut out round pieces of the skull. 2. A snare; a stratagem by which any one is ensnared. [Of this signification *Skinner* assigns for the reason, that some English ships in queen Elizabeth's reign being invited, with great shew of friendship, into *Trapani*, a part of Sicily, were there detained.]—How very active in his own *trepan*? *Rescommon*.—Snare, hooks, and *trepan*? *South*.—It deceives the reason and is indeed a real *trepan* upon it. *South*.

(2.) TREPAN. See SURGERY, Index.

* To TREPAN. *v. a.* [from the noun; *trepaner*, Fr.] 1. To perforate with the trepan.—*Trepanning* the bone. *Wifeman*.—Few recovered of those that were *trepanned*. *Arbuthnot*. 2. To catch; to ensnare.—They *trepanned* the state. *Hudibras*.—Those are but *trepanned* who are called to govern. *South*.

TREPANNING. *part. n. f.* See SURGERY, Index.

TREPASSER'S BAY, a bay on the S. coast of Newfoundland. Lon. 53. 0. W. Lat. 46. 40. N.

(1.) * TREPHINE. *n. f.* A small trepan; a smaller instrument of perforation managed by one hand.—I shewed a trepan and *trephine*. *Wifeman*.

(2.) TREPHINE. See SURGERY, Index.

* TREPIDATION. *n. f.* [*trepidatio*, Lat.] 1. The state of trembling, or quivering.—The bow holdeth the string in a continual *trepidation*. *Bacon*. *Nat. Hist.*—*Trepidation* and horror. *Bacon*.—*Trepidation* of the spheres. *Donne*.—

That crystalline sphere whose balance weighs
The *trepidation* talk'd, and that first-mov'd.

Milton.

2. State of terror.—The whole kingdom stood in a zealous *trepidation*. *Wotton*.—The success of

N n n

that

that great day, in such *trepidation* of the state, made every man meritorious. *Wotton*.

TREPORT, a sea-port town of France in the dep. of the Lower Seine; seated on the English Channel, at the mouth of the Bresle. It is the port for the town of Eu; from it, it is $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant.

TRERO, a river of Italy, in the Campania of Rome, which runs into the Garigliano, near Isolella on the

TRESUS, a river of Italy in Latium, running into the L

TRESCAU, } or St NICOLAS, one of the Scilly
TRESCAW, } Islands. See SCILLY, N° 1. §

TRESHANISH, or } ISLANDS. See TREISH-
TRESHUNISH, } NISH.

(1.) * **TRESPASS**. *n. f.* [*trespai*, Fr.] 1. Transgression; offence.—Most common *trespas*. *Shak.*—Such a petty *trespas*? *Milton*. 2. Unlawful entrance on another's ground.

(2.) **TRESPASS**, in law, signifies any transgression of the law, under treason, felony, or imprisonment of either; but it is commonly used for any wrong or damage that is done by one private person to another, or to the king in his forest.

* **To TRESPASS**. *v. n.* [*trespasser*, Fr.] 1. To transgress; to offend.—They *trespas*ed against me, *Lev. xxvii. 43.*—They *trespas* against all logic. *Norris*. 2. Unlawful entrance on another's ground.—None *trespas*'d on the other's ground. *Prior*.

* **TRESPASSER**. *n. f.* [from *trespas*.] 1. An offender; a transgressor. 2. One who enters unlawfully on another's ground.—If I come upon another's ground I am a *trespasser*. *Walton*.

* **TRESSED**. *adj.* [from *treffe*, French.] Knotted or curled.—He plunged in pain his *tressed* locks doth tear. *Spenser*.

* **TRESSES**. *n. f.* without a singular. [*treffes*, Fr. *treccia*, Italian.]—A knot or curl of hair.—

Comets, importing change of tides and states
Brandish your crystal *treffes* in the sky. *Shak.*
Under the flowing gold.

Of her loose *treffes* hid. *Milton*.

Adam had wove—A garland to adorn
Her *treffes*. *Milton*.

Fair *treffes* man's imperial race ensnare. *Pope*.
Not all the *treffes* that fair hair can boast. *Pope*.

TRESSURE, in heraldry, a diminutive of an ore, usually held to be half the breadth thereof.

TRES TABERNÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Latium, lying on the Via Appia, on the S. side of the Astura, N. of the Paludes Pomptinæ. Its ruins are now seen near Cisterna, a village in the Campagna of Rome 21 miles from Rome, whence the Christians went out to meet St Paul.

TRESTINA, a town of European Turkey in Moldavia; 24 miles SE. of Jassy.

* **TRESTLE**. *n. f.* [*treseau*, Fr.] 1. The frame of a table. 2. A moveable form by which any thing is supported.

TRESTLE-TREES, in ship-building, two strong bars of timber fixed horizontally on the opposite sides of the lower mast-head, to support the frame of the top and the weight of the top mast. See **MAST**, § 2.

(1.) * **TRET**. *n. f.* [Probably from *tritus*, Lat.] An allowance made by merchants to retailers, which is four pounds in every hundred weight, and four pounds for waste or refuse of a commodity. *Bailey*.

(2.) **TRET**, in commerce, is commonly 4lb. in every 100 lb. weight.

TRETHIMOROU, a town in the ci-devant kingdom of Poland, in Lower Volhynia, seated on the Dniester; 45 miles below Kiow; now annexed to Prussia.

* **TRETHINGS**. *n. f.* [*trethingi*, low Lat. from *trethu*, Welsh, to tax.] Taxes; imposts.

TRETS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone; 12 miles ESE. of Aix, and 20 NE. of Marseilles.

(1.) **TREVANNION'S ISLAND**, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Egmont Island, or New Guernsey, in the bay N° 2. Lon. 163. 43. E. Lat. 10. 41. S.

(2.) **TREVANNION'S LAGOON**, a bay of the S. Pacific Ocean, on the coast of the above island.

TREUCHLINGEN, a town of Franconia, in Anspach, on the Altmühl; 18 miles SSE. of Anspach.

TREUEN, or *Dreyen*, a town of Upper Saxony, in Vogtland; 9 miles ENE. of Plauen, and 4 WNW. of Auerbach.

TREUENBRIETZEN, a town of Brandenburg.

TREVERI, or **TREVIRI**, an ancient and powerful people of Gallia Belgica, who inhabited the country between the Meuse and the Rhine. Their chief town was **TREVERIS**. *Mela*. iii. c. 2.

TREVERIS, **TREVIRIS**, or *Augusta Trevirorum*, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Belgica, the capital of the **TREVERI**; now called **TREVES**.

(1.) **TREVES**, or **TRIERS**, a ci-devant archbishopric, electorate, and principality of Germany, now annexed to the French empire, and included in the dep. of the Sarre. See **SARRE**, N° 3. Before the late revolutionary war, it was an independent principality of considerable extent; being bounded on the N. by the late electorate of COLOGNE, now also annexed to the French empire; on the E. by the ci-devant estates of the elector palatine, and of the house of Nassau, now also annexed to the French empire; on the S. by old France; on the W. by the ci-devant duchy of Luxemburg, now likewise included in the French empire, and forming the department of **FORETS**. This electorate and bishopric was 80 miles long; but its exact breadth was never precisely ascertained by geographers. It is in general mountainous and woody, but contains in many places good arable land, as well as excellent pasturage for cattle; but though it produces great quantities of corn, as well as vines, from which excellent wine is made, yet frequent importations of corn are necessary. The woods abound with game, and the mines with iron, lead, tin, copper, silver, and gold, calamy, and coals. This country was anciently inhabited by the **TREVIRI**, a brave Gallo-Belgic nation; from whom both its ancient and modern names are derived. Being reduced with the rest of Gaul under the Roman yoke; they continued

subject to the Romans till the 4th century; when the whole country was over-run by the Franks, A. D. 458. In the divisions of territory, which took place among the sons and posterity of CHARLEMAGNE, this country was added, in 835, to the kingdom of LORRAINE; and in 870, it fell to the share of Lewis king of Germany; ever since which period, it continued to be annexed to the German empire: till 1795, after the subjugation of the Austrian Netherlands, the Belgic territories on the W. or left bank of the Rhine were over-run by the French republicans, to whom they fell the more easy a prey, that the inhabitants were previously disaffected to the German government, and wished for a change. The whole of these territories were accordingly annexed to the then French republic, and divided first into 6 departments in 1796; and afterwards, in 1798, into 4.

(2.) TREVES, or TRIERS, a city of the French empire, the capital of the department of the SARRS, as it formerly was of the above electorate, archbishopric, and principality. The city may vie with most in Europe for antiquity, having been a large and noted town before Augustus settled a colony in it, and called it *Augusta Treverorum*. It was free and imperial till 1560, when it was surprised and subjected by its archbishop James III. It stands on the Moselle, over which it has a good stone bridge. The cathedral is a large building; and near it stands the late elector's palace. Before the revolution, it had three collegiate and five parish churches, 13 monasteries and nunneries, an university founded in 1472, a house of the Teutonic order, and another of that of Malta, with some remains of the ancient Roman theatre. Roman coins and medals are often found in the ruins of the old city. In the cathedral they pretend to have our Saviour's coat and St Peter's staff, to which they ascribe miracles. The private houses here are mean; and the city is neither well fortified nor inhabited. Treves lies 32 miles S. of Cologne, 60 W. of Mentz, 82 N. of Strasburg, 1450 WNW. of Vienna. Lon. 6. 41. E. Lat. 49. 45. N.

(3.) TREVES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Gard; 12 miles E. of Vigan.

* TREVET. *n. f.* [*trieftet*, Saxon; *trepied*, Fr.] Any thing that stands on tree legs: as, a stool.

(1.) TREVI, a town of Italy, in the Campania of Rome; anciently a bishop's see, erected A. D. 1000, but united to Anguini, in 1260. It is 32 miles E. of Rome.

(2.) TREVI, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Spoleto, and dominions of the pope, 3 miles N. of Spoleto.

(3.) TREVI, a town of Italy, in Umbria, also in the pope's dominions; 23 miles SE. of Perugia. Lon. 11. 51. E. Lat. 42. 54. N.

TREVICO, a town of Naples, and a bishop's see, in Principato Ultra; 15 miles of Conza, and 17. E. of Benevento.

TREVIERS, a town of France, in the dept. of the Calvados; 7½ miles W. of Bayeux, and 12 E. of Carentan.

TREVIGI. See TREVISO.

TREVIGIANO. See TREVISANO.

TREVIGIO. See TREVISO.

TREVIGLIO, a town of Italy, in the depart-

ment of the Olona, and ci-devant duchy of Milan 17 miles ENE. of Milan.

TREVIGNO. See TREVINO.

TREVIGO, a town of England, in Cornwall; near Lestwithiel.

TREVILL, } 4 small towns of England,
TREVILLET, } in the county of Cornwall;
TREVILLOCK, } 1. at the Land's End: 2.
TREVINET, } SE. of Tintagel Castle: 3.
near Grampond: 4 on the W. of Truro.

TREVINO, a strong town of Spain, in Biscay, with a castle seated on a hill, near the Aguda; 10 miles SW. of Vittoria. Lon. 3. 4. W. Lat. 42. 48. N.

TREVIRI. See TREVERI.

TREVISAN, } TREVISANO, or TREVIGIA-
TREVISANA, } NO, a province of Italy, formerly in the late Venetian territory. It is 50 miles long and 40 broad, and lies between Friuli and Paduana. A small part of it is mountainous, but the greater part is level, and is very fertile, that it has been styled by some former Italian writers, *the Granary of Venice*. It produces all sorts of grain and fruits in great plenty; vines and mulberry trees also abound, which afford excellent wine and silk. Numerous flocks of sheep also afford fine wool; and black cattle being numerous, butter and cheese are abundant. Hares, fieldfares, partridges, turkeys, quails, snipes, and other game abound. The rivers, lakes and coasts, abound with fish. The chief rivers are the PLAVE, the SILE, and the MUSONE. The woods afford excellent timber; that of *Montella* abounds in oak, and is 7 miles long and 4 broad. Trevisana is divided into 4 districts: viz. *Trevigo*, *Belluno*, *Fertirino*, and *Geneda*. These are subdivided into 10 parishes, and contain about 280,000 inhabitants. Their chief manufactures are cloth, silk, and paper.

TREVISANI, Francis, an eminent Italian painter, born at Trieste, in 1635. He married a noble Venetian lady, and settled at Rome, where he acquired great fame, for history and landscapes. He died in 1746.

TREVISANO. See TREVISANA.

(1.) TREVISI, Jerome, a celebrated Italian painter of history and portraits, born at Treviso, in 1508. He became painter to Henry VIII. king of England; who appointed him engineer at the siege of Boulogne, where he was killed, in 1544.

(2.) TREVISI, } or TREVIGI, an ancient city,
TREVISIUM, } capital of the *Trevusan*, with a
TREVISO, } strong citadel, is seated on an agreeable plain, on the banks of the *Sile*, which runs through it, and is connected by navigable canals, with the lakes of Venice, and is also joined by the *Piavefella*, which runs through this town in three branches. The city is three miles in circumference; and contains 2,500 houses, and 22,000 inhabitants; who are very industrious and flourish by their silk, wines, and woollen manufactures, and their great fair in October, which is well frequented; and has theatrical exhibitions, and every thing else that can attract company. Besides the cathedral, it has 16 churches, 21 monasteries, 4 hospitals, and a *pawn-bank*. The streets are well paved, and surrounded with piazzas. TOTILLA, king of the Goths was a native

tive of this city. It lies 20 miles NW. of Venice, and 70 NE. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 25. E. Lat. 45. 44. N.

TREVITHIC, a town of England, in Cornwall; near Tregony.

TREVOIL, a town of France, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci-devant Savoy; 10 miles NW. of Chambéry.

TREVONA, a town of England, in Cornwall; SW. of Tregony.

TREVOSE, a promontory of England, on the NW. coast of Cornwall; 5 m. SW. of the Alan.

TREVOUR, a sea port town of England, in Cornwall; between Great Cornwall, and Padstow Haven.

TREVOUTH, a town of England, in Cornwall, near Great Columb.

TREVOUX, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of the Ain, and ci-devant province of Bresse. It has an hospital, and a printing office, famous for printing the *Jesuit Literary Journals*, entitled *Memoires de Trevoux*; and the *Dictionnaire Universel*. Trevoux is seated on the Saone, 12 miles N. of Lyons, and 188 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 51. E. Lat. 45. 57. N.

TREWARDINOCK, a town of England, in Cornwall, near Tregony.

TREWARDRETH BAY, a bay of the English Channel, on the S. coast of Cornwall; 3 miles W. of Povey. Lon. 4. 42. E. Lat. 50. 18. N.

TREWIA, in botany, a genus of plants, of the class polyandria, and order of monogynia.

* TREY. *n. f.* [*tres*, Lat. *trois*, Fr.] A three at cards.—

—Honey, milk, and sugar: there is three.

—Nay then, two *treys*; methlegin, wort, and malmsey. *Shak.*

TREYA, a town of Denmark, in Sleswick; 9 miles W. of Sleswick.

TREYSA, a town of Germany, in Hesse, capital of Ziegenheim, 32 miles SW. of Cassel, and 14 E. or 17 N. of Marburg. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

TREZZO, a town in Italy, in the dep. of the Orona, and ci-devant duchy of Milan, seated on the Adda. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 45. 45. N.

* TRIABLE. *adj.* [from *try*.] 1. Possible to be experimented; capable of trial.—Experiments *triable* by our engine. *Boyle*. 2. Such as may be judicially examined. Causes *triable* in the spiritual court. *Ayliffe*.

* TRIAD. *n. f.* [*trias*, Lat. *triade*, Fr.] Three united.

* (1.) TRIAL. *n. f.* [from *try*.] 1. Test; examination.—With *trial* fire touch me his finger end. *Shak.* 2. Experiment; act of examining by experience.—Your *trial* shall better publish his commendation. *Shak.*—Garcemera make *trial* of the seeds. *Bacon*.—Trials of issues and events of actions. *Wilkins*. 3. Experience; experimental knowledge.—Others had *trial* of cruel mocking and scourgings. *Heb.* 4. Judicial examination.—*Trial* is used in law for the examination of all causes, civil or criminal. *Cowel*.—Law shall scorn him further *trial*. *Shak.*—Suits and judicial trials. *Ketleswell*.—They shall come upon their trials. *Nelson*. 5. Temptation; test of virtue.—

Our trials, when least fought, May find us both perhaps far less prepar'd. *Milt.*—Every station is exposed to some trials. *Rogers*. 6. State of being tried.—All purity, all trial, all observance. *Shak.*

(2.) TRIAL, in law, the examination of a cause according to the laws of the land before a proper judge; or it is the manner and order observed in the hearing and determining of causes. Trials are either *civil* or *criminal*.

1. TRIALS, CIVIL. The species of trials in civil cases are seven: By *record*; by *inspection*, or examination; by *certificate*; by *oath*; by *wager of battel*; by *wager of law*; and by *jury*. The first 6 are only had in certain special or eccentric cases, where the trial by jury would not be so proper or effectual. (See *BATTLE*, § 2, and *LAW*.) The nature of the last, that principal criterion in the law of England, we proceed to explain.

TRIAL BY JURY, has by some authors been attempted to be traced as high as the Britons themselves, the first inhabitants of our island; but certain it is, says Blackstone, that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, their institution being ascribed by bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and captain. Hence it is, that we may find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal composed of 12 good men and true, *boni homines*, usually the vassals or tenets of the lord, being the equals or peers of the parties litigant; and, as the lord's vassals judged each other in the lord's courts, so the king's vassals, or the lords themselves, judged each other in the king's court. In England we find actual mention of them so early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention. The truth seems to be, that this tribunal was universally established among all the northern nations, and so interwoven in their very constitution, that the earliest accounts of the one give us also some traces of the other." This opinion has been controverted with much learning and ingenuity by Dr Pettingal in his *Enquiry into the Use and Practice of Juries among the Greeks and Romans*, who deduces the origin of juries from these ancient nations. He begins with determining the meaning of the word *δικασται* in the Greek, and *judices* in the Roman, writers, (says he,) and the idea generally annexed to them, is that of *presidents of courts*, or, as we call them, *judges*; as such they are understood by commentators, and rendered by critics. Dr Middleton, in his life of Cicero, expressly calls the *judices*, *judges of the bench*: and Abp. Potter, and in short all modern writers upon the Greek or Roman orators, or authors in general, express *δικασται* and *judices* by such terms as convey the idea of *presidents in courts of justice*. The propriety of this is doubted of, and hath given occasion for this inquiry; in which is shown, from the best Greek and Roman authorities, that neither the *δικασται* of the Greeks, nor the *judices* of the Romans, ever signified *presidents in courts of judicature*, or *judges of the bench*; but, on the contrary, they were distinguished from each other, and the difference

ference of their duty and function was carefully and clearly pointed out by the orators in their pleadings, who were the best authorities in those cases, where the question related to forms of law, and methods of proceeding in judicial affairs and criminal process. The presidents of the courts in criminal trials at Athens were the nine archons, or chief magistrates, of which whoever presided was called *ἀρχὴν δικαστῆν*, or president of the court. These nine presided in different causes peculiar to each jurisdiction. The archon, properly so called, had belonging to his department all pupillary and heritable cases; the *ἑταῖρος* or *rex sacrorum*, the chief priest, all cases where religion was concerned; the polemarchus, or general, the affairs of the army and all military matters; and the six *ἑταῖροι*, the other ordinary suits. Wherever then the *ἀρχὴν δικαστῆν*, or judicial men, are addressed by the Greek orators in their speeches, they are not to be understood to be the presiding magistrates, but another class of men, who were to inquire into the state of the cause before them, by witnesses and other methods of coming at truth; and, after inquiry made and witnesses heard, to report their opinion and verdict to the president, who was to declare it. The several steps and circumstances attending this judicial proceeding are so similar to the forms observed by our jury, that the learned reader cannot doubt but that the nature, intent, and proceedings of the *δικαστῆν* among the Greeks were the same with the English jury, namely, for the protection of the lower people from the power and oppression of the great, by administering equal law and justice to all ranks; and therefore when the Greek orators directed their speeches to the *ἀρχὴν δικαστῆν*, as we see in Demosthenes, Æschines, and Lysias, we are to understand it in the same sense as when our lawyers at the bar say, *Gentlemen of the jury*. So likewise among the Romans, the *judices*, in their pleadings at the bar, never signified judges of the bench, or presidents of the court, but a body or order of men, whose office in the courts of judicature was distinct from that of the *prætor* or *judex questorius*, which answered to our judge of the bench, and was the same with the archon, or *ἀρχὴν δικαστῆν*, of the Greeks; whereas the duty of the *judices*, consisted in being impannelled, as we call it, challenged, and sworn to try uprightly the case before them; and when they had agreed upon their opinion or verdict, to deliver it to the president who was to pronounce it. This kind of judicial process was first introduced into the Athenian polity by Solon, and thence copied into the Roman republic, as probable means of procuring just judgment, and protecting the lower people from the oppression or arbitrary decisions of their superiors. When the Romans were settled in Britain as a province, they carried with them their *jura* and *instituta*, their laws and customs, which was a practice essential to all colonies; hence the Britons, and several countries of Germany and Gaul, learned from them the Roman laws and customs; and upon the irruption of the northern nations into the southern kingdoms of Europe, the laws and institutions of the Romans remained, when the power that introduced them was

withdrawn; and Montesquieu tells us, that under the first race of kings in France, about the fifth century, the Romans that remained, and the Burgundians their new masters, lived together under the same Roman laws and police, and particularly the same forms of judicature. How reasonable then is it to conclude, that in the Roman courts of judicature continued among the Burgundians, the form of a jury remained in the same state it was used at Rome. It is certain, Montesquieu, speaking of those times, mentions the *paires* or *hommes de fief*, homages or peers, which in the same chapter he calls *juges*, *judges* or *jurymen*: so that we hence see how at that time the *hommes de fief*, or "men of the fief," were called *peers*, and those peers were *juges* or *jurymen*. There were the same as are called in the laws of the confessor *peers de la tenure*, the "peers of the tenure," or *homagers*, "out of whom the jury of peers were chosen, to try a matter in dispute between the lord and his tenant, or any other point of controversy in the manor. So likewise in all other parts of Europe, where the Roman colonies had been, the Goths succeeding them continued to make use of the same laws and institutions, which they found to be established there by the first conquerors. This is a much more natural way of accounting for the origin of a jury in Europe, than having recourse to the fabulous story of Woden and his savage Scythian companions, as the first introducers of so humane and beneficent an institution." Trials by jury in civil causes are of two kinds, *extraordinary* and *ordinary*. 1. The first species of extraordinary trial by jury is that of the grand assize, which was instituted by king Henry II. in parliament, by way of alternative offered to the choice of the tenant or defendant in a writ of right, instead of the barbarous and unchristian custom of duelling. For this purpose a writ *de magna assisa eligenda* is directed to the sheriff, to return 4 knights, who are to elect and choose 12 others to be joined with them; and these altogether form the grand assize, or great jury, which is to try the matter of right, and must now consist of 16 jurors. Another species of extraordinary *jurors*, is the jury to try an attain; which is a process commenced against a former jury for bringing a false verdict. See *ATTAIN*. 2. With regard to the *ordinary* trial by jury in civil cases, the most clear and perspicuous way of treating it will be by following the order and course of the proceedings themselves. When therefore an issue is joined by these words, "And this the said A prays may be inquired of by the country;" or, "And of this he puts himself upon the country, and the said B does the like; the court awards a writ of *venire facias* upon the roll of record, commanding the sheriff "that he cause to come here, on such a day, twelve free and lawful men, *liberos et legales homines*, of the body of his country, by whom the truth of the matter may be better known, and who are neither of kin to the aforesaid A nor the aforesaid B, to recognize the truth of the issue between the said parties." And such writ is accordingly issued to the sheriff. It is made returnable on the last return of the same term wherein issue is joined, *viz.* hilyar or trinity terms; which, from the making up of the issues therein,

therein, are usually called *issuable terms*. And he returns the names of the jurors in a panel (a little pane or oblong piece of parchment) annexed to the writ. This jury is not summoned, and therefore not appearing at the day, must unavoidably shake default. For which reason a compulsive process is now awarded against the jurors, called in the common pleas a writ of *habeas corpora juratorum*, and in the King's Bench *disfringas*, commanding the sheriff to have their bodies, or to detain them by their lands and goods, that they may appear upon the day appointed. The entry therefore on the roll of record is, "That the jury is repleited, through defect of the jurors, till the first day of the next term, then to appear at Westminster, unless before that time, viz. on Wednesday the fourth of March, the justices of our lord the king appointed to take assizes in that county shall have come to Oxford, that is, to the place assigned for holding the assizes. Therefore the sheriff is commanded to have their bodies at Westminster on the said first day of next term, or before the said justices of assize, if before that time they come to Oxford, viz. on the 4th of March aforesaid." And as the judges are sure to come and open the circuit-commissions on the day mentioned in the writ, the sheriff returns and summons this jury to appear at the assizes; and there the trial is had before the justices of assize and *nisi prius*; among whom (see ASSIZE) are usually two of the judges of the courts at Westminster, the whole kingdom being divided into six circuits for this purpose. And thus we may observe, that the trial of common issues at *nisi prius*, was in its original only a collateral incident to the original business of the justices of assize; though now, by the various revolutions of practice, it is become their principal civil employment, hardly any thing remaining in use of the real assizes but the name. If the sheriff be not an indifferent person, as if he be a party in the suit, or be related by either blood or affinity to either of the parties, he is not then trusted to return the jury; but the *venire* shall be directed to the coroners, who in this, as in many other instances, are the substitutes of the sheriff to execute process when he is deemed an improper person. If any exception lies to the coroners, the *venire* shall be directed to two clerks of the court, or two persons of the county named by the court, and sworn. And these two, who are called *elisors*, or electors, shall indifferently name the jury, and their return is final, no challenge being allowed to their array. When the general day of trial is fixed, the plaintiff or his attorney must bring down the record to the assizes, and enter it with the proper officer, in order to its being called on in court. These steps being taken, and the cause called on in court, the record is then handed to the judge, to peruse and observe the pleadings, and what issues the parties are to maintain and prove, while the jury is called and sworn. To this end the sheriff returns his compulsive process, the writ of *habeas corpora*, or *disfringas*, with the panel of jurors annexed, to the judge's officer in court. The jurors contained in the panel are either special or common jurors. Special juries were originally introduced in trials at bar, when

the cause were of too great nicety for the discussion of ordinary freeholders; or where the sheriff was suspected of partiality, though not upon such apparent cause as to warrant an exception to him. He is in such cases, upon motion in court, and a rule granted thereupon, to attend the prothonotary or other proper officer with his freeholder's book; and the officer is to take indifferently 48 of the principal freeholders, in the presence of the attorneys on both sides; who are each of them to strike off 12, and the remaining 36 are returned upon the panel. By the statute 3 Geo. II. c. 25, either party is entitled upon motion to have a special jury struck upon the trial of any issue, as well at the assizes as at bar, by paying the extraordinary expence, unless the judge will certify (in pursuance of the statute 24 Geo. II. c. 18.) that the cause required such special jury. A common jury is one returned by the sheriff according to the directions of the statute 3 Geo. II. c. 25, which appoints, that the sheriff or officer shall not return a separate panel for every separate cause, as formerly; but one and the same panel for every cause to be tried at the same assizes, containing not less than 48, nor more than 72 jurors; and that their names being written on tickets, shall be put into a box of glass; and when each cause is called, 12 of these persons, whose names shall be first drawn out of the box, shall be sworn upon the jury, unless absent, challenged, or excused, or unless a previous view of the messuages, lands, or place in question, shall have been thought necessary by the court; in which case, six or more of the jurors returned, to be agreed on by the parties, or named by a judge or other proper officer of the court, shall be appointed by special writ of *habeas corpora* or *disfringas*, to have the matters in question shown to them by two persons named in the writ; and then such of the jury as have had the view, or so many of them as appear, shall be sworn on the inquest previous to any other jurors. These acts are well calculated to restrain any suspicion of partiality in the sheriff, or any unless challenged by either party. See the article CHALLENGE. If by means of challenges or other cause, a sufficient number of unexceptionable jurors doth not appear at the trial, either party may pray a *tales*. A *tales* is a supply of such men as are summoned upon the first panel, in order to make up the deficiency. For this purpose a writ of *decem tales*, *octo tales*, and the like, was wont to be issued to the sheriff at common law, and must be still so done at a trial at bar, if the jurors make default. But at the assizes, or *nisi prius*, by virtue of the statute 35 Hen. VIII. c. 6. and other subsequent statutes, the judge is empowered at the prayer of either party to award a *tales de circumstantibus* of persons present in court, to be joined to the other jurors to try the cause; who are liable, however, to the same challenges as the principal jurors. This is usually done till the legal number of 12 be completed, in which patriarchal and apostolical number Sir Edward Coke hath discovered abundance of mystery. When a sufficient number of persons impanelled, or talesmen appear, they are then separately sworn, well

and truly to try the issue between the parties, and to give a true verdict according to the evidence; and hence they are denominated "the jury," *jurata*, and "jurors," *sc. juratores*. The jury are now ready to hear the merits; and to fix their attention the closer to the facts which they are impanelled and sworn to try, the pleadings are opened to them by counsel on that side which holds the affirmative of the question in issue. For the issue is said to lie, and proof is always first required upon that side which affirms the matter in question: in which our law agrees with the civil, *ei incumbit probatio qui dicit, non qui negat; even per rerum naturam factum negantis probatio nulla fit*. The opening counsel briefly informs them what has been transacted in the court above; the parties, the nature of the action, the declaration, the plea, replication, and other proceedings; and lastly, upon what point the issue is joined, which is there first down to be determined. Instead of which, formerly the whole record and process of the pleadings were read to them in English by the court, and the matter of issue clearly explained to their capacities. The nature of the case, and the evidence intended to be produced, are next laid before them by counsel also on the same side; and when their evidence is gone through, the advocate on the other side opens the adverse case, and supports it by evidence, and then the party which began is heard by way of reply. See PLEADINGS. Evidence in the trial by jury is of two kinds; either that which is given in proof, or that which the jury may receive by their own private knowledge. The former, or *proofs*, (to which in common speech the name of evidence is usually confined) are either written or parole, that is, by word of mouth. Written proofs, or evidence, are, 1. Records; and 2. Ancient deeds of 30 years standing, which prove themselves; but, 3. Modern deeds; and 4. Other writings, must be attested and verified by parole evidence of witnesses. With regard to parole evidence or witnesses, it must first be remembered, that there is a process to bring them in by writ of *subpoena ad testificandum*; which commands them, laying aside all pretences and excuses, to appear at the trial on pain of fool to be forfeited to the king, to which the statute 5 Eliz. c. 9. has added a penalty of 10*l.* to the party aggrieved, and damages equivalent to the loss sustained by want of his evidence. But no witness, unless his reasonable expences be tendered him, is bound to appear at all; nor, if he appears, is he bound to give evidence till such charges are actually paid him, except he resides within the bills of mortality, and is summoned to give evidence within the same. All witnesses, of whatever religion or country, that have the use of their reason, are to be received and examined, except such as are infamous, or such as are interested in the event of the cause. All others are competent witnesses, though the jury from other circumstances will judge of their credibility. One witness (if credible) is sufficient evidence to a jury of any single fact; though undoubtedly the concurrence of two or more corroborates the proof. Yet our law considers that there are many transactions to which only one person is privy, and therefore does not always

demand the testimony of two. Positive proof is always required, where, from the nature of the case, it appears it might possibly have been had. But, next to positive proof, circumstantial evidence, or the doctrine of presumptions, must take place. The oath administered to the witness is not only that what he deposes shall be true, but that he shall also depose the *subtle* truth. And all this evidence is to be given in open court, in the presence of the parties, their attorneys, the counsel, and all bystanders, and before the judge and jury; each party having liberty to except to its competency, which exceptions are publicly stated, and by the judge are openly and publicly allowed or disallowed, in the face of the country. When the evidence is gone through on both sides, the judge sums up the whole to the jury, stating what evidence has been given to support the charge, with such remarks as he thinks necessary for their direction, and giving them his opinion in matters of law arising upon that evidence. The jury, after the proofs are summed up, unless the case be very clear, withdraw from the bar to consider of their verdict; and in order to avoid intemperance and causeless delay, are to be kept without meat, drink, fire, or candle, unless by permission of the judge, till they are unanimously agreed. If juries eat or drink at all, or have any estates about them, without consent of the court, and before verdict, it is fineable; and if they do so at his charge for whom they afterwards find, it will set aside the verdict. Also, if they speak with either of the parties or their agents after they are gone from the bar, or if they receive any fresh evidence in private, or if, to prevent disputes, they cast lots for whom they shall find, any of these circumstances will entirely vitiate the verdict. And it has been held, that if the jurors do not agree in their verdict before the judges are about to leave the town, though they are not to be threatened or imprisoned, the judges are not bound to wait for them, but may carry them round the circuit from town to town in a cart. When they are all unanimously agreed, the jury return back to the bar; and before they deliver their verdict, the plaintiff is bound to appear in court by himself, attorney, or counsel, in order to answer the amercement to which by the old law he is liable, in case he fails in his suit, as a punishment for his false claim. The amercement is dispensed, but the form still continues; and if the plaintiff does not appear, no verdict can be given; but the plaintiff is said to be nonsuit, *non sequitur clamorem suum*. Therefore it is usual for a plaintiff, when he or his counsel perceives that he has not given evidence sufficient to maintain his issue, to be voluntarily nonsuited, or withdraw himself; whereupon the crier is ordered to call the plaintiff, and if neither he, nor any body for him, appears, he is nonsuited, the jurors are discharged, the action is at an end, and the defendant shall recover his costs. The reason of this practice is, that a nonsuit is more eligible for the plaintiff than a verdict against him: for after a nonsuit, which is only a default, he may commence the same suit again for the same cause of action; but after a verdict had, and judgment consequent thereupon, he is for ever barred from attacking the defendant upon

upon the same ground of complaint. But in case the plaintiff appears, the jury by their foreman deliver in their verdict. A verdict, *vere dictum*, is either privy or public. A privy verdict is when the judge hath left or adjourned the court; and the jury, being agreed, in order to be delivered from their confinement, obtain leave to give their verdict privily to the judge out of court; which privy verdict is of no force, unless afterwards affirmed by a public verdict given openly in court; wherein the jury may, if they please, vary from their privy verdict. So that the privy verdict is indeed a mere nullity; and yet it is a dangerous practice, allowing time for the parties to tamper with the jury, and therefore very seldom indulged. But the only effectual and legal verdict is the public verdict; in which they openly declare to have found the issue for the plaintiff, or for the defendant; and if for the plaintiff, they assess the damages also sustained by the plaintiff, in consequence of the injury upon which the action is brought. When the jury have delivered in their verdict, and it is recorded in court, they are then discharged.

II. TRIALS, CRIMINAL. The regular and ordinary method of proceeding in the courts of criminal jurisdiction may be distributed under 12 general heads, following each other in a progressive order: viz. 1. Arrest; 2. Commitment and bail; 3. Prosecution; 4. Process; 5. Arraignment, and its incidents; 6. Plea, and issue; 7. Trial, and conviction; 8. Clergy; 9. Judgment, and its consequences; 10. Reversal of judgment; 11. Reprieve, or pardon; 12. Execution. See ARREST, COMMITMENT, PRESENTMENT, INDICTMENT, INFORMATION, APPEAL, PROCESS upon an Indictment, ARRAIGNMENT, and PLEA; in which articles all the forms which precede the trials are described, and are here enumerated in the proper order. The several methods of trial and conviction of offenders, established by the laws of England, were formerly more numerous than at present, through the superstition of our Saxon ancestors; who, like other northern nations, were extremely addicted to divination; a character which Tacitus observes of the ancient Germans. They therefore invented a considerable number of methods of purgation or trial, to preserve innocence from the danger of false witnesses, and in consequence of a notion that God would always interpose miraculously to vindicate the guiltless; as, 1. By ORDEAL; 2. By CORNBED; 3. By BATTEL. See these articles. 4. A 4th method is that by the peers of Great Britain, in the Court of PARLIAMENT; or the Court of the LORD HIGH STEWARD, when a peer is capitally indicted; for in case of an appeal, a peer shall be tried by jury. This differs little from the trial *per patriam*, or by jury; except that the peers need not all agree in their verdict; and except also, that special verdict can be given in the trial of a peer; because the lords of parliament, or the lord high steward (if the trial be had in his court), are judges sufficiently competent of the law that may arise from the fact; but the greater number, consisting of 12 at the least, will conclude, and binds the minority. The trial by jury, or the country, *per patriam*, is also that trial by the peers of every Briton, which, as

the great bulwark of his liberties, is secured to him by the great charter; *nallus liber homo capiat, vel imprisonetur, aut exulet, aut aliquo alio modo destruat, nisi per legale iudicium parium suorum, vel per legem terre*. When therefore a prisoner on his ARRAIGNMENT has pleaded not guilty, and for his trial hath put himself upon the country, which country the jury are, the sheriff of the county must return a panel of jurors, *liberos et legales homines, de vicineto*; that is, freeholders without just exception, and of the *visne* or neighbourhood; which is interpreted to be of the country where the fact is committed. If the proceedings are before the court of king's bench, there is time allowed between the arraignment and the trial for a jury to be impanelled by writ of *venire facias* to the sheriff, as in civil causes; and the trial in case of a misdemeanor is had at *nisi prius*, unless it be of such consequence as to merit a trial at bar: which is always invariably had when the prisoner is tried for any capital offence. But, before commissioners of oyer and terminer and goal-delivery, the sheriff, by virtue of a general precept directed to him beforehand, returns to the court a panel of 48 jurors, to try all felons that may be called upon their trial at that session; and therefore it is there usual to try all felons immediately or soon after their arraignment. But it is not customary, nor agreeable to the general course of proceedings, unless by consent of parties, to try persons indicted of smaller misdemeanors at the same court in which they have pleaded not guilty, or traversed the indictment. But they usually give security to the court to appear at the next assizes or session, and then and there to try the traverse, giving notice to the prosecutor of the same. In cases of high treason, whereby corruption of blood may ensue (except treason in counterfeiting the king's coin or seals), or misprision of such treason, it is enacted by statute 7 W. III. c. 3. first, that no person shall be tried for any such treason, except an attempt to assassinate the king; unless the indictment be found within three years after the offence committed; next that the prisoner shall have a copy of the indictment (which includes the caption), but not the names of the witnesses, five days at least before the trial, that is, upon the true construction of the act, before his arraignment; for then is his time to take any exceptions thereto, by way of plea or demurrer; thirdly, that he shall also have a copy of the panel of jurors two days before his trial; and, lastly, that he shall have the same compulsive process to bring in his witnesses for him, as was usual to compel their appearance against him. And by statute 7 Ann. c. 21. (which did not take place till after the decease of the late pretender) all persons indicted for high-treason, or misprisions thereof, shall have not only a copy of the indictment, but list of all the witnesses to be produced, and of the jurors impanelled, with their professions and places of abode, delivered to him ten days before the trial, and in the presence of two witnesses, the better to prepare him to make his challenges and defence. And no person indicted for felony is, or (as the law stands) ever can be, entitled to such copies before the time of his trial. When the trial is called on, the num-

urors are to be sworn as they appear, to the number of 12, unless they are challenged by the party. Challenges may here be made, either on the part of the king, or on that of the prisoner; and either to the whole array, or to the separate polls, for the very same reasons that they may be made in civil causes. But in criminal cases, or at least in capital ones, there is, *in favorem vite*, allowed to the prisoner an arbitrary and capricious species of challenge, to a certain number of jurors, without showing any cause at all; which is called a *peremptory* challenge. The peremptory challenges of the prisoner must, however, have some reasonable boundary; otherwise he might never be tried. This reasonable boundary is settled by the common law to be the number of 35; that is, one under the number of three full juries. By reason of challenges, or the default of the jurors, a sufficient number cannot be had of the original panel, a *tales* may be awarded as in civil causes, till the number of 12 is sworn. When the jury is sworn, if it be a cause of any consequence, the indictment is usually opened, and the evidence marshalled, examined, and enforced by the counsel for the crown or prosecution. But it is a settled rule at common law, that no counsel shall be allowed a prisoner upon his trial upon the general issue, in any capital crime, unless some point of law shall arise proper to be debated; a rule which seems to be not at all of a piece with the rest of the humane treatment of prisoners by the English law. And to say the truth, the judges themselves are so sensible of this defect in our modern practice, that they seldom scruple to allow a prisoner counsel to stand by him at the bar, and to instruct him what questions to ask, or even to ask questions for him; and by the stat. 7 W. III. c. 3. persons indicted for such high-treason as works a corruption of the blood or misprision thereof except treason in counterfeiting the king's coins or seals, may make their full defence by counsel, not exceeding two, to be named by the prisoner, and assigned by the court or judge; and this indulgence, by statute 20 Geo. II. c. 30. is extended to parliamentary impeachments for high-treason, which were excepted in the former act. When the evidence on both sides is closed, the jury cannot be discharged (unless in cases of evident necessity) till they have given in their verdict. If they find the prisoner not guilty, he is then forever quit and discharged of the accusation, except he be appealed of felony within the time limited by law. And upon such his acquittal, or discharge for want of prosecution, he shall be immediately set at large without payment of any fee to be gaoler. But if the jury find him guilty, he is then said to be convicted of the crime whereof he stands indicted. See the article CONVICTION; and, subsequent thereto, the articles JUDGMENT, ATTAINDER, FORFEITURE, EXECUTION, also CLERGY, BENEFIT OF; REPRIEVE, and PARDON.

(3.) TRIAL, in Scottish law. See LAW, Part II. *SECT. V. § 2—17.*

TRIALLIS, in botany, a genus of plants, of the class *decandria*, and order of *monogynia*, ranking in the natural method, under the 38th order, *Tricocceæ*.

TRIANDRIA, (from *τρεῖς*, three, and *ἀνδρ*, a man or

husband;) the name of the third class in Linnæus's sexual system, consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flowers, which have three stamina or male organs. See BOTANY, Index.

(1.) * TRIANGLE. *n. f.* [*triangle*, Fr. *triangulum*, Lat.] A figure of three angles.—The three angles of a triangle are equal to two right ones. *Locke*.

(2.) TRIANGLE, in geometry, a figure of three sides and three angles.

(3.) TRIANGLE ISLAND, one of the BAHAMA ISLANDS. Lon. 69. 53. W. Lat. 20. 51. N.

(4.) TRIANGLE ISLAND, an island of S. America, in the mouth of the Oronoko. In 1765, the French had a factory on it.

(5.) TRIANGLES, a dangerous shoal in the E. Indian Sea, near the N. coast of the FRIGATE ISLANDS.

(1.) * TRIANGULAR. *adj.* [*triangularis*, Latin.] Having three angles.—Seem'd circular, and part triangular. *Spenser*.—Triangular spaces left void. *Roy*.

(2.) TRIANGULAR COMPASSES are such as have 3 legs or feet, by which any triangle, or 3 points, may be taken off at once.

TRIANTHEMA, in botany, HORSE PURSLANE; a genus of plants, of the class *decandria*, and order of *monogynia*, and in the natural method, ranking in the 13th order, *Jucculentæ*.

TRIARI, the most honourable order of Roman soldiers, who were excused from the ordinary watches; yet when placed opposite to the *equites*, they were obliged to have an eye over them.

TRIAUCOURT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuse; 7½ miles S. of Clermont, and 12 N. of Bar.

TRIAZEVA, a town of Russia, in the province of Upa, 38 miles NNW. of Upa.

TRIAZNUCHA, a town of Russia, in the province of Upa, on the Ural; 140 miles E. of Orenburg.

TRIBALE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Tarn, 6 miles NW. of Canne.

TRIBALLI, a people of Thrace, or Lower Mœlia. They were conquered by Philip II. of Macedon, and afterwards warred against the Romans.

TRIBAN, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz, 10 miles W. of Muglitz.

* TRIBE. *n. f.* [*tribus*, Lat. from *tres*, British; *b* and *v* being labials of promiscuous use in the ancient British words; *tres* from *tir es*, his lands, is supposed by Mr Rowland to be Celtic, and used before the Romans had any thing to do with the British government. This notion will not be much recommended, when it is told, that he derives *centurie* from *tres*, supposing it to be the same with our *centres*, importing a hundred *tres* or *tribes*.] 1. A distinct body of the people as divided by family or fortune, or any other characteristic.—All the tribes and centuries. *B. Jonf.*—The heads of the tribes. *Bacon*.—

Who now shall rear you to the sun, or rank Your tribes? *Milton*.

—To rank in tribes. *Tate*.—Happy tribe of men, Addison. 2. It is often used in contempt.—Scribbling tribe. *Roscommon*.

TRIBEL, or TREBEL, a river of Pomerania.

TRIBENSEE, a town of Austria, 3 miles N. of Tulla, and 9 S. of Sonneberg.

TRIBERG, a town of Suabia, in Brigau; allotted by the division of indemnities in 1801—2, to the late D. of Modena. (See *REVOLUTION*, § VIII.) It lies 15 miles NE. of Friburg, and 15 S. of Freudenstadt. Lon. 25. 53. E. Ferro. Lat. 18. 9. N.

TRIBERT, a town of Bohemia, in Chrudim.

TRIPESERS, an ancient town of Pomerania, on the frontiers of Mecklenburg, with a fort on the Tribel, 25 miles from Rostock. Lon. 13. 8. E. Lat. 54. 1. N.

* **TRIBLET**, or } *n. f.* A goldsmith's tool for

* **TRIBOULET**. } making rings. *Ainsworth.*

TRIBRACHYS, in ancient poetry, a foot consisting of three syllables, and these all short; *an melius.*

TRIBSEES, a town of Anterior Pomerania, 23 miles SW. of Stralsund, and 21 E. of Rostock.

TRIPSTADT. See *TRIPSTADT*.

TRIBULA. See *THRASHING*, § 3.

* **TRIBULATION**. *n. f.* [*tribulation*, Fr.] Persecution; distress; vexation; disturbance of life.—*Tribulation* being present causeth sorrow. *Hock.*—Their *tribulations* long. *Milton.*—Try'd in sharp *tribulation*. *Milton.*—In all time of our *tribulation*. *Atterbury.*

TRIBULUM, in antiquity. See *THRASHING*, § 3.

TRIBULUS, in botany, *CALTROPS*; a genus of plants in the class *decandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and, in the natural method, ranking under the 14th order, *gruinales*.

(1.) * **TRIBUNAL**. *n. f.* [*tribunal*, Latin and French. 1. The seat of a judge.—I' th' market place, on a *tribunal* silver'd. *Shak.*—Judges grave on high *tribunals* frown. *Waller.*—Standing at His *tribunal*, who is infinitely wise and just. *Grew.*—An earthly *tribunal*. *Nelson.* 2. A court of justice.—The dread *tribunal*. *Milton.*

(2.) **TRIBUNAL OF CASSATION**, a court of the French empire, appointed by the Senate, on the presentation of the emperor. (See *REVOLUTION*, N° VI. § 48.)

(3.) **TRIBUNALS**, *REVOLUTIONARY*, bloody courts instituted by Robespierre, during the revolution of France, consisting entirely of his own creatures, who, acting under his influence, cut off many of the greatest men in France. See *REVOLUTION*, N° VI. § 18.

TRIBUNATE, *n. f.* a court of the French empire, established by the last constitution. See *REVOLUTION*, N° VI. § 48.

(1.) * **TRIBUNE**. *n. f.* [*tribun*, *tribunus*, Lat.] 1. An officer of Rome chosen by the people.—These are the *tribunes* of the people. *Shak.* 2. The commander of a Roman legion.

(2.) A **TRIBUNE**, among the ancient Romans, was a magistrate chosen out of the commons, to protect them against the oppressions of the great, and to defend the liberty of the people against the attempts of the senate and consuls. The *tribunes* of the people were first established A. U. C. 259. The first design of their creation was to shelter the people from the cruelty of usurers, and to engage them to quit the Aventine mount, whither they had retired in displeasure. Their

number at first was but two; but the next year, under the consulate of A. Posthumius Aruncius and Cassius Viscellinus, there were three more added; and this number of five was afterwards increased by L. Trebonius to ten.

(3.) **TRIBUNE**, *MILITARY*, an officer in the Roman army, commander in chief over a body of forces, particularly the division of a legion; much the same with our colonel.

* **TRIBUNITIAL**. } *adj.* [*tribunitius*, Latin.]

* **TRIBUNITIUS**. } Suiting a *tribune*; relating to a *tribune*.—Let them not come in multitudes, or in a *tribunitius* manner. *Bacon.*—The kings and *tribunitial* powers. *Dryden.*

TRIBUTARI. See *STIPEND*, § 2.

(1.) * **TRIBUTARY**. *adj.* [*tributaire*, Fr. *tributarius*, Lat.] 1. Paying tribute as an acknowledgment of submission to a master.—Thenceforth this land was *tributary* made. *Spenser.*—*Tributary* brooks. *Dray.*—Some poor *tributary* lord. *Dryd.*—Swell with *tributary* urns his flood. *Pope.* 2. Subject; subordinate.—*Tributary* gods. *Milton.*—Legions of lust, and various powers of ill

Insult the master's *tributary* will. *Prior.*

3. Paid in tribute.—Nor flatt'ry tunes these *tributary* lays. *Concanen.*

(2.) * **TRIBUTARY**. *n. f.* [from *tribute*.] One who pays a stated sum in acknowledgment of subjection.—The people shall be *tributaries* unto thee, and serve thee. *Deut. xx. 11.*—The Irish lords did only promise to become *tributaries* to king Henry the second. *Davies.*

* **TRIBUTE**. *n. f.* [*tribut*, Fr. *tributum*, Latin.] Payment made in acknowledgment; subjection.—Doth not your master pay *tribute*? *Matt. xvii. 2.*

She receives

As *tribute* warmth and light. *Milton.*

To acknowledge this was all he did exact;

Small *tribute*, where the will to pay was afit. *Dryden.*

(1.) **TRICALA**, a town of European Turkey, in Macedonia, 50 miles ENE. of Saloniki.

(2.) **TRICALA**, a town of European Turkey, in Thessaly, 21 miles S. of Larissa.

(3.) **TRICALA**, a fortified town of Sicily.

TRICARICO, a town of Naples, in Basilicata, 13 miles SE. of Acerenza, and 21 SW. of Matera.

TRICASSES, an ancient people of Gaul, who inhabited the country since called Champagne.

TRICASTINI, a nation of Gallia Narbonensis. *Sil. It. 3. v. 466. Liv. 21. c. 31.*

TRICCÆ, an ancient town of Thessaly. *Liv.*

* **TRICE**. *n. f.* [I believe this word comes from *trait*, Fr. corrupted by pronunciation.] A short time; an instant; a stroke.—They waste it in a *trice*. *Spens.*

All the waiters in a *trice*

His summons did obey. *Suckling.*

He could raise scruples dark and nice,

And after solve them in a *trice*. *Hudibras.*

—Leap from the dughill in a *trice*. *Swift.*—It seems incredible at first, that all the blood in our bodies should circulate in a *trice*, in a very few minutes. *Bentley.*—A man shall make his fortune in a *trice*. *Young.*

TRICEPS. See *ANATOMY*, § 212. N° 3.

TRICETO, a town of Naples, in Calabria C'tra, 14 miles ESE. of Scalea.

TRI-

TRICHECUS, the **WALRUS**; a genus of aquatic animals, belonging to the class of *mammalia*, and order of *bruta*. This genus has no fore teeth, when full grown; has two great tusks in the upper jaw, which point downwards; has grinders on each side in both jaws, which are composed of furrowed bones. The body is oblong; the lips are doubled; and the hind legs are stretched backwards, and, as it were, bound together, forming a kind of tail fitted for swimming. There are 3 species; viz.

i. **TRICHECUS DAGON**, the *Indian walrus*, is distinguished by the tusks which extend out of the mouth from the upper jaw, being placed near each other. It inhabits the sea lying between the Cape of Good Hope and the Philippine islands. This animal, so far as can be known, resembles the morse very much; (N^o 3.) the head is, however, more lengthened and narrower; the nostrils large, and placed higher; there are two tusks in the under jaw, but those in the upper jaw are placed near each other, bent outwards, and resemble cutting teeth, only that they are near six inches long; there are 4 grinders on each side in the upper jaw, and 3 in the lower; these last are distant from the tusks, and are broader than those of the morse; the female has two teats on the breast; the chin has a bristly beard; the ears are short; the feet broad; and the legs so short, that the belly trails on the ground. When full grown, the animal is six ells in length; the male being rather larger than the female, which has breasts like a woman. It feeds on a green sea moss or weed, which grows near the shore. The figure, manners, and history, of this animal, are very imperfectly known; but we are informed that its flesh eats like beef.

2. **TRICHECUS MANATUS**, *fin-tailed walrus*, *MANATI*, or *SEA COW*, has no tusks, and no high feet. Of this species there are two varieties; viz.

i. **TRICHECUS MANATUS AUSTRALIS**, or **LAMANTIN**; inhabits the African and American seas, particularly near the mouths of rivers, which they frequently enter, seldom going far from the shore. The lamantin varies in size from 8 to 17 feet long, is 6 or 7 in circumference, and from 500 to 800 lb. weight; the skin is of a dark or black ash colour; there are 9 square-shaped grinders on each side in each jaw, which are covered with a glassy crust of enamel; the back bone has 30 joints or vertebrae; it is a thick clumsy animal, having no properly distinct neck, as the body continues almost of an equal thickness to the head. The female has two teats placed near the arm-pits. These varieties differ considerably in size. This animal is often tamed by the native inhabitants of America; and it delights in music; hence it is probably the **DELPHINUS** or **DOLPHIN** of the ancients; and some believe, that what has been written concerning mermaids and sirens must be referred to this animal. It has a voracious appetite, and is perpetually eating; it is monogamous, or lives in families of one male, one female, a half grown, and a very small young one. It copulates in the spring. When pasturing on the aquatic plants, the back is often above water; and, as the

skin is full of a species of louse, numbers of sea fowls perch on them, to pick out the insects. They bellow like bulls; their sight is very weak, but their hearing extremely acute; the fore feet are palmated and fin-shaped, almost like those of a sea turtle; and instead of hind feet, they have a horizontal tail; they have no external ears; the nostrils are distinct, and at a distance from each other; the females have two teats about the breast; the upper lip is full of sharp, prickly, rigid bristles. This animal has great affinity to the whale and seal tribes. The flesh is very good eating.

ii. **TRICHECUS MANATUS BOREALIS**, the *whale-tailed manati*, inhabits the north-west coast of America, the north-east of Asia, and the islands which lie between these two coasts. This animal very often enters the mouths of the rivers; is sometimes 23 feet long, and weighs 8000 lb.; the skin, while wet, is of a brown colour, but becomes black when dry. Instead of grinders, this species has, on each side of its jaw, a large rugged bone. The back bone has 60 vertebrae or joints; the body is very clumsy, and much deformed; its circumference at the shoulders is 12 feet, at the belly 20, and near the tail only 4; the neck is near 7 feet round, and the head only 31 inches. They live perpetually in the water, and frequent the edges of the shores; and in calm weather swim in droves near the mouths of rivers; in the time of the flood they come so near the land, that a person may stroke them with his hand; if hurt, they swim out to sea, but presently return again. The females oblige the young to swim before them, while the other old ones surround, and as it were, guard them on all sides. The affection between the male and female is very great; for if she is attacked, he will defend her to the utmost; and if she is killed, will follow her corpse to the very shore, and swim for some days near the place it has been landed at. They copulate in the spring, in the same manner as the human kind. Steller thinks they go with young about a year; it is certain that they bring but one young at a time. They are vastly voracious and gluttonous; and feed not only on the fuci that grow in the sea, but such as are flung on the edges of the shore. During their meals, they are so intent on their food, that any one may go among them and choose which he likes best. Peter Martyr gives an instance of one that lived in a lake of Hispaniola for 25 years, and was so tame as to come to the edge of the shore on being called; and would even perform the part of a ferry, and carry several people at a time on its back to the opposite shore.—Their back and their sides are generally above water. They continue in the Kamtschatkan and American seas the whole year; but in winter are very lean, so that one may count their ribs. They are taken by harpoons fastened to a strong cord; and after they are struck, it requires the united force of 30 men to draw them on shore. Sometimes, when they are transfixed, they will lay hold of the rocks with their paws, and stick so fast as to leave the skin behind before they can be forced off. When a manati is struck, its companions swim to its assistance; some will

attempt to overturn the boat by getting under it; others will press down the rope, in order to break it; and others will strike at the harpoons with their tails, with a view of getting it out, in which they often succeed. They have not any voice; but make a noise by hard breathing like the snorting of a horse. The skin is very thick, black, and full of inequalities, like the bark of oak, and so hard as scarce to be cut with an axe, and has no hair on it; beneath is a thick blubber, which tastes like oil of almonds. The flesh is coarser than beef, and will not soon putrify. The young ones taste like veal. The skin is used for shoes, and for covering the sides of boats.

3. *TRICHOCUS ROSMARIUS*, the MORSE, or SEA HORSE, has a round head; small mouth; very thick lips, covered above and below with pellucid bristles as thick as straw; small fiery eyes; two small orifices instead of ears; short neck; body thick in the middle, tapering towards the tail; skin thick, wrinkled, with short brownish hairs thinly dispersed; legs short, five toes on each, all connected by webs, and small nails on each; the hind feet are very broad; each leg loosely articulated; the hind legs generally extended on a line with the body; the tail is very short; penis long; length of the animal from nose to tail sometimes 18 feet, and 10 or 12 round in the thickest part; the teeth have been sometimes found of the weight of 30 lb. each. Teeth of this size are only found on the coast of the icy Sea, where the animals are seldom molested, and have time to attain their full growth. (See Plate CCCXXXVII.) They inhabit the coast of Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, Hudson's Bay, and the gulf of St Lawrence; and the icy Sea, as far as Cape Tschuktchi. They are gregarious; in some places appearing in herds of hundreds. They are shy, and avoid places which are much haunted by mankind; but are very fierce. If wounded in the water, they attempt to sink the boat, either by rising under it, or by striking their great teeth into the sides; they roar very loud, and will follow the boat till it gets out of sight. Numbers of them are often seen sleeping on an island of ice; if awaked, they fling themselves with great impetuosity into the sea; at which time it is dangerous to approach the ice, lest they should tumble into the boat and upset it. They do not go upon the land till the coast is clear of ice. They are killed for the sake of their oil, one walrus producing about half a tun. The knowledge of this chase is of great antiquity; Otho the Norwegian, about A. D. 890, made a report of it to king Alfred, having, as he says, made the voyage beyond Norway, for the more commodious of fishing of horse-whales, which have in their teeth bones of great price and excellency, whereof he brought some at his return unto the king. In fact, it was in the northern world, in early times, the substitute for ivory, being very white and very hard. Their skins, Otho says, were good to cut into cables. M. de Buffon says, he has seen braces for coaches made of the skin, which were both strong and elastic. They bring one, or at most two, young at a time; they feed on sea herbs and fish; also on shells, which they dig out of the sand with their teeth; they are said also to make use of their teeth to ascend rocks or

pieces of ice, fastening them to the cracks, and drawing their bodies up by that means. Besides mankind, they seem to have no other enemy than the white bear, with whom they have terrible combats; but generally come off victorious, by means of their great teeth.

TRICHILIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class *decandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural method ranking in the 23d order, *tribulate*.

TRICHOMANES, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *cryptogamia*, and order of *filices*. The parts of fructification are solitary, and terminated by a style like a bristle, on the very edge of the leaf. There are 13 species; of which two are natives of Britain, the *pixidiferum* and *tunbrigense*.

1. *TRICHOMANES PIXIDIFERUM*, the cup *trichomanes*, has sub-bipinnated leaves, the pinnae being alternate, close-lobed, and linear. It is found among stones in wet grounds in England.

2. *TRICHOMANES TUNBRIGENSE*, the *Tunbridge trichomanes*, has pinnated leaves, the pinnae being oblong, dichotomous, decurrent, and dentated. It is found in the fissures of moist rocks in Wales, and in many rocky places in Scotland.

TRICHOSANTHES, in botany, SERPENT CUCUMBER, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *monocia*, and order of *sylvestris*; and in the natural system ranging under the 34th order, *Cucurbitaceae*. There are four species; only one of which is cultivated in the British gardens.

TRICHOSANTHES ANGUINA, the *snake-gourd*, which is a native of China, an annual, and of the cucumber tribe.

TRICHOSTEMA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class *didynamia*, and in the order of *gymnospermia*; and in the natural method ranking in the 43d order, *verticillate*.

* **TRICHOTOMY**. *n. f.* [τρίχιστος.] Division into three parts.—Some disturb the order of nature by dichotomies, *trichotomies*, sevens, twelves, *Watts*.

* **TRICK**. *n. f.* [treck, Dutch.] 1. A fly fraud.—A *trick* of law. *Ral.*—Put a *trick* upon Apollo. *L'Estrange*.—He comes to me for counsel, and I shew him a *trick*. *South*.—Wise Ardelia knew his *tricks*. *Swift*. 2. A dexterous artifice.—Shall teach thee a *trick* for to double thy crop. *Tuff*.—On one nice *trick* depends the gen'ral fate. *Pope*. 3. A vicious practice.—A wild *trick* of his ancestors. *Shak*.—A stale exploded *trick*. *Dryd*.—The *tricks* of youth too roughly blame. *Dryd*. 4. A juggle; an antic; any thing done to cheat jocosely, or to divert.—To laugh a little at our Andrew's *tricks*. *Prior*. 5. An unexpected effect.—Some *trick* not worth an egg. *Shak*. 6. A practice; a manner; a habit. Not in use.—I spoke it but according to the *trick*. *Shak*.—The *trick* of that voice I well remember. *Shak*.—The *trick* of 's frown, his forehead. *Shak*. 7. A number of cards laid regularly up in play; as, a *trick* of cards.

(1.) * **To TRICK**. *v. a.* [from the noun; *tricker*, Fr.] 1. To cheat; to impose on, to defraud.—It is impossible that the whole world should thus *trick* themselves into belief. *Stephens*. 2. To dress; to decorate; to adorn; properly to knot. *Tricca*, in low Latin, signifies a *knot* of hair; *treccia*, Italian.

an: hence *trace*. *Matt. Westmonasteriensis* says of *Godiva* of Coventry, that she rode *tricas capitis & crines dissolvens*.] And *trick* them up in knotted curls anew. *Drayton*.—He had *tricked* up a boy in the likeness of Edward Plantagenet. *Bacon*.—

Horridly *trickt*

With blood of fathers.

Shak.

—Most richly *tricked*. *Wotton*.—Their heads are *trickt* with tassels and flowers. *Sandys*.—

So sinks the Day-star in the ocean bed,

And yet anon repairs his drooping head,

And *tricks* his beams.

Milton.

—Not *trick'd* and frounc'd as she was wont. *Milt.*

—*Trickt* himself up with all the gay feathers.

L'Estr.—Love *tricks* and dresses up the gaudy

dream. *Dryd.*—*Tricking* up their children in fine

cloaths. *Locke*. 3. To perform with a light touch;

though it may here mean to *dress*.—

Come, the colours and the ground prepare:

Dip in the rainbow, *trick* her off in air,

Chuse a firm cloud before it fall, and in it

Catch e'er she change the *Cynthia* of this minute.

Pope.

(1.) * *To TRICK. v. n.* To live by fraud.—Thus they jog on, still *tricking*, never thriving. *Dryden*.

* *TRICKER. n. f.* [This is often written *trigger*; I know not which is right.] The catch which being pulled disengages the cock of the gun, that it may give fire.—Pulling the *tricker*, the force of the spring was not sensibly abated by the absence of the air. *Boyle*.—The *tricker* of his pistol drew. *Hudibras*.

* *TRICKING. n. f.* [from *trick*.] Dress; ornament.—Get us properties and *tricking* for our fairs. *Shak.*

* *TRICKISH. adj.* [from *trick*.] Knavishly artful; fraudulently cunning; mischievously subtle.—All he says is in a loose, slippery, and *trickish* way of reasoning. *Pope*.

* *To TRICKLE. v. n.* [Of this word I find no etymology that seems well authorized or probable.] To fall in drops; to rill in a slender stream.—

The red blood *trickling*, stain'd the way. *Spens.*

Faith beside there *trickled* softly down

A gentle stream.

Spenser.

—Some noises help sleep; as, the *trickling* of water. *Bac.*—He wakened by the *trickling* of his blood. *Wise-man*.—And from the wound appear'd the *trickling* blood. *Dryden*.—

And ever and anon a silent tear

Stole down, and *trickled* from his hoary beard.

Dryden.

—The emblems of honour mentioned, *trickled* away under the first impressions of the heat. *Addis.*

—How fluent nonsense *trickles* from his tongue!

Pope.—The balm of dulness *trickling* in their ear.

Pope.

* *TRICKSY. adj.* [from *trick*.] Pretty. This is a word of endearment. Obsolete.—

I do know

A many fools that stand in better place,

Garnish'd like him, that for a *tricksy* work

Defy the matter.

Shak.

—My *tricksy* spirit!

Shak.

TRICKUT, one of the *NICOBAR ISLES*.

TRICOCCE, [*tricus*, three, and *coceus*, a grain,]

the name of the 38th order in *Linnæus's* *Eragmments* of a natural method, consisting of plants with a single three-cornered capsule, having three cells, or internal divisions, each containing a single seed. See *BOTANY, Index*.

TRICOLORÉ, a town of *Hindoostan*, in the *Carnatic*, 38 miles N. of *Pondicherry*, and 56 S. of *Arcot*.

TRICORII, an ancient nation of *Gaul*, who inhabited the country since called *DAUPHINE*. *Liv.* 21. c. 31.

* *TRICORPORAL. adj.* [*tricorpus*, Lat.] Having three bodies.

TRICOT, a town of *France*, in the dep. of the *Oise*, 13½ miles NW. of *Champagne*.

TRICUTO, a river of *Naples*, in *Calabria Citra*, which runs into the sea, 10 miles E. of *Rossano*.

TRIDAX, in botany, *Trailing Star wort* of *Vera Cruz*, a genus of plants in the class of *Syn-genesia*, and order of *Polygamia superflua*; and, according to the natural method, ranking in the 32d order, *Papilionaceæ*. It is a native of *Vera Cruz*, and has flowers in the form of butterflies.

* *TRIDE. adj.* [among hunters; *tride*, French.] Short and ready. *Bailey*.

(1.) * *TRIDENT. n. f.* [*trident*, Fr. *tridens*, Lat.] A three forked sceptre of *Neptune*.—He would not flatter *Neptune* for his *trident*. *Shak.*—Or in his skull thy barbed *trident* stick? *Sandys*.—And wield their little *tridents*. *Milton*.—Several find a mystery in every tooth of *Neptune's trident*. *Addison*.

(1.) * *TRIDENT. adj.* Having three teeth.

TRIDENTUM, an ancient town of *Gallia Cisalpinga*, now called *Trent*. See *TRENT*, N° 2 & 3.

* *TRIDING. n. f.* [*trithinga*, Saxon; rather *trithing*.] The third part of a county or shire. This division is only used in *Yorkshire*, where it is corrupted into *riding*.

* *TRIDUAN. adj.* [from *triduum*, Lat.] 1. Lasting three days. 2. Happening every third day.

TRIE, a town of *France*, in the dep. of the *Upper Pyrenees*, 13½ miles ENE. of *Tarbes*.

TRIEL, a town of *France*, in the dep. of the *Seine* and *Oise*, 6 miles N. of *St Germain*.

TRIENACH, a bay on the W. coast of *Donegal*, *Ireland*.

(1.) * *TRIENNIAL. adj.* [*triennis*, Lat. *triennal*, Fr.] 1. Lasting three years.—I passed the bill for *triennial* parliaments. *K. Charles*.—Richard the Third's *triennial* reign. *Howel*. 2. Happening every third year.

(2.) *TRIENNIAL PARLIAMENTS* were established at the revolution, in 1688; but were abolished, and *Septennial Parliaments* enacted, upon the extinction of the rebellion in 1715.

TRIENS, in antiquity, a copper money of the value of one third of an *as*, which on one side bore a *Janus's* head, and on the other a water-rat.

TRIENTALIS, *CHICKWEED WINTER-GREEN*, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *heptandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 20th order, *Rotaceæ*. The calyx is *heptaphyllous*; the corolla is equal and plane, and is divided into seven segments; the berry is *unilocular* and dry. There is only one species; viz.

Tri.

TRIENTALIS EUROPEA, which is indigenous, and the only genus of heptandria that is so. The stalk is single, five or six inches high, terminated with 5, 6, or 7 oval pointed leaves; from the centre of which arise on long footstalks commonly two white starry flowers, each generally consisting of 7 oval and equal petals, succeeded by a globular dry berry, covered with a thin white rind, having one cell, and containing several angular seeds.

* **TRIER**. *n. f.* [from *try*.] 1. One who tries experimentally.—The ingenious *triers* of the German experiments. *Boyle*. 2. One who examines judicially.—Courts of justice are the *triers* of acts of parliament. *Hale*.—There should be certain *triers* or examiners. *SpeB*. 3. Test; one who brings to the test.—Extremity was the *trier* of spirits. *Shak*.

TRIERS, or **TREVES**. See **SARRE**, N° 3; and **TREVES**.

TRIERTY, a lake of Ireland, in Donegal.

TRIESDORF, a town of Franconia, in Anspach, 5 miles SSE. of Anspach.

TRIESTE, a small, but strong and ancient seaport of Istria, on the gulph of Venice, with a bishop's see. It is beautifully situated on the side of a hill, about which the vineyards form a semicircle. The streets are narrow; but there is a large square, where they keep the annual fair. The harbour is spacious, but not good, being open to the W. and SW. winds. The inhabitants have a good trade in salt, oil, almonds, iron, &c. brought from Laubach; and they make good wines. The cathedral, and the late Jesuits church, are the two best buildings. This town was taken by the French in March 1797. It is 3 miles N. of Capo d'Istria, and 80 NE. of Venice. Lon. 14. 4. E. Lat. 45. 56. N.

TRISTY MOUNTAINS, mountains of Ireland, in Mayo, 21 miles NW. of Mayo.

* **To TRIFALLOW**. *v. a.* [*tres*, Latin, and *fealga*, Saxon, a harrow.] To plow land the third time before sowing. *Bailey*.—*Trifallowing*, or last plowing. *Mortimer*.

TRIFEL, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Rhine and Moselle, and ci-devant duchy of Deux Ponts. It has an ancient castle, in which Richard I. king of England, was kept prisoner, on his return from the Holy Land. It is one mile SE. of Anweiler.

* **TRIFID**. *adj.* [among botanists.] Cut or divided into three parts. *Bailey*.

* **TRIFISTULARY**. *adj.* [*tres* and *ffistula*, Lat.] Having three pipes. *Triffistulary* bill or crany. *Brown*.

* **TRIFLE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A thing of no moment.—

Win us with honest trifles, to betray us

In deep consequences. *Shak*.

—With such poor trifles playing. *Drayton*.—Our desires pursuing trifles. *Locke*.—But scorns on trifles to bestow her care. *Young*.—Think nought a trifle, though it small appear. *Young*.—Your care to trifles give. *Young*.

(1.) * **To TRIFLE**. *v. n.* [*trifelen*, Dutch.] 1. To act or talk without weight or dignity; to act with levity; to talk with folly.—They trifle and bear the air about nothing. *Hooker*. 2. To mock;

to play the fool.—I thus would play and trifle with your reverence. *Shak*. 3. To indulge light amusement; as, he trifled all his time.—A levity of mind, a trifling spirit. *Lasu*. 4. To be of no importance.—Trifling debt. *Spens*.

(2.) * **To TRIFLE**. *v. a.* To make of no importance. Not in use.—This fore-night hath trifled former knowings. *Shak*.

* **TRIFLER**. *n. f.* [*triflaar*, Dutch.] One who acts with levity; one that talks with folly.—A man cannot tell whether Apelles or Albert Durer were the more triflers. *Bacon*.—Shall I be baffled by this trifler, love? *Glanville*.—Vain triflers of the age. *Watts*.—Triflers not even in trifles can excel. *Young*.

* **TRIFLING**. *adj.* [from *trifle*.] Wanting worth; unimportant; wanting weight.—Trifling and contemptible. *Rogers*.

* **TRIFLINGLY**. *adv.* [from *trifling*.] Without weight; without dignity; without importance.—Triflingly busy. *Locke*.

* **TRIFOLIATE**. *adj.* [*tres* and *folium*, Lat.] Having three leaves.—Trifoliate cytisus. *Harte*.

TRIFOLINUS, a mountain of Italy, in Campania, famous for its vines. *Plin*. 14. c. 7.

TRIFOLIUM, **TREFOIL**, or **CLOVER**, in botany. A genus of plants belonging to the class of *diadelphia*, and order of *decandria*, and in the natural system ranging under the 32d order, *Papilionaceae*. The flowers are generally in round heads; the pod is scarcely longer than the calyx, univalve, not opening, deciduous. The leaves are 3 together. According to Murray's edition of *Linnaeus*, there are 46 species; of which 17 are natives of Britain. See *Lightfoot's Flora Scotica*, *Berkenhout's Synopsis*, and *Withering's Botanical Arrangements*. The most remarkable are these:

1. **TRIFOLIUM ALPESTRE**, long-leaved purple trefoil, or mountain clover, is thus characterized by Mr *Afzelius*. The spikes are dense; the corollas somewhat equal; the stipulas are bristly and divergent; the leaflets lanceolated; the stalks stiff, straight, and very simple. It grows in dry, mountainous, woody places, in Hungary, Austria, and Bohemia, &c. but is not said by Mr *Afzelius* to be a native of Britain.

2. **TRIFOLIUM MEDIUM**, according to Mr *Afzelius*, has been confounded with the species *pratense* and *alpestre*; but it is to be distinguished from them by having loose spikes, corollas somewhat equal, stipulas subulate and connivent, and stalks flexuous and branched. It is found in dry elevated situations, especially among shrubs, or in woods where the soil is chalky or clay, in England, Scotland, Sweden, Denmark, &c.

3. **TRIFOLIUM MELILOTI OFFICINALIS**, the *MELILOT*, has naked racemous pods, dispermous, wrinkly, and acute, with an erect stalk. It grows in corn-fields and by the way sides, but not common. The stalk is erect, firm, striated, branched, and two or three feet high; the leaves ternate, smooth, obtusely oval, and serrated; the flowers are small, yellow, pendulous, and grow in long close spikes at the tops of the branches; the pod is very short, turgid, transversely wrinkled, pendulous, and contains either one or two seeds. The plant has a very peculiar strong scent, and disagreeable bitter, acrid taste, but such, however,

ever, as is not disagreeable to cattle. The flowers are sweet-scented. It has generally been esteemed emollient and digestive, and been used in fomentations and cataplasms, particularly in the plaster employed in dressing blisters; but is now laid aside, as its quality is found to be rather acrid and irritating than emollient or resolvent. It communicates a most loathsome flavour to wheat and other grains, so as to render it unfit for making bread.

4. *TRIFOLIUM PRATENSE*, purple or red clover, is distinguished by dense spikes, unequal corollas, by bearded stipulas, ascending stalks, and by the calyx having four equal teeth. This is the botanical description of this species given by Mr Afzelius, who, in the *Linnean Transf.* vol. 1. has been at much pains to remove three species of the trifolium from the confusion in which they have been long involved; namely, the pratense, medium, and alpestre. The red clover is common in meadows and pastures, and is the species which is generally cultivated as food for cattle. It abounds in every part of Europe, in North America, and even in Siberia. It delights most in rich, moist, and sunny places; yet flourishes in dry, barren, and shady places. For an account of the mode of cultivating it, see *RURAL ECONOMY*.

5. *TRIFOLIUM REPENS*, white creeping trefoil, or Dutch clover, has a creeping stalk, its flower gathered into an umbellar head, and its pods tetraspermous. It is very common in fields and pastures. It is well known to be excellent fodder for cattle; and the leaves are a good rustic hygrometer, as they are always relaxed and flaccid in dry weather, but erect in moist or rainy.

* *TRIFORM*. *adj.* [*triformis*, Lat.] Having a triple shape.—

The moon—Her countenance *triform*
Hence fills, and empties, to enlighten th' earth.

Milton.

TRIFURCATED, *adj.* [from *tres*, and *furca*, a fork.] having three prongs. *Ash*.

TRIGA, in antiquity, a kind of car or chariot drawn by three horses; whence the name.

TRIGAMIST. *n. f.* One who has 3 wives. *Ash*.

TRIGAMY. *n. f.* [from *treis*, three, and *γᾰμος*, marriage.] The state of being married thrice, or of having 3 husbands or wives at once. *Ash*.

TRIGEMINOUS. *adj.* [from *tres*, three, and *geminus*, Lat. to double.] Threefold. *Ash*.

* *TRIGGER*. *n. f.* [derived by *Junius* from *trigue*, Fr. from *intricare*, Lat.] See *TRICKER*.

1. A catch to hold the wheel on steep ground. 2. The catch that being pulled looses the cock of the gun.—The *trigger* of the gun. *Locke*.

* *TRIGINTALS*. *n. f.* [from *triginta*, Latin, thirty.] Trentals or trigintals were 30 masses instituted by Saint Gregory. *Ayliffe*.

TRIGLA, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of thoracici. The head is loricated with rough lines, and there are seven rays in the membranes of the gills. There are 11 species; of which the principal are these:

1. *TRIGLA CUCULUS*; the red Gurnard:

2. *TRIGLA GURNARDUS*, or grey Gurnard:

3. *TRIGLA HIRUNDO*, the sapphire Gurnard:

4. *TRIGLA LYRA*, or the Piper.

TRIGLOCHIN, in botany, a genus of plants

belonging to the class of *hexandria*, and order of *trigynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 5th order, *Triplatoideæ*. The calyx is triphyllous; the petals are 3; there is no style; the capsule opens at the base. There are 3 species; of which 2 are British, viz.

1. *TRIGLOCHIN MARITIMUM*, or sea-spiked grass, has ovate sexlocular capsules; the stalk is short; the spike long, and flowers purplish. It is frequent on the sea-coasts.

2. *TRIGLOCHIN PALUSTRE*, arrow-headed grass, has an oblong trilocular capsule. The stalk is simple, eight or ten inches high; the leaves long and narrow; the flowers are greenish, and grow at the end of a long spike.—It is frequent in moist ground. Linnaeus says that cattle eat these two species with avidity.

* *TRIGLYPH*. *n. f.* [In architecture.] A member of the frieze of the Dorick order set directly over every pillar, and in certain spaces in the intercolumniations. *Harris*.—The Dorick order has now and then a sober garnishment of lions heads in the cornice, and of *triglyphs* and metopes always in the frieze. *Wotton*.

TRIGNO, a river of Naples, which runs into the Adriatic, 12 miles NW. of Termola.

(1.) * *TRIGON*. *n. f.* [*τρίγωνον*.] A triangle. A term in astrology.—The ordinary height of a man ninety-six digits, the ancient Egyptians estimated to be equal to that mystical cubit among them styled passus Ibdia, or the *trigon* that the Ibis makes at every step, consisting of three latera, each thirty-two digits. *Hale*.

(2.) *TRIGON*, *DIALLING*. See *DIALLING*.

* *TRIGONAL*. *adj.* [from *trigon*.] Triangular; having three corners.—A spar of yellow hue shot into numerous *trigonal* pointed shoots of various sizes, found growing to one side of a perpendicular fissure of a stratum of free-stone. *Woodw*.

TRIGONALIS. See *FOLLIS*, and *PILA*, N° 1.

TRIGONELLA, *FENUGREEK*, in botany: A genus of plants belonging to the class of *diadelphia*, and order of *decandria*; and in the natural system arranged under the 3d order, *Papilionaceæ*. The vexillum and alææ are nearly equal and patent, resembling a tripetalous corolla. There are 12 species; of which the most remarkable is

TRIGONELLA FENUM GRÆCUM, or fenugreek, a native of Montpellier in France. *FENUGREEK* is an annual plant, which rises with a hollow, branching, herbaceous stalk, a foot and a half long, garnished with trifoliate leaves, placed alternately, whose lobes are oblong, oval, indented on their edges, and have broad furrowed foot-stalks. Fenugreek seeds have a strong disagreeable smell, and an unctuous farinaceous taste, accompanied with a slight bitterness. The principal use of these seeds is in cataplasms and fomentations, for softening, maturing, and discussing tumors; and in emollient and carminative glysters.

* *TRIGONOMETRICAL*. *adj.* [from *trigono-metry*.] Pertaining to trigonometry.

TRIGONOMETRICALLY. *adv.* [from *trigonometrical*.] According to the rules of Trigonometry. *Ash*.

* *TRIGONOMETRY*.

DEFINITIONS and DIVISIONS of the SCIENCE.

TRIGONOMETRY. [*τρίγωνον* and *μέτρον*.] *Trigonometry* is the art of measuring triangles, or of calculating the sides of any triangle sought, and this is plain or spherical. *Harris*.—On a discovery of Pythagoras, all *trigonometry* is founded. *Guardian*.

TRIGONOMETRY is more particularly defined the art of measuring the sides and angles of TRIANGLES, either plane or spherical, whence it is accordingly divided into PLANE TRIGONOMETRY, and SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

By *Trigonometry* we come to know the magnitude of the earth, the planets and stars, their distances, motions, eclipses, and almost all other useful arts and sciences. Accordingly we find this art has been cultivated from the earliest ages of mathematical knowledge.

Trigonometry, or the resolution of triangles, is founded on the mutual proportions which subsist between the sides and angles of triangles; which proportions are known by finding the relations between the radius of a circle and certain other lines drawn in and about the circle, called *cords*, *lines*, *tangents*, and *secants*. The ancients, *Meneleus*, *Hipparchus*, *Ptolemy*, &c. performed their *trigonometry* by means of the cords. As to the *lines*, and the common theorems relating to them, they were introduced into *trigonometry* by the Moors or Arabians, from whom this art passed into Europe, with several other branches of science. The Europeans have introduced, since the 15th century, the tangents and secants, with the theorems relating to them.

The proportion of the *lines*, *tangents*, &c. to their radius, is sometimes expressed in common or natural numbers, which constitute what we call the *tables of natural lines, tangents, and secants*. Sometimes it is expressed in logarithms of the said natural *lines, tangents, &c.*; and these constitute the table of *artificial lines, &c.* Lastly, sometimes the proportion is not expressed in numbers; but the several *lines, tangents, &c.* are actually laid down upon lines of scales; whence the *line of sines, of tangents, &c.*

In *trigonometry*, as angles are measured by arcs of a circle described about the angular point, so the whole circumference of the circle is divided into a great number of parts; as 360 degrees, and each degree into 60 minutes, and each minute into 60 seconds, &c.; and then any angle is said to consist of so many degrees, minutes, and seconds, as are contained in the arc that measures the angle, or that is intercepted between the legs or sides of the angle. Now the *sine*, *tangent*, and *secant*, &c. of every degree and minute, &c. of a quadrant, are calculated to the radius 1, and ranged in tables for use; as also the logarithms of the same; forming the triangular canon. And these numbers, so arranged in tables, form every species of right-angled triangles; so that no such triangle can be proposed, but one similar to it may be there found, by comparison with which the proposed one may be computed by analogy or proportion.

SECT. I. Of PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

THERE are usually three methods of resolving triangles, or the cases of *trigonometry*; viz. geometrical construction, arithmetical computation, and instrumental operation. In the 1st method, the triangle in question is constructed by drawing and laying down the several parts of their magnitudes given, viz. the sides from a scale of equal parts, and the angles from a scale of cords or other instrument; then the unknown parts are measured by the same scales, and so they become known.

In the 2d method, having stated the terms of the proportion according to rule, which terms consist partly of the numbers of the given sides, and partly of the *lines, &c.* of angles taken from the tables, the proportion is then resolved like all other proportions, in which a 4th term is to be found from three given terms, by multiplying the 2d and 3d together, and dividing the product by the 1st. Or, in working with the logarithms, adding the logarithm of the 2d and 3d terms together, and from the sum subtracting the logarithm of the 1st term; then the number answering to the remainder is the 4th term sought.

To work a case instrumentally, as suppose by the logarithm lines on one side of the two feet scales: Extend the compasses from the 1st term to the 2d or 3d, which happens to be of the same kind with it; then that extent will reach from the other term to the 4th. In this operation, for the sides of triangles, is used the line of numbers (marked Num.); and for the angles, the line of sines or tangents (marked sin. and tan.) according as the proportion respects sines or tangents. See SECTOR.

In every case of plane triangles there must be three parts given, one at least of which must be a side. And then the different circumstances, as to the three parts that may be given, admit of three cases or varieties only; viz. 1st, When two of the three parts given are a side and its opposite angle. 2d, When there are given two sides and their contained angle. 3d, And, thirdly, when the three sides are given.

To each of these cases there is a particular rule or proportion adapted for resolving it by.

1st, *The Rule for the 1st Case*, or that in which, of the three parts that are given, an angle and its opposite side are two of them, is this, viz. that the sides are proportional to the sines of their opposite angles, that is, As one side given: To the sine of its opposite angle :: So is another side given: To the sine of its opposite angle.—Or, As the sine of an angle given: To its opposite side :: So is the sine of another angle given: To its opposite side.—So that, to find an angle, we must begin the proportion with a given side that is opposite to a given angle; and to find a side, we must begin with an angle opposite to a given side.

Example. Suppose in the triangle BDC (Fig. 1. Plate CCCXXXVII.) there be given the side BC = 106, DB = 65, and the angle BCD $31^{\circ} 49'$ given; to find the angle BDC obtuse and the side CD.

I. Geo.

I. GEOMETRICALLY *by CONSTRUCTION.*

Draw the line BC equal to 106, at C make an angle of $31^{\circ} 49'$ by drawing CD, take 65 in your compasses, and with one foot in B lay the other upon the line CD in D; draw the line BD, and it is done; for the angle D will be $120^{\circ} 43'$, the angle B $27^{\circ} 28'$, and the side DC 569 as was required.

II. ARITHMETICALLY *by LOGARITHMS.*

As the side BD 65 - - - log. 1'81291
Is to sine angle C $31^{\circ} 49'$ - - - 9'72198
So is the side BC 106 - - - - - 2'02531

11'74749

1'81291

To sine angle D $120^{\circ} 43'$ - - - 9'93438

To find DC.

As sine ang. C $31^{\circ} 49'$ 9'72198 Sup. $59^{\circ} 17'$ of ang. D.

Is to the side BD 65 1'81291

So is sine ang. B $27^{\circ} 28'$ 9'66392

11'47683

9'72198

To the side DC $56^{\circ} 88'$ 1'75485

180°0

152°32 sum. subt.

27°28 angle B.

Here we may observe, that if the given angle be obtuse, the angle sought will be acute; but when the given angle is acute, and opposite to a lesser given side, then the required angle is doubtful, whether acute or obtuse; it ought therefore to be determined before the operation. For it is plain the above proportion produces $59^{\circ} 17'$ for the required angle; but as it is obtuse, its supplement to 180 degrees must be taken, viz. $120^{\circ} 43'$.

III. *By GUNTER.*

1st, "The extent from 65 to 106 on the line of numbers will reach from $31^{\circ} 49'$ to $59^{\circ} 17'$ on the line of lines."

2dly, "The extent from $31^{\circ} 49'$ to $27^{\circ} 28'$ on the line of lines will reach from 65 to 56.88 on the line of numbers."

CASE II. When there are given two sides and their contained angle, to find the rest, the rule is this: As the sum of the two given sides: Is to the difference of the sides: : So is the tangent of half the sum of the two opposite angles or cotangent of half the given angle: To tang. of half the diff. of those angles. Then the half diff. added to the half sum, gives the greater of the two unknown angles; and subtracted leaves the less of the two angles.

Hence, the angles being now all known, the remaining 3d side will be found by the former case.

Example. The side BC=109, BD=76 (fig. 2.) and the angle CBD $101^{\circ} 30'$ required, to find the angle BDC or BCD, and the side CD.

I. GEOMETRICALLY *by CONSTRUCTION.*

Draw the line BC 109, and BD, so as to make an angle with BC of $101^{\circ} 30'$, and make BD equal to 76; join BC and BD with a right line, and it is done; for the angle D being measured by the

cord of 60° , will be $47^{\circ} 32'$, angle C $30^{\circ} 58'$, and the side DC 144.8, as was required.

II. ARITHMETICALLY *by LOGARITHMS.*

Side BC 109 - - - 109 - - - $180^{\circ} 0'$
BD 76 - - - 76 - - - $101^{\circ} 30'$

Their sum 185 - 33 their diff. $78^{\circ} 30'$ { sum of
theang.
D and C.

Sum $39^{\circ} 15'$ then

To find the angles D and C.

As the sum of the sides BC and BD=185 2'26717

Is to their difference - - - 33 1'51852

So is tang. of $\frac{1}{2}$ the sum of the }
angles C and D $39^{\circ} 15'$ } 9'91224

11'43075

2'26717

To the tang. of $\frac{1}{2}$ the diff. of the }
angles C and D $8^{\circ} 17'$ } 9'16358

To half the sum of the angles D and C $39^{\circ} 15'$
And half the diff. of the angles C and D $8^{\circ} 17'$

Gives the greater angle D

47 32

Subtracted, gives the lesser angle C

30 38

To find DC.

As sine angle D $47^{\circ} 32'$ - - - 9'86786

Is to the side BC 109 - - - 2'03743

So is sine angle B $101^{\circ} 30'$ - - - 9'99119

12'02862

9'86786

To the side DC required 144.8 - 2'16076

III. *By GUNTER.*

1st, "The extent from 185 to 33 on the line of numbers will reach from $39^{\circ} 15'$ to $8^{\circ} 17'$ on the line of tangents. 2dly, The extent from angle D $47^{\circ} 32'$ to $78^{\circ} 30'$ (the supplement of angle B) on the line of lines, will reach from the side BC 109 to 144.8, the side DC required, on the line of numbers."

CASE III. Is when the three sides are given, to find the three angles; and the method of resolving this case is, to let a perpendicular fall from the greatest angle upon the opposite side or base, dividing it into two segments, and the whole triangle into two smaller right angled triangles: then it will be, As the base or sum of the two segments: Is to the sum of the other two sides: : So is the difference of those sides: To the difference of the segments of the base. Then half this difference of the two segments added to the half sum, or half the base, gives the greater segment, and subtracted gives the less. Hence, in each of the two right-angled triangles, there are given the hypothenuse, and the base, besides the right angle, to find the other angles by the first case.

Example. The sides BC (fig. 3.)=105, BD=85, and CD=50, given to find the angles BDC, BCD, or CBD.

I. GEOMETRICALLY *by CONSTRUCTION.*

Draw the line BC equal to 105, take CD 50 in your compasses, and with one foot in C describe an arch; then take BD 85 in your compasses, and

P p p

with

with one foot in B cut the former arch in D, join BD and DC, and it is done; for the angle B, being measured, will be found $18^{\circ} 4'$, angle C $53^{\circ} 7'$, which being added together is $81^{\circ} 11'$, their sum subtracted from 180 , leaves angle D $98^{\circ} 49'$ as was required.

II. ARITHMETICALLY by LOGARITHMS.

The two shortest sides are BD ($=85$) and CD ($=50$), the sum of which is 135 , and their difference 35 . The segments of the base BC are found in this manner:

As the side BC $= 105$ log. 2.02119
 Is to the sum of the sides { $= 135$ 2.13033
 BD and DC }
 So is the difference $= 35$ 1.54407
 To the diff. of the seg. of BC $= 45$ 1.65321
 Thus the sum and difference of the segments of the base BC being known, we have only to add half this sum $= 52\frac{1}{2}$ to half the difference $= 22\frac{1}{2}$, and we shall obtain the greater segment, which is $= 75$; which subtracted from 105 , gives 30 = the smaller segment. Then

To find the angle BDA.

As the hypotenuse BD $= 85$ log. 1.92943
 Is to radius $= 10.00000$
 So is the greater segment $= 75$ 1.87566
 To the sum of the angle BDA $=$
 The angle BDA therefore is equal to $61^{\circ} 56'$
 Let us now find the ang. ADC, which is done thus:
 As the hypotenuse DC $= 50$ log. 1.69897
 Is to radius $= 10.00000$
 So is the smaller segment $= 30$ 1.47712
 To the sine of ADC $= 9.77815$
 The angle ADC therefore is equal to $36^{\circ} 53'$, and the whole angle BDC $= 98^{\circ} 49'$.

To find the angle at B, we have only to subtract the angle BDA ($= 61^{\circ} 56'$) from 90° , and rem. $28^{\circ} 4'$ is the angle sought. The angle at C is equal to $53^{\circ} 7'$.

III. By GUNTER.

1st. 'The extent from 105 to 135 , will reach from 35 to 45 on the line of numbers.' *2dly*, 'The extent from 85 to 75 , on the line of numbers, will reach from radius to $61^{\circ} 56'$, the angle BDA on the line of sines.' *3dly*, 'The extent from 50 to 30 on the line of numbers, will reach from radius to angle ADC $36^{\circ} 53'$ on the line of sines.'

The foregoing three cases include all the varieties of plane triangles that can happen, both of right and oblique angled triangles. But besides these, there are some other theorems that are useful upon many occasions, or suited to some particular forms of triangles, which are often more expeditious in use than the foregoing general ones; one of which, for right-angled triangles, as the case for which it serves so often occurs, may be here inserted, and is as follows.

CASE IV. When, in a right-angled triangle, there are given the angles and one leg, to find the other leg, or the hypotenuse. Then it will, As radius : To given leg AB :: So tang. adjacent the angle A : To the opposite leg BC, and :: So sec. of the same angle A : To hypoth. AC :

Example. In the triangle ABC (fig. 4.) right angled at B,

Given the leg AB $= 162$
 and the angle A $= 53^{\circ} 7' 48''$
 To find BC and AC.

I. GEOMETRICALLY.—Draw the leg AB $= 162$. Erect the indefinite perpendicular BC : Make the angle A $= 53^{\circ} 7'$, and the side AC will cut BC in C, and form the triangle ABC. Then, by measuring, there will be found AC $= 270$, and BC $= 216$.

III. ARITHMETICALLY.

As radius	$= 10$	log. 10.0000000
To AB	$= 162$	2.2095130
So tang. A	$= 53^{\circ} 7' 48''$	10.1249372
To BC	$= 216$	2.3344523
So sec. A	$= 53^{\circ} 7' 48''$	10.2278477
To AO	$= 270$	2.4313627

III. By GUNTER.

Extend the compasses from 45° at the end of the tangents (the radius) to the tangent of $53^{\circ} 7'$; then that extent will reach, on the line of numbers, from 162 to 216 , for BC. Again, extend the compasses from $36^{\circ} 52'$ to 90 on the sines; then that extent will reach, on the line of numbers, from 162 to 270 for AC.

Note. Another method, by making every side radius, is often added by the authors on trigonometry, which is thus: The given right angled triangle being ABC; make first the hypotenuse AC radius, that is, with the extent of AC as a radius, and each of the centres A and C, describe arcs CD and AE (fig. 5.); then it is evident that each leg will represent the sine of its opposite angle, viz. the leg BC the sine of the arc CD or of the angle A, and the leg AB the sine of the arc AE or of the angle C. Again, making either leg radius, the other leg will represent the tangent of its opposite angle, and the hypotenuse the secant of the same angle; thus, with radius AB and centre A describing the arc BF, BC, represents the tangent of that arc, or of the angle A, and the hypotenuse AC the secant of the same; or with the radius BC and centre C describing the arc BG, the other leg AB is the tangent of that arc BG or of the angle C, and the hypotenuse CA the secant of the same.

And then the general rule for all these cases is this, viz. that the sides bear to each other the same proportions as the parts or things which they represent. And this is called making every side radius.

SECT. II. Of SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY is the art whereby, from three given parts of a spherical triangle, we discover the rest; and, like plain trigonometry, is either right-angled or oblique angled. Here it would be of great service to the learner to study PROJECTION OF THE SPHERE before entering upon spherical trigonometry. The figures to any example should be projected stereographically different ways; viz. with the known parts at the centre, circumference, or any other point of the primitive, and the unknown parts measured in all these cases. The coincidence of the solution by projection with that by calculation affords such satisfaction, that the learner becomes interested in the result, and consequently makes greater progress.

grefs. (See STEREOGRAPHIC PROJECTION.) Before we give the analogies for the solution of the several cases we premise the following theorems:

THEOREM I. In all right-angled spherical triangles, the sign of the hypotenuse : radius :: line of a leg : sine of its opposite angle. And the sine of a leg : radius :: tangent of the other leg : tangent of its opposite angle.

Demonstration. Let EDAFG (*ibid.* fig. 6. pl. 337.) represent the eighth part of a sphere, where the quadrantal planes EDFG, EDBC, are both perpendicular to the quadrantal plane ADFB; and the quadrantal plane ADGC is perpendicular to the plane EDFG; and the spherical triangle ABC is right-angled at B, where CA is the hypotenuse, and BA, BC, are the legs.

To the arches GF, CB, draw the tangents HF, OB, and the lines GM, CI, on the radii DF, DB; also draw BL the sine of the arch AB, and CK the sine of AC; and then join IK and OL. Now HF, OB, GM, CI, are all perpendicular to the plane ADFB. And HD, GK, OL, lie all in the same plane ADGC. Also FD, IK, BL, lie all in the same plane ADGC. Therefore the right-angled triangles HFD, CIK, ODL, having the equal angles HDF, CKI, OLB, are similar. And CK : DG :: CI : GM; that is, as the sine of the hypotenuse : radius :: sine of a leg : sine of its opposite angle. For GM is the sine of the arc GF, which measures the angle CAB. Also, LB : DF :: BO : FH; that is, as the sine of a leg : radius :: tangent of the other leg : tangent of its opposite angle. Q. E. D.

Hence it follows, that the sines of the angles of any oblique spherical triangle (ACD fig. 7.) are to one another, directly, as the sines of the opposite sides. Hence it also follows, that, in right-angled spherical triangles, having the same perpendicular, the sines of the bases will be to each other, inversely, as the tangents of the angles at the bases.

THEOREM II. In any right-angled spherical triangle ABC (*fig.* 8.) It will be, As radius is to the co-sine of one leg, so is the co-sine of the other leg to the co-sine of the hypotenuse.

Hence, if two right-angled spherical triangles ABC, CBD (*fig.* 7.) have the same perpendicular BC, the co-sines of their hypotenuses will be to each other, directly, as the co-sines of their bases.

THEOREM III. In any spherical triangle it will be, As radius is to the sine of either angle, so is the co-sine of the adjacent leg to the co-sine of the opposite angle.

Hence, in right-angled spherical triangles, having the same perpendicular, the co-sines of the angles at the base will be to each other, directly, as the sines of vertical angles.

THEOREM IV. In any right-angled spherical triangle it will be, As radius is to the co-sine of the hypotenuse, so is the tangent of either angle to the co-tangent of the other angle.

As the sum of the sines of two unequal arches is to their difference, so is the tangent of half the sum of those arches to the tangent of half their difference: and as the sum of the co-sines is to their difference, so is the co-tangent of half the sum of the arches to the tangent of half the difference of the same arches.

THEOREM V. In any spherical triangle ABC (*fig.* 9 and 10.) it will be, As the co-tangent of half the sum of half their difference, so is the co-tangent of half the base to the tangent of the distance (DE) of the perpendicular from the middle of the base.

Since the last proportion, by permutation, becomes co-tang. $\frac{AC+BC}{2}$: co-tang. AE :: tang.

$\frac{AC-BC}{2}$: tangent DE, and as the tangents of

any two arches are, inversely, as their co-tangents; it follows, therefore, that tangent AE : tang.

$\frac{AC+BC}{2}$: tang. $\frac{AC-BC}{2}$: tang. DE; or, that

the tangent of half the base is to the tangent of half the sum of the sides, as the tangent of half the difference of the sides to the tangent of the distance of the perpendicular from the middle of the base.

THEOREM VI. In any spherical triangle ABC (*fig.* 9.) it will be, As the co-tangent of half the sum of the angles at the base is to the tangent of half their difference, so is the tangent of half the verticle angle to the tangent of the angle which the perpendicular CD makes with the line CF bisecting the verticle angle.

The SOLUTION of the CASES of RIGHT-ANGLED SPHERICAL TRIANGLES, (*fig.* 8.)

Case	Given,	Sought,	Solution.
1	The hyp. AC and one angle A	The opposite leg BC	As radius : sine hyp. AC :: sine A : sine BC (by the former part of theor. 1.)
2	The hyp. AC and one angle A	The adjacent leg AB	As radius : co-sine of A :: tang. AC : tang. AB (by the latter part of theor. 1.)
3	The hyp. AC and one angle A	The other angle C	As radius : co-sine of AC :: tang. A : co-tang. C (by theorem 4.)
4	The hyp. AC and one leg AB	The other leg BC	As co-sine AB : radius :: co-sine AC : co-sine BC (by theorem 2.)
5	The hyp. AC and one leg AB	The opposite angle C	As sine AC : radius :: sine AB : sine C (by the former part of theorem 1.)
6	The hyp. AC and one leg AB	The adjacent angle A	As tang. AC : tang. AB :: radius : co-sine A (by theorem 1.)

Case	Given,	Sought,	Solution.
7	One leg AB and the adjacent angle A	The other leg BC	As radius : sine AB :: tangent A : tangent BC (by theorem 4.)
8	One leg AB and the adjacent angle A	The opposite angle C	As radius : sine A :: co-sine of AB : co-sine of C (by theorem 3.)
9	One leg AB and the adjacent angle A	The hyp. AC	As co-sine of A : radius :: tangent AB : tangent AC (by theorem 1.)
10	One leg BC and the opposite angle A	The other leg AB	As tangent A : tangent BC :: radius : sine AB (by theorem 4.)
11	One leg BC and the opposite angle A	The adjacent angle C	As co-sine BC : radius :: co-sine of A : sine C (by theorem 3.)
12	One leg BC and the opposite angle A	The hyp. AC	As sine A : sine BC :: radius : sine AC (by theorem 1.)
13	Both legs AB and BC	The hyp. AC	As radius : co-sine AB :: co-sine BC : co-sine AC (by theorem 2.)
14	Both legs AB and BC	An angle, suppose A	As sine AB : radius :: tangent BC : tangent A (by theorem 4.)
15	Both angles A and C	A leg, suppose AB	As sine A : co-sine C :: radius : co-sine AB (by theorem 3.)
16	Both angles A and C	The hyp. AC	As tangent A : co-tangent C :: radius : co-sine AC (by theorem 4.)

Note. The 10th, 11th, and 12th cases are ambiguous; since it cannot be determined by the data, whether A, B, C, and AC, be greater or less than 90 degrees each.

THE SOLUTION OF THE CASES OF OBLIQUE SPHERICAL TRIANGLES, (figs. 9 and 10.)

Case	Given,	Sought,	Solution.
1	Two sides AC, BC, and an angle A opposite to one of them.	The angle B opposite to the other	As sine BC : sine A :: sine AC : sine B (by theorem 1.) Note, this case is ambiguous when BC is less than AC; since it cannot be determined from the data whether B be acute or obtuse.
2	Two sides AC, BC, and an angle A opposite to one of them.	The included angle ACB	Upon AB produced (if need be) let fall the perpendicular CD; then (by theorem 4.) rad. : co-sine AC :: tang. A : co-tang. ACD; but (by theorem 1.) as tang. BC : tang. AC :: co-sine ACD : co-sine BCD. Whence ACB = ACD = BCD is known.
3	Two sides AC, BC, and an angle opposite to one of them.	The other side AB	As rad. : co-sine A :: tang. AC : tang. AD (by theor. 1.) and (by theor. 2.) as co-sine AC : co-sine BC :: co-sine AD : co-sine BD. Note, this and the last case are both ambiguous when the first is so.
4	Two sides AC, AB, and the included angle A	The other side BC	As rad. : co-sine A :: tang. AC : tang. AB (by theor. 1.) whence AD is also known; then (by theor. 2.) as co-sine AD : co-sine BD :: co-sine AC : co-sine BC.
5	Two sides AC, AB, and the included angle A	Either of the other angles suppose B	As rad. : co-sine A :: tang. AC : tang. AD (by theorem 1.) whence BD is known; then (by theorem 4.) as sine BD : sine AD :: tang. A : tang. B.
6	Two angles A, ACB, and the side AC betwixt them.	The other angle B	As rad. : co-sine AB :: tang. A : co-tang. ACD (by theorem 4.) whence BCD is also known; then (by theor. 3.) as sine ACD : sine BCD :: co-sine A : co-sine B.

Case	Given,	Sought,	Solution.
7	Two angles A, ACB, and the side AC betwixt them	Either of the other sides, suppose BC.	As rad. : cofine AC : : tang. A : co-tang. ACD (by theorem 4.) whence BCD is also known; then, as co-fine BCD : co-fine ACD : : tang. AC : tang. BC (by theor. 1.)
8	Two angles A, B, and a side AC opposite to one of them	The side BC opposite the other	As sine B : sine AC : : sine A : sine BC (by theorem 1.)
9	Two angles A, B, and a side AC opposite to one of them	The side AB betwixt them	As rad. : co-fine A : : tang. AC : tang. AD (by theor. 1.) and as : tang. B : tang. A : : sine AD : sine BD (by theorem 4.) whence AB is also known.
10	Two angles A, B, and a side AC opposite to one of them	The other angle ACB	As rad. : cofine AC : : tang. A : co-tang. ACD (by theorem 4.) and is co-fine A : co-fine B : : sine ACD : sine BCD by theor. 3.) whence ACB is also known.
11	All the three sides AB, AC, and BC	An angle, suppose A	As tang. $\frac{1}{2}$ AB : tang. $\frac{AC+BC}{2}$: : tang. $\frac{AC-BC}{2}$: tang. DE, the distance of the perpendicular from the middle of the base (by theorem 6.) whence AD is known; then, as tang. AC : tang. AD : : rad. : co-fine A (by theor. 1.)
12	All the three angles A, B, and ACB	A side, suppose AC	As co-tang. $\frac{ABC+A}{2}$: tang. $\frac{ABC-A}{2}$: : tang. $\frac{ACB}{2}$: tang. of the angle included by the perpendicular and a line bisecting the vertical angles; whence ACD is also known; then (by theorem 5.) tang. A : co-tang. ACD : : rad. : co-fine AC.

The following propositions and remarks concerning spherical triangles (communicated to Dr HUTTON by Dr MACKENZIE) will also render the calculation of them perspicuous.

1. A spherical triangle is equilateral, isosceles, or scalene, according as it has its 3 angles all equal, or two of them equal, or all 3 unequal; and *vice versa*.

2. The greatest side is always opposite the greatest angle, and the smallest side opposite the smallest angle.

3. Any two sides taken together are greater than the third.

4. If the 3 angles are all acute, or all right, or all obtuse; the three sides will be, accordingly, all less than 90°, or equal to 90°, or greater than 90°; and *vice versa*.

5. If from the 3 angles A, B, C, of a triangle ABC, (fig. 11.) as poles, there be described, upon the surface of the sphere, 3 arches of a great circle DE, DF, FE, forming by their intersections

a new spherical triangle DEF; each side of the new triangle will be the supplement of the angle at its pole; and each angle of the same triangle will be the supplement of the side opposite to it in the triangle ABC.

6. In any triangle ABC, or Δ BC, (fig. 12.) right-angled in A, *1st*, The angles at the hypotenuse are always of the same kind as their opposite sides; *2^{dly}*, The hypotenuse is less or greater than a quadrant, according as the sides including the right angle are of the same or different kinds; that is to say, according as these same sides are either both acute or both obtuse, or as one is acute and the other obtuse. And *vice versa*, *1st*, The sides including the right angle are always of the same kind as their opposite angles; *2^{dly}*, The sides including the right angle will be of the same or different kinds, according as the hypotenuse is less or more than 90°; but one at least of them will be of 90°, if the hypotenuse is so.

T R I

TRIGUEROS, a town of Spain, in Seville, 8 miles NNE. of Moguer.

TRIGYNIA, [from *trigyn*, three, and *gyn*, a woman,] in botany, an order of plants, under various genera, in the Linnæan system comprehending

T R I

such species as have 3 pistils, or female parts. See BOTANY, Index.

TRIHLATÆ, from *tres*, three, and *hilum*, an external mark on the seed; the 23d class in Linnæus's Fragments of a natural method; consisting of

of plants with three seeds, which are marked with an external cicatrix or scar, where they are fastened within the fruit. See BOTANY, Index.

TRIHLATUM FOLIUM. } See BOTANY, Gloss.
TRIJUGUM FOLIUM. } sary.

* TRILATERAL, *adj.* [*trilateral*, French: *tres*, and *latus*, Lat.] Having three sides.

TRILIX, a genus of plants, belonging to the class *polyandria*, and ranking in the order of *monogynia*.

(1.) * TRILL, *n. f.* [*trillo*, Italian.] Quaver; tremulousness of music.—

In songs and airs express their martial fire,

Combat in *trills*, and in fugue expire. *Addis.*

(2.) TRILL, [from *trillo*, Ital.] in music, an alternate undulation of different sounds, synonymous with *SHAKE*. It is used by Rousseau and several French musicians in this sense. See MUSIC, Part I. Chap. VIII. § 75.

(1.) * To TRILL, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To utter quavering.—The lobsor-suited songstress *trills* her lay. *Thomson.*

(2.) * To TRILL, *v. n.* 1. To trickle; to fall in drops or slender streams.—Now and then an ample tear *trill'd* down. *Shak.* 2. To play in tremulous vibrations of sound.—Judge of *trilling* notes and tripping feet? *Dryden.*

(1.) * TRILLION, *n. f.* [A word invented by *Locke*.] A million of millions of millions; a million twice multiplied by a million.

(2.) TRILLIONS. See ARITHMETIC, Index.

TRILLIUM, in botany, *Herb Paris of America*, or *Herb True-love of Canada*; a genus of plants belonging to the class of *hexandria*, and in the order of *trigynia*; and in the natural method ranking in the 11th order, *Sarmentose*. It has a three-leaved spreading empalement, and 3 oval petals; it has 6 awl-shaped stamina, terminated by oblong summits, and a roundish germen, with 3 recurved styles, crowned by male stigmata; the germen becomes a roundish berry, with 3 cells, filled with roundish seeds. There are 3 species, all natives of America; one of them is called THREE-LEAVED NIGHTSHADE. See PARIS, N° 9.

TRILOBUM, } in botany. See BOTANY.
TRILOCULAR, *adj.* } *NY, Glossary.*

* TRILUMINAR, } *adj.* [*triluminaris*, Latin.]
* TRILUMINOUS, } Having three lights. *DiB.*

(1.) * TRIM, *adj.* [*getrymmeth*, Sax. completed.] Nice; snug; dressed up. It is used with slight contempt.—When t' other *trim* bowers do make. *Tupper.*—A trim exploit, a manly enterprize! *Shak.*—The Dorick order is little trimmer than the Tuscan that went before. *Wotton.*—So trim, so dissolute, so loosely dress? *Dryden.*

(2.) * TRIM, *n. f.* Drefs; gear; ornaments. It is now a word of slight contempt.—They come like sacrifices in their *trim*. *Shak.*—Your labour-some and dainty *trims*. *Shak.*—The goodly London in her gallant *trim*. *Dryden.*

(3.) TRIM, in navigation, implies in general, the state or disposition by which a ship is best calculated for the several purposes of navigation. Thus the trim of the hold denotes the most convenient and proper arrangement of the various materials contained therein relatively to the ship's motion or stability at sea. The trim of the masts and sails is also their most apposite situation with regard

to the construction of the ship and the effort of the wind upon her sails. See SEAMANSHIP.

(2.) TRIM, in geography, a town of Ireland, capital of Meath, seated on the Boyne; 20 miles SW. of Drogheda, and 33 NW. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 48. W. Lat. 53. 32. N.

(1.) * To TRIM, *v. a.* [*trimman*, Saxon, to build.] 1. To fit out.—

As rav'nous fishes do a vessel follow

That is new *trimm'd*. *Shak.*

2. To drefs; to decorate.—And I was *trimm'd* in Julia's gown. *Shak.*—Penny-royal and orpin they use in the country to *trim* their houses. *Bacon.*—Two arts attend architecture, to drefs and *trim* her, picture and sculpture. *Wotton.*—*Trimm'd* with white ribbons and with garlands drest. *Dryden.*

3. To shave; to clip.—Mephiboseth had not *trimm'd* his beard. 2 Sam. xix. 24.—Clip and *trim* those tender strings like a beard. *Brown.*—The barber may *trim* religion as he pleases. *Howell.*—*Trim* off the small superfluous branches. *Mort.*

4. To make neat; to adjust.—I found her *trimming* up the diadem. *Shak.*—*Trimming* all handsomely. *Shak.*—More kemb'd, and bath'd, and rubb'd, and *trimm'd*. *Ben Jonson.*—And wreaths, herself had tainted, *trimm'd* anew. *Fischel.*—When workmen fit a piece into other work, they say they *trim* in a piece. *Moxon.*—Starts from her trance, and *trims* her wither'd bays. *Pope.*—Now *trims* the midnight lamp in college cells. *Young.* 5. To balance a vessel.—Sir Roger put his coachman to *trim* the boat. *Spektator.* 6. It has often up emphatical.—*Trim'm'd* up your praises with a princely tongue. *Shak.*

(2.) * To TRIM, *v. n.* To balance; to fluctuate between two parties.—*Trimming* and time-serving are but two words for the same thing. *South.*—A kind of *trimming* it between God and the devil. *South.*—

He who would hear what ev'ry fool could say,
Would never fix his thoughts, but *trim* his time away. *Dryden.*

TRIMBERG, a town of Franconia, in Wurzburg, 20 miles E. of Schweinfurt.

* TRIMLY, *adv.* [from *trim*.] Nicely; neatly.

Her yellow golden hair
Was *trimly* woven, and in tresses wrought. *Spens.*
—The mother will have her son cunning and bold, in making him to live *trimly*. *Ajcham.*

* TRIMMER, *n. f.* [from *trim*.] 1. One who changes sides to balance parties; a turncoat.—The bat 'scaped in both by playing the trimmer. *L'Esrange.*

All parties and religions join,

Whigs, tories, trimmers. *Swift.*

A piece of wood inserted.—Before they pin up the frame of ground-plates, they must fit in the summer and the girders, and all the joists and the trimmers for the stair-case. *Moxon.*

* TRIMMING, *n. f.* [from *trim*.] 1. Ornamental appendages to a coat or gown.—It is too gay, and but all *trimming*. *Garrb.*

* TRIMNESS, *n. f.* [from *trim*.] Neatness; pretty elegance of drefs.

TRIMONTIUM. See DRYBURGH, N° 2.

TRIMPERG. See TRIMBERG.

TRIMWENTON, a town of England, in the county of Cornwall; N. of Penzance.

TRINA-

TRINACRIA, } ancient names of Sicily from its
 TRINACRIS, } triangular form. See SICILY.

§ 2. * TRINAL. *adj.* [*trinus*, Latin.] Threefold.—

Like many an angel's voice,
 Singing before th' eternal majesty,
 In their *trinal* triplicity on high. *Spenser.*

—To fit the midst of *trinal* unity. *Milton.*

TRINCHINOPOLI. See TRITCHINOPOLI,
 and INDIA, § 17.

TRINCOLI, a town of Ceylon, near the E.
 coast; 84 miles ESE. of Candi.

TRINCOMALE, a city of Ceylon, on the E.
 coast, with a harbour, esteemed the best in the E.
 Indies. It was taken from the Dutch, by the Bri-
 tish, in Jan. 1782, retaken by the French in Aug.
 and restored to the Dutch by the peace in 1783. It
 is seated on a gulf so named, 100 miles NE. of
 Candy. It is now, with the whole island, in pos-
 session of Great Britain. Lon. 81. 52. E. Lat. 8.
 45. N.

TRINCUMBAR. See TRANQUEBAR.

TRINDELEN, an island of Denmark, in the
 Scagerrac, between N. Jutland and Norway; 7
 miles NE. of Lefloe. Lon. 12. 1. E. Lat. 57. 27. N.

* TRINE. *n. f.* [*trine*, Fr. *trinus*, Lat.] An as-
 pect of planets placed in three angles of a trigon,
 in which they are supposed by astrologers to be
 eminently benign.—In sextile, square, and *trine*,
 and opposite. *Milton*.—Now frequent *trines* the
 happier lights among. *Dryden*.—

From Aries right ways draw a line, to end
 In the same round, and let that line subtend
 An equal triangle; now since the lines
 Must three times touch the round, and meet
 three signs,

Where'er they meet in angles those are *trines*.

Craeb.

* To TRINE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To put in
 a *trine* aspect.—

By fortune he was now to Venus *trin'd*,
 And with stern Mars in Capricorn was join'd.

Dryden.

TRINERVUM FOLIUM. See BOTANY, *Gloss.*

TRINES, *n. f. plur.* 3 children born at one birth.

TRING, an elegant town of England in Hert-
 fordshire; the most Western in the county, next
 to Buckingham; 4 miles from Wendover; and 31
 from London. It has a good market on Friday
 for corn; and a fair Sept. 29.

TRINGA, the SANDPIPER, a genus of birds be-
 longing to the order of *grallæ*. The bill is some-
 what tapering, and of the length of the head; the
 nostrils are small; the toes are 4, and divided, the
 hind toe being frequently raised from the ground.
 According to Dr Latham there are 45 species, of
 which 18 are British. The most remarkable are these:

1. TRINGA ALPINA, the *dunling sandpiper*, is
 distinguished from the others by the singularity of
 its colours. The back, head, and upper part of
 the neck, are ferruginous, marked with large black
 spots; the lower part of the neck white, marked
 with short dusky streaks; the coverts of the wings
 ash-colour; the belly white, marked with large
 black spots, or with a black crescent pointing to-
 wards the thighs; the tail is ash-coloured; legs
 black; toes divided to their origin. In size it is

superior to that of a lark. These birds are found
 on our sea-coasts; but may be reckoned among
 the more rare kinds. They lay four eggs of a dirty
 white colour, blotched with brown round the
 thicker end, and marked with a few small spots
 of the same colour on the smaller end.

2. TRINGA CANUTUS, the *knout*, has the fore-
 head, chin, and lower part of the neck, brown,
 inclining to ash-colour; the back and scapulars
 deep brown, edged with ash-colour; the coverts
 of the wings white, the edges of the lower order
 deeply so, forming a white bar; the breast, sides,
 and belly white, the two first streaked with brown;
 the coverts of the tail marked with white and
 dusky spots alternately; the tail ash-coloured, the
 outmost feather on each side white; the legs of a
 bluish grey; and the toes, as a special mark, di-
 vided to the very bottom; the weight 4½ oz.—
 These birds, when fattened, are preferred by some
 to the ruffs themselves. They are taken in great
 numbers on the coasts of Lincolnshire. Their sea-
 son is from the beginning of August to the com-
 mencement of the frosts. Camden says they derive
 their name from king Canute, Knute, or Knout,
 as he is sometimes called; because they were a
 very favourite dish with that monarch.

3. TRINGA CINCLUS, *purse*, or *flint*, is 7½ inches
 long; the head and hind part of the neck are
 ash-coloured, marked with dusky lines; a white
 stroke divides the bill and eyes; the back is of a
 brownish ash-colour; the breast and belly white;
 the coverts of the wings and tail a dark brown,
 edged with light ash-colour or white; the upper
 part of the quill-feathers dusky, the lower white;
 the legs of a dusky green; the toes divided to their
 origin. The bill an inch and a half long, slender,
 and black; irides dusky.—These birds come in
 prodigious flocks on our sea coasts during the win-
 ter: in their flight they perform their evolutions
 with great regularity; appearing like a white or
 dusky cloud, as they turn their backs or their
 breasts towards us. They leave our shores in
 spring. They were formerly well known.

4. TRINGA HYPOLEUCOS, the *common sandpiper*,
 except in pairing time, is a solitary bird: it is ne-
 ver found near the sea, but frequents rivers, lakes,
 and other fresh waters. Its head is brown, streak-
 ed with downward black lines; the neck an ob-
 scure ash-colour; the back and coverts of the
 wings brown, mixed with a glossy green, elegant-
 ly marked with transverse dusky lines; the breast
 and belly are of a pure white; the quill-feathers
 and the middle feathers of the tail are brown; the
 legs of a dull pale green.

5. TRINGA PUGNAX. The male of this species
 is called *ruff*, and the female *reeve*. The name
ruff is given to the males because they are furnish-
 ed with very long feathers, standing out in a re-
 markable manner, not unlike the ruff worn by our
 ancestors. The ruff is of as many different co-
 lours as there are males; but in general it is bar-
 red with black; the weight is 6 or 7 oz.; the
 length, one foot. The female has no ruff; the
 common colour is brown; the feathers are edged
 with a very pale colour; the breast and belly
 white. Its weight is about 4 oz. These birds ap-
 pear in the fens early in spring, and disappear
 about Michaelmas. The reeves lay 4 eggs in a tuft

of

of grafs, the first week in May, and sit about a month. The eggs are white, marked with large rusty spots. Fowlers avoid in general the taking of the females; not only because they are smaller than the males, but that they may be left to breed. Soon after their arrival, the males begin to *hill*, that is, to collect on some dry bank near a water, in expectation of the females, who resort to them. Each male keeps possession of a small piece of ground, where it runs round till the grafs is worn quite away, and nothing but a naked circle is left. When a female lights, the ruffs fall to fighting. They make use of the same action in fighting as a cock, place their bills to the ground and spread their ruffs. These birds are found in Lincolnshire, the isle of Ely, and in the East riding of York. They visit a lake called *Martin Mere* in Lancashire the latter end of March or beginning of April; but do not continue there above 3 weeks.

6. *TRINGA VANELLUS*, the *lapwing*, or *teswit*, has the bill, crown of the head, crest, and throat, of a black colour; there is a black line under each eye; the back is of a purplish green; the wings and tail are black and white, and the legs red; the weight is 8 oz. and the length 13 inches. It lays 4 eggs, making a slight nest with a few bents. The eggs have an olive cast, and are spotted with black. The young, as soon as hatched, run like chickens: the eggs are held in great esteem for their delicacy, and the London poulterers sell them at an extravagant price. In winter, lapwings join in vast flocks; but at that season are very wild; the flesh is very good, their food being insects and worms. In October and November, they are taken in the fens in nets, like ruffs; but are not preferred for fattening, being killed as soon as caught.

TRINGENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in Nassau-Dillenburg; 6 miles E. of Dillenburg.

(1.) **TRINIDAD**, a town of Buenos Ayres, in the province of Moxes.

(2.) **TRINIDAD**, a town of Cuba, 140 miles SE. of Havannah. Lon. 80. 18. W. Lat. 51. 56. N.

(3—5.) **TRINIDAD**, 3 towns of Mexico: 1. In Guatimala, 115 miles SE. of Guatimala: 2. In Nicaragua, on the E. bank of the lake, so named: 3. In Veragua; 18 miles SE. of Conception.

(6.) **TRINIDAD**, an island in the gulf of Mexico, separated from New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait, about 3 miles broad. The soil is fruitful, producing sugar, cotton, Indian corn, fine tobacco, and fruits; but the air is unhealthy. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island and then left it. It is about 62 miles long, and 45 broad; and was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1498. There is a bituminous lake in it. See *TAR*, N° 51.

(7.) **TRINIDAD**, a town of New Granada; 20 miles NW. of Santa Fe.

(1.) **TRINITARIANS**. *n. f.* those who believe in the Trinity.

(2.) **TRINITARIANS**, ORDER OF, an order instituted at Rome, A. D. 1198. The founders were John de Matha and Felix de Valois. The pope permitted them to establish this order for the deliverance of captives who groaned under the tyranny of the infidels: he gave them as a habit a

white gown, ornamented with a red and blue cross. This order possessed, at one time, about 250 convents in 13 different provinces. There was formerly the province of England, where this order had 43 houses, that of Scotland, where it had 9; and that of Ireland, where it had 52.

(1.) **TRINITE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Morbihan; 9 miles N. of Josselin, and 15 E. of Pontivy.

(2.) **TRINITE**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, late Piedmontese; 10 miles SE. of Savigliano.

(3.) **TRINITE**, a sea-port town of Martinico, much frequented by ships. Lon. 61. 8. W. Lat. 14. 53. N.

(1.) * **TRINITY**. *n. f.* [*trinitas*, Lat. *trinité*, Fr.] The incomprehensible union of the Three Persons in the Godhead.—Touching the *trinity*. *Peacham*.—There is not any objection against the *trinity*. *Locke*.—

(2.) **TRINITY**. See *THEOLOGY*, Part II. *Se8*. II.

(3, 4.) **TRINITY BAY**, 1. A bay on the NE. coast of New-Holland: 2. A bay on the E. of Newfoundland. Lon. 53. 10. W. Lat. 48. 0. N.

(5.) **TRINITY GASK**, a parish of Perthshire, in Strathern, composed of the united parishes of KINKEL and WESTER GASK. It extends several miles on both sides of the Earn; the banks rising gradually to the N. and the rest of the surface being level and fertile. The whole is arable, but 1000 acres of moor remain in a state of nature. The soil is often fertilized by the Earn overflowing its banks, though the damage often balances the benefit. The population in 1796 was 795; the decrease 118 since 1755.

(6.) **TRINITY HOSPITAL**. See *EDINBURGH*, § 12.

(7.) **TRINITY INLET**, a bay on the N. Pacific Ocean; on the W. coast of N. America: 30 miles S. of Queen Charlotte's Sound.

(8.) **TRINITY-SUNDAY**, a festival observed on the Sunday next after Whitunday, in honour of the holy Trinity. The observance of this festival was first enjoined in the council of Arles, A. D. 1260.

TRINIUM, a river of Italy, running into the Adriatic.

TRINKAMALY. See *TRINCOMALE*. This city was taken by the British troops, on the 26th of August 1795.

* **TRINKET**. *n. f.* [This *Skinner* derives somewhat harshly from *trinet*, Fr. *trinchetto*, Ital. *a topail*. I rather imagine it corrupted from *tricket*, some petty finery or decoration.] 1. Toys; ornaments of dress; superfluities or decoration.—Of all the *trinkets*, there is not one but serves to some necessary purpose. *Sidon*.—They throng who should buy first, as if my *trinkets* had been hallowed. *Shak*.—Pack up with all your *trinkets*, and away. *Dryd*.—Toys and *trinkets*, tweezer-cafes, pocket glasses. *Arbutnot*.—Till Phyllis all her *trinkets* pawn'd. *Swift*. 2. Things of no great value; tackle; tools.—Have storehouse for *trinkets* and tools. *Tuffer*.—Go with all your servants and *trinkets* about you. *L'Estrange*.

TRINO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Tanaro, and ci devant duchy of Montferrat, seated in a fertile but marshy district, abounding

bounding in corn, rice, fruits, &c. and famous for fine cheese; 8 miles NW. of Casal, and 10 SSW. of Vercelli. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 45. 26. N.

TRINOBANTES, an ancient people of Britain, who inhabited Middlesex and Essex.

TRINOMALY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic, near which the troops of Hyder Ali were defeated by the British under Col. Smith, in 1763, with the loss of a great part of their artillery. It is 5 miles SW. of Arcot, and 51 WNW. of Pondicherry.

TRIO, in music, a part of a concert wherein 3 persons sing; or, more properly, a musical composition consisting of 3 parts.

* TRIOBOLAR, *adj.* [*triobolaris*, Lat.] Vile; mean; worthless.—It may pass current amongst the ballad-mongers for a triobolar ballad. *Cheyrel*.

TRIOCALA, or } an ancient town in the S. of
TRIOCLA, } Sicily. *Sil. Ital.* 14. v. 271.

TRIGECIA, in botany, the 3d order of plants, in the class *Polygamia*; comprehending those singular plants, which have the polygamy on three distinct plants. It contains 2 genera, the *Ficus* and *CERATONIA*.

TRIOLA, a town of Genoa, 18 miles NE. of Ventimiglia.

TRIOND, a town of European Turkey, in Albania; 12 miles WNW. of Aleffio.

TRIONES, in astronomy, a sort of constellation, or assemblage of seven stars in the Ursa Major, popularly called *Charles's Wain*.—From the *septem triones* the north pole takes the denomination *septentrio*.

(1.) TRIONTO, a river of Naples, which runs into the gulf of Tarento; 10 miles E. of Rossano.

(2.) TRIONTO, a cape of Naples, on the coast of Calabria Citra, on the Gulf of Tarento, at the mouth of the Trionto.

TRIOPAS, 1. A son of Neptune and Canace; father of Erichthon; 2. A son of Phæbus, father of Agænor and Jafus.

TRIOPIUM, an ancient town of Caria.

TRIOPTERIS, a genus of plants, belonging to the class of *decandria*, and the order of *trigynia*; ranking in the natural method in the 23d order, *Tribilata*.

TRIOSTEUM, in botany, FEVER-ROOT, or *Falsæ Ipecacuana*, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and the order of *monogynia*; ranking in the natural method under the 48th order, *Aggregate*.

* TRIP, *n. f.* [from the verb] 1. A stroke or catch by which the wrestler supplants his antagonist.—Thine own trip shall be thine overthrow. *Shak.*—And watches with a trip his foe to foil. *Dryden.*—Trips and Cornish hugs. *Addison.* 2. A stumble by which the foothold is lost. 3. A failure; a mistake.—They then, who of each trip th' advantage take. *Dryden.*—Each seeming trip, and each digressive start. *Harte.* 4. A short voyage or journey.—I took a trip to London on the death of the queen. *Pope.*

(1.) * To TRIP, *v. a.* [*treper*, Fr. *truppen*, Dut.] 1. To supplant; to throw by striking the feet from the ground by a sudden motion.—Tripp'd me behind. *Shak.*—To trip the course of law. *Shak.* 2. To strike from under the body.—I trips up thy heels and beat thee. *Shak.*—The words of Hobbes's

defence trip up the heels of his cause. *Bramhall.* 3. To catch; to detect.—Trip me, if I err. *Shak.*

(2.) * To TRIP, *v. n.* 1. To fall by losing the hold of the feet. 2. To fail; to err; to be deficient.—If any where they chance to trip. *Hooker.*—Virgil pretends sometimes to trip, but it is to make you think him in danger when most secure. *Dryden.*—Many cannot know where memory will trip and fail them. *South.*—Our club has caught him tripping. *Addison.*—Several writers would expose my ignorance, if they caught me tripping. *Addison.* 3. To stumble; to titubate.—I may have the idea of a man's drinking till his tongue trips. *Locke.* 4. To run lightly.—Trip we after the night's shade. *Shak.*—The triplex, fir, is a good tripping measure. *Shak.*—Distinctly trips from this to that. *Crafb.*—Trip no more in twilight ranks. *Milton.*—She tripp'd to light. *Dryden.*—Thus from the lion trips the trembling doe. *Dryden.*—Tripping from sea on such an errand came. *Dryden.*—He'll serve to trip before the victor's chariot. *Addison.*—In a posture of tripping forward. *Addison.*—The ladies trip in petticoats. *Prior.*—They slide down and trip up the steepest slopes. *Pope.* 5. To take a short voyage.

TRIPALL, or TRIPPALL, a river of Northumberland, which runs into the Tyne, 7 miles W. of Hexham.

TRIPANTY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 68 miles NW. of Madras.

* TRIPARTITE, *adj.* [*tripartite*, Fr. *tripartitus*, Lat.] Divided into three parts; having three correspondent copies; relating to three parties.—Our indentures tripartite are drawn. *Shak.*

TRIPATORE, 2 towns of Indostan: 1. In the Carnatic, 20 miles NE. of Madura, and 48 SW. of Tanjore; 2. In Myfore, 110 miles E. of Seringapatam, and 37 NW. of Trinkomaly.

* TRIPLE, *n. f.* [*tripe*, French; *trippa*, Italian and Spanish.] 1. The intestines; the guts.—How say you to a fat tripe finely broiled? *Shak.*—In private draw your poultry, clean your tripe. *King.* 2. It is used in ludicrous language for the human belly.

* TRIPEDAL, *adj.* [*tres* and *pes*, Latin.] Having three feet.

TRIPLELA, in mineralogy, a peculiar species of TRIPOLI, found by Homberg most proper for making moulds for pastes. See PASTE, § 11.

TRIPETALOIDEÆ, in botany, the 5th order of plants, in Linnaeus's system of a natural method. See BOTANY, Index.

* TRIPETALOUS, *adj.* [*tres* and *petalos*.] Having a flower consisting of three leaves.

TRIPETTY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 49 miles NW. of Nellore, and 68 NW. of Madras.

* TRIPHITHONG, *n. s.* [*triphthongue*, French; *τρίφθογγος*.] A coalition of three vowels to form one sound: as, *eau*; *eye*.

TRIPHYLLIA, a name of *Elis*.

TRIPHYLLOUS, *adj.* See BOTANY, Gloss.

TRIPHI, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Demona; 8 miles S. of Pafi.

TRIPINNATUM FOLIUM. See BOTANY, Gloss.

TRIPLARIS, in botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class of *triandria*, and in the order of *monogynia*.

(1.) * TRIPLE, *adj.* [*triple*, Fr. *triplex*, *triplex*, Lat.]

Lat.] 1. Threefold; consisting of three conjoined.—The triple pillar of the world. *Shak.*—How are we join'd with hell in triple knot? *hail.*—May none this triple knot undo. *Waller.*—By thy triple shape. *Dryd.*—The triple Geryon drove from conquer'd Spain. *Dryd.*—Out bounce'd the mastiff of the triple head. *Swift.* 2. Treble; three times repeated.—A triple proportion. *Burnet.*—Double or triple as many. *Bentley.*

(2.) TRIPLE in music, a species of measure or time. See MUSIC.

* To TRIPLE. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To treble; to make thrice as much, or as many.—Doubled and tripled prayers. *Hooker.*—These halpence would be tripled upon us. *Swift.* 2. To make threefold.—Th' alliance of his tripled unity. *Dryden.*

* TRIPLET. *n. f.* [from *triple*.] 1. Three of a kind.—

Such a triplet could you tell
Where to find on this side hell. *Swift.*

2. Three verses rhyming together: as,
Waller was smooth, but Dryden taught to
join

The varying verse, the full resounding line,
The long majestic march and energy divine. *Pope.*

—I frequently make use of triplet rhymes. *Dryd.*

* TRIPPLICATE. *adj.* [from *triplex*, Latin.] Made thrice as much.—Triplicate ratio, in geometry, is the ratio of cubes to each other. *Harris.*—All bear a triplicate proportion one to another. *Grew.*

* TRIPLICATION. *n. f.* [from *triplicate*.] The act of trebling or adding three together.—Triplication of the diameter of 120. *Glanville.*

* TRIPPLICITY. *n. f.* [triplicité, Fr. from *triplex*, Lat.] Trebleness; state of being threefold.—It was a dangerous triplicity to a monarchy; to have the arms of a foreigner, the discontents of subjects, and the title of a pretender to meet. *Bac.*—Affect not duplicities nor triplicities. *Watts.*

TRIPLINERVE FOLIUM. See BOTANY, Gloss.

* TRIPMADAM. *n. f.* An herb.—Tripmadam is used in salads. *Mortimer.*

(1.) * TRIPOD. *n. f.* [tripus, Lat.] A seat with three feet, such as that from which the priests of Apollo delivered oracles.—Two tripods cast in antick mould. *Dryden.*

(2.) The TRIPOD, in antiquity, was a famed sacred seat or stool, supported by three feet, whereon the priests and sibyls were placed to render oracles. It was on the tripod that the gods were said to inspire the Pythia with that divine fury and enthusiasm wherewith she was seized at the delivery of her predictions.

TRIPOLDA, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra; 16 miles S. of Benevento.

(1.) TRIPOLI, a country of Africa, in Barbary; bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean; on the S. by the country of the Berberies; on the W. by Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the E. by Egypt. It is about 915 miles along the sea coast; but the breadth is various. Some parts of it are pretty fruitful; but that towards Egypt is a sandy desert. It is governed by a dey, who is not absolute, for a Turkish bashaw resides here, who receives his authority

from the grand seignior, and has a power of controlling the dey, and levying taxes on the people. The dey is elected by the soldiers, who depose him when they please.

(2.) TRIPOLI, the capital of the above republic, anciently called TARABULUS, and TRABILIS. It has a castle and a fort; is pretty large; and the inhabitants are noted pirates. It was taken by Charles V. who settled the knights of Malta there; but they were driven away by the Turks in 1551. It was formerly very flourishing; and has now some trade in stuffs, saffron, corn, oil, wool, dates, ostrich feathers, and skins; but they make more of the Christian slaves which they take at sea; for they either set high ransoms upon them, or make them perform all sorts of work. It is seated on the coast of the Mediterranean, in a sandy soil, and surrounded by a wall, strengthened by other fortifications. Lon. 13. 12. E. Lat. 32. 34. N.

(3.) TRIPOLI, or TRIPOLIS, a town of Syria, anciently called TARABOLUS; received its name from its being anciently formed of three cities at a small distance from each other, one of which belonged to the Aradians, or ancient kingdom of Arad, the 2d to the Sidonians, and the 3d to the Tyrians, as a common mart to those maritime powers. The present town of Tripoli is built a mile and a half from the other, upon the declivity of a hill facing the sea. It is surrounded with walls, fortified with seven strong towers, and a castle, all of Gothic architecture; but the streets are narrow, and the houses low. The city contains about 16,000 inhabitants. The basha, or pacha, who resides in the castle, where there is a garrison of 200 janizaries, governs the adjacent territory, in which there is plenty of fruit, and a great number of mulberry trees. Lon. 35. 50. E. Lat. 34. 20. N.

(4) TRIPOLI, in the old system of mineralogy, was ranked as a genus of argillaceous earth. It is now classed as a species of CHALCEDONY. It is much used in the polishing of metals, and is named from Tripoli in Barbary, whence it was first brought to us, and has the following properties: 1. It does not effervesce with any of the acids. 2. It hardens in the fire; and by a considerable heat, its surface becomes vitrified. 3. Every kind of it, excepting that found in England, becomes red by calcination. 4. It is fusible by mixture with calcareous earth, as well as by borax and microcosmic salt. 5. Generally no salt can be extracted by washing, though sometimes the muriatic and sulphuric acid may be extracted by distillation. 6. When crude it imbibes water, but is not diffusible in it. 7. It tastes like common chalk, and feels sandy between the teeth, though no sand can by any means be extracted from it. Tripoli is found 1. Solid, and of a rough texture; brown, yellowish, and spotted: 2. Friable and compact; granulated, brown, or yellowish; this last is met with in England and Scotland. The yellowish, or Venetian tripoli is the best earth for founding gems. See PASTE, § 11. In the *Memoirs of the Academy at Paris*, for 1769, it is asserted, that tripoli is a volcanic product, but this seems not credible. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Class I. Ord. I. Gen. VI. Sp. 9.

(5.) TRIPOLI is also a name given by some mineralogists

neralogists to YELLOW CHALK. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Chap. IV. Clafs I. Ord. III. Gen. II. Species 1.

TRIPOLIZZA, a town of European Turkey, in the Morea; 18 m. W. of Napoli di Romania.

(1.) * TRIPOLY. *n. f.* [I suppose from the place whence it is brought.] A sharp cutting sand.—Polishing glass with putty or tripoly. *Newton.*

(2.) TRIPOLI. See TRIPOLI, N° 4.

TRIPONTIO, or } a town of Italy, in the
TRIPONZO, } duchy of Spoleto, on the
Nera; 12 miles W. of Norcia.

TRIPOOR, a town of Indoftan, in Myfore; 25 miles NE. of Coimbatore.

* TRIPOS. *n. f.* A tripod. See TRIPOD.—
Welcome all that lead or follow,
To the oracle of Apollo;

Here he speaks out of his pottle,
Or the tripas, his tower bottle. *Ben Jonson.*
—Come down from off the tripas, and speak plain.

Dryden.

TRIPPALL. See TRIPALL.

* TRIPPER. *n. f.* [from trip.] One who trips.

(1.) * TRIPPING. *adj.* [from trip.] Quick; nimble.—From standing lake, to tripping-ebb. *Milton.*

(2.) * TRIPPING. *n. f.* [from trip.] Light dance.—Other trippings to be trod. *Milton.*

* TRIPPINGLY. *adv.* [from tripping.] With agility; with swift motion.—Sing and dance it trippingly. *Shak.*—Speak the speech trippingly on the tongue. *Shak.*

TRIPSACUM, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class *monocæcia*, and order of *triandria*; and ranking, according to the natural system, in the 4th order, *Gramina*.

TRIPSTADT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Rhine and Moselle, and ci-devant duchy of Deux Ponts; 18 miles NW. of Landau, and 16 ENE. of Deux Ponts. It was taken by the French in 1794.

TRIPTIS, a town of Upper Saxony, in Neustadt, 4 m. E. of Neustadt, and 41 SSW. of Leipzig.

TRIPTOLEMUS. See CERES, N° 3; and MYSTERIES, § 30, and 39.

* TRIPTOTE. *n. f.* [triptoton, Latin.] Triptote is a noun used but in three cases. *Clarke.*

* TRIPUDIARY. *adj.* [tripudium, Lat.] Performed by dancing.—Claudius Pulcher continued the tripudiary augurations. *Brown.*

* TRIPUDIATION. *n. f.* [tripudium, Lat.] Act of dancing.

TRIQUETRA, a name of Sicily. See SICILY, § 2.

TRIQUETROUS, *adj.* among botanists, expresses a fruit or leaf that has three sides or faces all flat.

TRIQUETRUM FOLIUM. See BOTANY, Gloss.

TRIQUIER, an ancient city of France, in the dep. of the North Coasts, and ci-devant province of Brittany.

* TRIREME. *n. f.* [triremis, Lat.] A galley with three branches of oars on a side.

(1.) * TRISECTION. *n. f.* [tres and sectio, Lat.] Division into three equal parts; the trisection of an angle is one of the desiderata of geometry.

(2.) TRISECTION is a term chiefly used in geometry, for the division of an angle into three equal

parts. The trisection of an angle, geometrically, is one of those great problems, whose solution has been so much sought for by mathematicians for 2000 years past; being, in this respect, on a footing with the famous QUADRATURE of the circle, and the DUPLICATION of the cube.

TRISMEGISTUS, [τρεῖς μύσται; Gr. thrice great-est] an epithet of HERMES. See HERMES, N° 2.

TRISMUS, the LOCKED JAW. See MEDICINE Index.

TRISPERMOUS, *adj.* in botany, three-seeded. TRISSILD, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuys; 65 miles N. of Kongswinger.

TRISSINO, John George, an Italian poet, born at Vicenza, in 1478. His tragedy of *Sophonissa* was acted at Rome, by order of Pope Leo, and received great applause. His chief work is a poem on *Italy delivered from the Goths*. He died in 1550. His works were printed at Verona, in 2 vols folio, 1719.

* TRISSYLLABICAL. *adj.* [trissyllabe, Fr. from trissyllable.] Consisting of three syllables.

* TRISSYLLABLE. *n. f.* [trissyllaba, Latin.] A word consisting of three syllables.

TRIST, an island near the coast of America, on the S. side of the Bay of Campeachy, W. of Port Royal Island, from which it is divided by a narrow channel. It is 18 miles in circumference.

TRISTAN D'ACUNHA, the largest of three islands in the S. Atlantic Ocean in Lat. 37. 9. S. Lon. 11. 50. W. The other two are named *Inaccessible* and *Nightingale*. They are situated where the Terra Australis Incognita was expected to be found.

TRISTEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Feldkirch; 11 miles SSW. of Feldkirch.

* TRISTFUL. *adj.* [tristis, Latin.] Sad; melancholy; gloomy; sorrowful.—A bad word.—*Tristful visage. Shak.*

* TRISULC. *n. f.* [trifidulus, Latin.] A thing of three points—Consider the threefold effect of Jupiter's trifid, to burn, discons, and terebrate. *Brown.*

TRITCHINGODE, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore, 6 miles S. of Sankeridurgam.

TRITCHINOPOLY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic, 67 miles W. of Tranquebar, and 156 SE. of Seringapatam. Lon. 78. 45. E. Lat. 10. 48. N.

* TRITE. *adj.* [tritius, Lat.] Worn out; stale; common; not new.—Trite and obvious. *Rogers.*—In phrases batter'd, stale, and trite. *Swift.*

* TRITENESS. *n. f.* [from trite.] Staleness; commonness.

TRITERNATUM FOLIUM. See BOTANY, Gl. TRITHALL, a town of England, in the county of Cornwall.

* TRITHEISM. *n. f.* [tritheimse, Fr. trois and dieu.] The opinion which holds three distinct gods.

TRITHING. See SHIRE, § 2.

TRITICUM, WHEAT, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *triandria*, and order of *digynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is bivalve, solitary, and generally containing 3 florets; the corolla is bivalve, one valve being bluntish, the other acute. There are 14 species. For the cultivation of Wheat, see RURAL ECONOMY,

Part II. *Scd.* III. Linnæus comprehends the different kinds of wheat cultivated at present under six species; viz. *Æstivum*, *hybernium*, *turgidum*, *Colonicum*, *Spelta*, and *Monococcum*. Other botanists, however, add other eight species to those of Linnæus, and thus enumerate 14 species in all, besides varieties, which the improvements of cultivation have increased very much.

1. *TRITICUM ÆSTIVUM*, *summer or spring wheat*, hath 4 flowers in a calyx, 3 of which mostly bear grain. The calyces stand pretty distant from each other on both sides a flat smooth receptacle. The leaves of the calyx are keel-shaped, smooth, and terminate with a short arista. The glumes of the flowers are smooth and belying, and the outer leaf of 3 of the glumes in every calyx is terminated by a long arista, but the 3 inner ones are beardless. The grain is rather longer and thinner than the common wheat. It is an annual, and is supposed to be a native of Tartary. The farmers call it *Spring Wheat*, because it will come to the sickle with the common wheat, though it be sown in February or March. The varieties of it are; 1. *Triticum æstivum, spica et grana rubente*. Spring wheat, with a red spike and grain. 2. *Triticum æstivum rubrum, spica alba*. Red spring wheat, with a white spike. 3. *Triticum æstivum, spica et grana alba*. Spring wheat, with a white spike and grain.

2. *TRITICUM HYBERNUM*, *winter, Lammas, or common wheat*, has also 4 flowers in a calyx, 3 of which are mostly productive. The calyces stand on each side a smooth flat receptacle, as in the former species, but they are not quite so far asunder. The leaves of the calyx are belying, and so smooth that they appear as if polished, but they have no arista. The glumes of the flowers too are smooth, and the outer ones near the top of the spike are often tipped with short arista. The grain is rather plumper than the former, and is the sort most generally sown in England; whence the name of *common wheat*. Its varieties are: 1. *Triticum hybernium, spica et grana rubente*. Common wheat, with a red spike and grain. 2. *Triticum hybernium rubrum, spica alba*. Common red wheat, with a white spike. 3. *Triticum hybernium, spica et grana alba*. Common wheat, with a white spike and grain.

3. *TRITICUM JUNCUM*, *russ wheat grass*, is a native of Britain, and is an annual plant.

4. *TRITICUM MARITIMUM*, *sea wheat grass*, is a native of Britain, and perennial.

5. *TRITICUM MONOCOCCUM*, *St Peter's corn, or one-grained wheat*, has 3 flowers in each calyx alternately bearded, and the middle one neuter. The spike is shining, and has two rows of grain like barley. It is an annual. Where it grows naturally is not known, but it is cultivated in Germany; and, in conjunction with spelt wheat, is there made into bread, which is coarse, and not so nourishing as that made of common wheat.

6. *TRITICUM POLONICUM*, *Polish wheat*, has some resemblance to the *turgidum*, but both grain and spike are longer. The calyx contains only two flowers, and the glumes are furnished with very long arista; the teeth of the midrib are bearded. It is an annual. This sort is seldom sown in England; so we know not what varieties it produces.

7. *TRITICUM PROSTRATUM*, or *Trailing wheat-grass*, is a native of Siberia, and an annual.

8. *TRITICUM PUMILUM*, or *dwarf wheat-grass*, is a native of Britain, and an annual.

9. *TRITICUM REPENS*, or *couch grass*, is a native of Britain, and is perennial. This is the famous ORCHESTON GRASS, so highly recommended for feeding cattle, and for making excellent hay, some years ago, in *Letters and Papers on Agriculture*, &c. In that work it was said horses would prefer it to corn mixed with chaff. It grows to the length of 18 inches, and then falls and runs in knots to the length of 16 or 18, or even 25 feet. It was first discovered in a meadow of Lord River's, at Orcheston.

10. *TRITICUM SPelta*, *Spelt wheat*, is an annual plant.

11. *TRITICUM TENELLUM*, or *tender wheat-grass*, is a native of Spain, and perennial.

12. *TRITICUM TURGIDUM*, or *compositum, thick spiked or cone-wheat*, is easily distinguished from either of the former; for though it has 4 flowers in a calyx after the manner of them, yet the whole calyx and the edges of the glumes are covered with soft hairs. The calyces too stand thicker on the receptacle, which make the spikes appear more turgid. Some of the outer glumes near the top of the spike are terminated by short arista, like those of the common wheat. The grain is shorter, plumper, and more convex on the back than either of the former species. It is an annual. Its varieties are numerous, and have various appellations in different counties, owing to the great affinity of several of them. Those most easily to be distinguished are: 1. *Triticum turgidum conicum album*. White cone wheat. 2. *Triticum turgidum conicum rubrum*. Red cone wheat. 3. *Triticum turgidum aristiferum*. Bearded cone wheat. 4. *Triticum turgidum, spica multiplici*. Cone wheat, with many ears. 5. The 5th variety is what the farmers call *clog wheat, square wheat, and reverts*. The grain of this is remarkably convex on one side, and when ripe the awns generally break in pieces and fall off. This sort is very productive, but it yields an inferior flour to what the former two species do.

13. *TRITICUM UNILATERALE*, *spiked sea-wheat, or one-sided sea-wheat*, is a native of Britain, and perennial.

14. *TRITICUM UNIOLOIDES*, or *Linear spiked wheat grass*, is a native of Italy, and perennial.

TRITLINGTON, a town of England, in Northumberland, on the N. of Morpeth.

(1.) TRITON, in the mythology, a sea-god, the son of Neptune and Amphitrite. He could calm the ocean in the greatest storms. He is represented as blowing a shell, his body above the waste, like that of a man, but below a dolphin. He was Neptune's trumpeter, and messenger.

(2.) TRITON, in geography; 1. a river of Africa, running into lake Tritons; 2. a river of Æthiopia.

(3.) TRITON, in zoology, a genus belonging to the order of vermes mollusca. The body is oblong; the tongue is spiral; it has tentacula, six on each side, the hindmost ones having claws like a crab. There is but one species, found in holes of rocks about the shore.

TRITONE,

TRITONE. *n. f.* in music, an imperfect concord; an interval of three-tones. See **MUSIC**, Def. § 9.

TRITONES, a numerous tribe of inferior sea deities, who dragged Neptune's chariot. They were half men half fishes.

TRITONIS, a lake of Africa. *Paus.* 9. c. 33.

TRITONON, a town of Doris. *Liv.* 28. c. 7.

TRITTAU, a town of Germany, in Holstein: 20 miles E. of Hamburg, and 21 SW. of Lubeck.

* **TRITURABLE.** *adj.* [*triturable*, Fr. from *trituration*.] Possible to be pounded or comminuted.—*Triturable* and reducible to powder. *Brown.*

To TRITURATE. *v. a.* [*trituro*, Lat.] To pound; to comminute; to reduce to powder.

* **TRITURATION.** *n. f.* [*trituration*, French; *trituro*, Lat.] Reduction of any substances to powder upon a stone with a muller, as colours are ground; it is also called levigation.—Abatement can hardly be avoided in *trituration*. *Brown.*

TRIVADE, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 23 miles SW. of Pondicherry, and 72 S. of Arcot.

TRIVALVE PERICARPUM. See **BOTANY**, *Gl.*

TRIVENTO, a town of Naples, with a bishop's see, in Molise, on the Trino, 15 miles N. of Bogano, 11 N. of Molise, and 62 E. of Naples. *Lon.* 15. 37. E. *Lat.* 40. 50. N.

TRIVENTUM, an ancient town of Italy, belonging to the Samnites, now called **TRIVENTO**.

* **TRIVET.** *n. f.* [See **TREVET**.] Any thing supported by three feet.—A *trivet*, that enclos'd—Twenty-two measures. *Chapman.*—The *trivet* table of a foot was lame. *Dryden.*

TRIVIA, a surname of Diana, as she presided over all places where 3 roads met. *Virg.*

TRIVIAE ANTRUM, a place in **ARICIA**, where the goddess Egeria met with **NUMA**.

(1.) * **TRIVIAL.** *adj.* [*trivialis*, Fr. *trivialis*, Lat.] 1. Vile; worthless; vulgar; such as may be picked up in the highway.—For men of sense despise a *trivial* choice. *Roscommon.* 2. Light; trifling; unimportant; incon siderable. This use is more frequent, though less just.—But the respects there of are nice and *trivial*. *Shak.*—It would occur even in the most *trivial* instances. *Fell.*—Some *trivial* right. *Dryden.*—Slight and *trivial* indiscretions. *Rogers.*—Applause, in spite of *trivial* faults is due. *Pope.*—An action *trivial* in itself. *Pope.*

(2.) **TRIVIAL NAME**, in botany, zoology, &c. is that by which the species of a plant or animal is distinguished from every other species.

* **TRIVIALLY.** *adv.* [from *trivial*.] 1. Commonly; vulgarly.—Money is not the sinews of war, as is *trivially* said. *Bacon.* 2. Lightly; incon siderably.

* **TRIVIALNESS.** *n. f.* [from *trivial*.] 1. Commonness; vulgarity. 2. Lightness; unimportance.

TRIVICARY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic, 20 miles SE. of Gingee.

TRIVICUM, an ancient town of Italy, in the country of the **HIRPINI**. *Hor. i. Sat. 5.*

TRIVIER, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and ci-devant prov. of Piedmont, in the late lordship of Biela; 6 miles NE. of **BIELA**.

TRIVIGILLO BAY, a bay of the Gulf of Honduras.

TRIVIUS. See **HERMES**, No 3.

TRIUMFETTA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class *dodecandria* and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural method, ranking in the 37th order, *Columbifera*.

(1.) * **TRIUMPH.** *n. f.* [*triumphus*, Lat. *trionphe*, Fr.] 1. Pomp with which a victory is publicly celebrated.—It I will bear in *triumph* to the king. *Shak.*—Ancient *triumphs* of generals. *Bacon.* 2. State of being victorious.—In *triumph* issuing forth their glorious chief. *Milton.*—Arriv'd in *triumph*, from Geryon slain. *Dryden.* 3. Victory; conquest.—An enemy's *triumph*. *Shak.*—
Each order bright

Sung triumph.

Milton.

—The vain coquets the trifling *triumphs* boast. *Logie.* 4. Joy for success.—Great *triumph* and rejoicing was in heav'n. *Milton.* 5. A conquering card now called *trump*. See **TRUMP**.

(2.) A **TRIUMPH**, in Roman antiquity, was a public and solemn honour conferred by the Romans on a victorious general by allowing him a magnificent procession through the city.

(3.) **TRIUMPH, THE GREATER**, called also *curulis*, or simply the *triumph*, was decreed by the senate to a general, upon the conquering of a province or gaining a signal victory. The general was clad in a rich purple robe, interwoven with figures of gold, setting forth his great exploits; his buskins were beset with pearl; and he wore a crown, which at first was only laurel, but afterwards gold; in one hand he bore a branch of laurel, and in the other a truncheon. He was carried in a magnificent chariot, adorned with ivory and plates of gold, drawn usually by two white horses; though sometimes by other animals, as that of Pompey, when he triumphed over Africa, by elephants; that of Marc Antony by lions; that of Helioabalus by tygers; that of Aurelian by deer, &c. His children were at his feet, and sometimes on the chariot horses. At the victor's back walked a slave, who railed on him, and threw up to him all his crimes, and vices, with impunity. The procession was led up by the musicians, who played triumphal pieces in praise of the general; these were followed by young men, who led the victims to the sacrifice, with their horns gilded and their heads adorned with ribands and garlands; next came the carts and waggons, loaded with all the spoils taken from the enemy, with their horses, chariots, &c.; these were followed by the kings, princes, and generals, who had been taken captives, loaded with chains; after these appeared the triumphal chariot, before which, as it passed, they all along strewed flowers, and the people with loud acclamations called out *Io triumphe!* The chariot was followed by the senate, by such citizens as had been set at liberty or ransomed; and the procession was closed by the priests and their officers and utensils with a white ox led along for the chief victim. In this order they proceeded through the triumphal gate, along the via sacra, to the Capitol, where the victims were slain. In the mean time all the temples were open, and all the altars loaded with offerings and incense; games and combats were celebrated in the public places, and rejoicings appeared every where.

* **TO TRIUMPH.** *v. n.* [*triumpho*, Lat. *triumpher*, Fr.] This word is always accented in prose on the first syllable, but in poetry sometimes on the last. 1. To celebrate a victory with pomp; to rejoice for victory.—The *triumphing* of the wicked is short. *Job*, xx. 5.—Can you not then *triumph* without my tears? *Dryden*. 2. To obtain victory.—He had sufficiently *triumphed* over the Christians. *Knolles*.—*Triumphing* over death, and chance, and time. *Milton*.—There fix thy faith and *triumph* o'er the world. *Rouse*.—To *triumph* o'er this destin'd breast. *Prior*. 3. To insult upon an advantage gained.—To *triumph*, like an Amazonian trull! *Shak*.—That *triumph* thus upon my misery. *Shak*.—Who now *triumphs*, and in th' excess of joy. *Milton*.

(1.) * **TRIUMPHAL.** *adj.* [*triumphal*, Fr. *triumphalis*, Lat. from *triumph*.] Used in celebrating victory.—He left only *triumphal* garments to the general. *Bacon*.—

Ye to near heav'n's door,

Triumphal with *triumphal* act have met. *Milton*.—And hew *triumphal* arches to the ground. *Pope*.—Or on a proud *triumphal* car. *Swift*.

(2.) * **TRIUMPHAL.** *n. f.* [*triumphalia*, Lat. *triumphal* ornaments.] A token of victory. Not in use.—Joyless *triumphals* of his hop'd success. *Mils*.

* **TRIUMPHANT.** *adj.* [*triumphans*, Lat. *triumphant*, Fr.] 1. Celebrating a victory.—Captives bound to a *triumphant* car. *Shak*.—It was drawn as a *triumphant* chariot. *South*. 2. Rejoicing as for victory.—*Triumphant* as I am? *Shak*.—And now to London with *triumphant* march. *Shak*.—*Triumphant* out of this infernal pit. *Milton*. 3. Victorious; graced with conquest.—The church *triumphant*. *Perkins*.—To pass *triumphant*. *Milton*.—Athens war's *triumphant* maid. *Pope*.

* **TRIUMPHANTLY.** *adv.* [from *triumphant*.] 1. In a *triumphant* manner in token of victory; joyfully as for victory.—At hand *triumphantly* display'd. *Shak*.—From Salem unto Rome *triumphantly* he brought. *Dryden*.—Through armed ranks *triumphantly* the drives. *Glanville*. 2. Victoriously; with success.—*Triumphantly* tread on thy country's ruin. *Shak*. 3. With insolent exultation.—A mighty governing lye reigning *triumphantly*. *South*.

* **TRIUMPHER.** *n. f.* [from *triumph*.] One who triumphs.—And enter in our ears, like great *triumphers*. *Shak*.—In August, Augustus was the first time created consul, and thrice *triumpher* in Rome. *Peasham*.

TRIUMVIR, one of three persons who govern absolutely, and with equal authority in a state. It is chiefly applied to the Roman government: Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, were the first *triumvirs* who divided the government among them. There were also other officers so called; as the *triumviri* or *tresviri capitales*, who were the keepers of the public gaol; they punished malefactors; for which purpose they kept 8 lictors under them.

* **TRIUMVIRATE.** } *n. f.* [*triumviratus*, or

* **TRIUMVIRI.** } *triumviri*, Lat.] A coalition or concurrence of three men.—

Lepidus of the *triumvirate*

Should be depos'd.

Shak.

—The *triumviri*, the three corner cap of society.

Shak.—*Triumvirate* of kings. *Bacon*.—Instituting a *triumvirate*. *Daniel*.—An odd *triumvirate* of friends. *Swift*.

TRIUMVIRORUM INSULA, *The island of the Triumvirs*, an island in the Rhine at its junction with the Po; where the *triumvirs*, Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus, met to divide the Roman empire after the death of Cæsar. *Dion*, 46. c. 55.

(1.) * **TRIUNE.** *adj.* [*tres* and *unus*, Lat.] At once three and one.—We read in scripture of a *triune* Deity. *Burnet*.

(2.) **TRIUNE GOD.** See **THEOLOGY**, Part II. *Sci*. II.

TRIZZO. See **TREZZO**.

TROADES, the people of **TROAS**.

TROARN, or **TROUARD**, a town of France, in dep. of Calvados, and late prov. of Normandy, on the Dive; 6 miles E. of Caen, and 15 W. of Lisieux.

TROAS, a country of Phrygia in Asia Minor, of which Troy was the capital. When Troas is taken for the whole kingdom of Priam, it may be said to contain Mysia and Phrygia Minor; but if only applied to that part of the country where Troy was situated, its extent is confined within very narrow limits. Troas was anciently called **DARDANIA**. See **TROJA**.

* **TO TROAT.** *v. a.* [with hunters.] To cry as a buck does at rutting-time. *Di*. *Di*.

(1.) * **TROCAR.** *n. f.* [*trocar*, corrupted from *trois quart*, French.] A surgical instrument.—The handle of the *trocar* is of wood, the canula of silver, and the perforator of steel. *Sharp*.

(2.) **TROCAR.** See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

TROCHÆUS, in prosody, a foot consisting of a long and short syllable.

TROCHAIC VERSE, in Latin prosody, a species of verse, consisting of 8 feet, chiefly *trochæi*, alternating with *tribrachys*, *dactylus*, *spendæus*, *anapestus*, and *proceleusmaticus*.

* **TROCHAICAL.** *adj.* [*trochaïque*, Fr. *trochaicus*, Lat.] Consisting of *trochees*.

(1.) * **TROCHANTERS.** *n. f.* [*τροχαντες*, Gr.] Two processes of the thigh bone, called *rotator major* and *minor*, in which the tendons of many muscles terminate. *Di*. *Di*.

(2.) **TROCHANTERS.** See **ANATOMY**, § 155.

TROCHE, *n. f.* in pharmacy, a sort of medicine made of glutinous substances into little cakes, and afterwards excicated. See **PHARMACY**, *Ind*.

* **TROCHEE.** *n. f.* [*trocheus*, Lat. *trochée*, Fr. *τροχαιος*.] A foot used in Latin poetry, consisting of a long and short syllable.

TROCHI, in petrifications, small fossil stones. See **PLATE CLXVIII**.

(1.) * **TROCHILICKS.** *n. f.* [*τροχίλιον*, *τροχίλος*, a wheel.] The science of rotatory motion.—*Trochilicks*, or the artifice of wheels. *Brown*.—*Trochilicks* or the art of wheel instruments. *Wilkin's Dedalus*.

(2.) **TROCHILICS.** See **MECHANICS**, Part IV. *Sci*. III. and **ROTATION**, § 1, 2.

TROCHILUS, the **HUMMING BIRD**, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *picæ*. The rostrum is subulate, filiform, and longer than the head, the apex being tubular; the upper mandible sheaths the lower. The tongue is filiform and tubulous, the two threads coalescing; the feet are slender and fit for walking; the tail has ten feathers.

feathers. There are 65 species, none of which are natives of Britain. They are all remarkable for the beauty of their colours, and most of them for the smallness of their size, though some are 8 or 9 inches long. They are divided into two families, viz. those with crooked bills, and those with straight bills. The following are the most remarkable.

1. *TROCHILUS COLIBRI*, or *MINIMUS*, the *least humming bird*, is exceeded, both in weight and dimensions, by several species of bees. The total length is one inch one-fourth, and its weight is only 20 grains. The bill is straight and black, three lines and a half in length; the upper parts of the head and body are of a greenish gilded brown, in some lights appearing reddish; the under parts are greyish white; the wings are violet-brown; the tail of a bluish black, with a gloss of polished metal; but the outer feather, except one on each side, is grey from the middle to the tip, and the outer one wholly grey; legs and claws brown. The female is less than the male; the whole upper side of a dirty brown, with a slight gloss of green; the under parts of a dirty white. These birds are found in various parts of South America and the adjacent islands.

2. *TROCHILUS EXILIS*, the *little humming bird*, has a crooked bill, is an inch and half in length; frequently weighing less than 50 grains. The bill is black, and half an inch in length; the body greenish brown, with a red, shining, inimitable gloss; the head is crested with a small tuft, green at bottom, but of a sparkling gold colour at top; quills and tail fine black. It is a native of Guiana; and the velocity of it in flying is so great, that the eye can scarce keep pace with its motion.

3. *TROCHILUS MOSCHITUS*, the *ruby-necked humming bird*, according to Marcgrave is the most beautiful of the whole genus. Its length is three inches 4 lines; the bill straight, 8 lines long, and blackish; the top of the head and hind part of the neck are as bright as a ruby, and of the same colour; the upper parts of the body are brown, with a faint mixture of green and gold; the throat and fore part of the neck are the colour of the most brilliant topaz; the belly, sides, and thighs, are brown; but on the lower part of the belly, on each side, is a spot of white; the tail is rufous purple, inclining to violet at the ends; the two middle feathers are shortest; the legs and claws blackish. The female has only a dash of golden or topaz on the breast and fore part of the neck; the rest of the under parts are greyish white. This species is found in Brazil, Curassoa, Guiana, and Surinam.

4. *TROCHILUS SUPERCILIOSUS*, the *white shaft*, or *supercilious humming bird*, has a bill 20 lines long; the feathers of the tail next the two long shafts are also the longest, and the lateral ones continually decrease to the two outermost, which are the shortest, and this gives the tail a pyramidal shape; its quills have a gold gloss on a grey and blackish ground, with a whitish edge at the point, and the two shafts are white through the whole projecting portions; all the upper side of the back and head gold colour, the wing violet-brown, and the under side of the body white grey. These birds subsist on the nectar or sweet

juice of flowers. They never settle on the flower, but flutter continually, moving their wings very quick, and making a humming noise; whence their name. They most frequently build in trees, and the nest is of course very small, and quite round. They lay two eggs of the size of a pea, which are white, and not bigger at one end than the other.

* *TROCHINGS*. *n.f.* The branches on a deer's head. *Ainsw.*

* *TROCHISCH*. *n.f.* [*τροχίσκος*; *trochisque*, Fr. *trochiscus*, Latin.] A kind of tablet or lozenge.—The *trochisks* of vipers, so much magnified, and the flesh of snakes some ways conditioned and corrected. *Bacon.*

TROCHOIS, a lake of Delos.

TROCHTELLINGEN, an imperial town of Suabia, 16 miles NW. of Bohemia, and 21 S. of Stuttgart.

TROCHYTÆ, in petrification, fossil stones. See *PLATE CLXVIII.*

TROCKENBURG, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 4 miles NNW. of Rezin.

TROCMI, an ancient nation of Galatia. *Liv.* 38. 16.

TROCZENIECZ, a town of the dismembered kingdom of Poland, in the palatinate of Bracław, 20 miles S. of Bracław.

* *TROD*. } participle passive of *tread*.—

* *TRODDEN*. } Jerusalem shall be trodden down of the Gentiles. *Luke xxi.*—Thou shalt fall from heav'n trod down. *Milt.*—And trodden weeds send out a rich perfume. *Addison.*

(1.) * *TRODE*, the preterite of *tread*.—They trode the grapes and made merry. *Judges ix.* 27.

(2.) * *TRODS*. *n.s.* [from *trode*, pret. of *tread*.] Footing.—The *trode* is not so tickle. *Spenser.*—They never set foot on that same *trode*. *Spentey.*

TRODENA, a town of Germany, in the Tirol, 16 miles SSE. of Bolzano.

TROEZEN, a son of Pelops, who built and reigned in

TROEZENE, a town of Peloponnesus, in Argolis, near the Sinus Saronicus.

TROGEN, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Appenzell, 7 miles SE. of St Gall.

TROGILÆ, three islands near Samos.

TROGILIUM, a cape of mount Mycale, projecting into the sea.

TROGILUS, a sea-port of Sicily.

TROGLODYTÆ. See *TROGLODYTES*.

(1.) * *TROGLODYTE*. *n.s.* [*τρογλοδυτης*.] One who inhabits caves of the earth.—Procure me a troglodyte footman. *Arbutnot and Pope.*

(2.) *TROGLODYTE MYRRH*. See *MYRRH*, N° 4.

(3.) *The TROGLODYTES*, or *TROGLODYTÆ*, were an ancient people of Ethiopia, said to have lived in caves under ground.

(4.) *TROGLODYTES*, in zoology. See *SIMIA*.

TROGLODYTRIA, the country of the *TROGLODYTÆ*, a country of Abyssinia, which produces the best myrrh. See *OPOCALPASM*.

TROGUS POMPEIUS, a Latin universal historian to the time of Augustus Cæsar, of whom we have an abridgement by Justin, flourished about 41 B.C.

(1.) *TROJA*, the capital city of Troas, but some would have it to be a country of which Ilium was the

the capital. It was built on a small eminence near mount Ida. Dardanus the first king of the country built it, and called it *DARDANIA*, and from *Tros*, his grandson, it was called *Troja*, and from *Ilium*. It is supposed to have stood on the site of the modern village *Bounarbacli*, about 12 miles from the sea, on an eminence, at the termination of a spacious plain.

(2.) *TROJA*, or } in modern geography, a town
TROIA, } of Naples, and bishop's see in
Capitanata, on the Chilare, at the foot of the Apennines, 60 miles NW. of Naples. Lon. 15. 15. E. Lat. 51. 21. N.

TROJANI LUDI, games instituted by *Aeneas* in honour of *ANCHISES*, celebrated at Rome.

TROJANS, the people of *TROY*.

TROILINSKAIA, a town of Russia, in the country of the *Cossacs*, on the *Don*, 80 miles E. of *Azoph*.

TROILUS, a son of *Priam* and *Hecuba*, killed by *Achilles* during the *Trojan war*.

TROIS, [Fr. *three*.] Part of several names; as,

(1.) *TROIS MARIES*, a town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the *Rhone*, held sacred in the days of credulity, as having been the residence of the *three Marias*, (whence the name), and of *Lazarus* after our Saviour's crucifixion. It is 15 miles S. of *Aries*.

(2.) *TROIS RIVIERES*, a town of *Martinique*.

(3.) *TROIS RIVIERES*, a town of Upper Canada, so called from its situation at the junction of *three rivers*, which there fall into the *St Lawrence*. It was the French capital of Canada. It is the mart of the Indian trade for furs, &c. It is 35 miles SW. of *Quebec*. Lon. 71. 20. W. Lat. 46. 35. N.

(4.) *TROIS RIVIERES*, a bay on the coast of *Nova Scotia*, at the E. end of the island of *St John*.

TROISSEREUX, a town of France, in the department of the *Oise*, $\frac{1}{2}$ miles NW. of *Beauvais*.

TROITZ, or *TROITSKOE MONASTK*, [i.e. the monastery of the *Trinity*], a convent of Russia, as large as a town, and strongly fortified. It withstood a long siege, by *Uladislaus*, king of *Poland*. It had formerly 300 monks, but now has not above 100, and upon its territory were at least 100,000 peasants. It is 40 miles from *Moscow*.

(1.) *TROKI*, a ci-devant palatinate of *Lithuania*, now annexed to *Prussia*.

(2.) *TROKI*, the capital of the above palatinate. It was built in 1523. In 1635, it was demolished by the *Russians*. It is 160 miles E. of *Konigsberg*, and 75 NE. of *Grodno*. Lon. 54. 40. N.

TROLHOETTA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 15 miles ESE. of *Uddevalla*.

(1.) * *To TROLL*. v. a. [*trollen*, to roll, Dutch; perhaps from *treckles*. Lat. a thing to turn round.] To move circularly; to drive about.—

Troll about the bridal bowl. Ben Jonson.

(2.) * *To TROLL*. v. n. 1. To roll; to run round.—To troll it in a coach and fix. Swift. 2. To fish for a pike with a rod which has a pulley towards the bottom, which I suppose gives occasion to the term.—Nor *trawle* for pikes, dispeopled of the lake. Gay.

TROLLIUS, *GLOBE RANUNCULUS*, or *Lucken Goswan*, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *polyandria*, and order of *polygania*; and in the natural system ranging under the 26th

order, *Multiflora*. The calyx is wanting; there are about 14 petals; the capsules are very numerous, ovate, and monospermous. There are two species; viz.

1. *TROLLIUS ASIATICUS*.

2. *TROLLIUS EUROPAEUS*, or *European globe Ranunculus*, is a British plant, has its corollae connivent, and from 9 to 16 nectaria, of the length of the stamina, linear, plane, incurved, and perforated at the inflex of the base. The leaves are divided first into five segments down to the base; the segments are again divided, each about half way, into two or three lobes, which are sharply indented on the edges. The stalk is a foot high, and scarcely branched; the flower is yellow, globose, and spacious. It grows at the foot of mountains, and by the sides of rivulets.

* *TROLLOP*. n. s. [A low word, I know not whence derived.] A flatteringly, loose woman.

* *TROLMYDAMES*. n. s. [Of this word I know not the meaning.]—A fellow I have known to go about with *trolmydames*; I knew him once a servant of the prince. Shaks.

TROMMIUS, Abraham, a protestant divine, born at Groningen, in 1633. He published a *Greek Concordance* of the Old Testament, in 2 vols. fol. 1718. He died in 1719.

TROMP, Martin Hapertz VAN, a celebrated Dutch admiral, born at the Beill, in Holland. He raised himself by his merit, after having distinguished himself on many occasions, especially at the famous engagement near Gibraltar in 1607. He was declared admiral of Holland, and defeated a large Spanish fleet in 1630, and gained 32 other victories at sea; but was killed when under deck, in an engagement with the English in 1653.

TRONA. See *Sopa*, § 7.

(1.) * *TRONAGE*. n. s. Money paid for weighing.

(2.) *TRONAGE*, an ancient customary duty or toll, for weighing of wool. According to *Fleta*, *trona* is a beam to weigh with, mentioned in the stat. Westm. 2. cap. 25. And *tronage* was used for the weighing wool in a staple or public mart, by a common *trona* or beam; which, for the *tronage* of wool in London, was fixed at *Leaden-Hall*. The mayor and commonalty of London are ordained keepers of the beams and weights for weighing merchants commodities, with power to assign clerks and porters, &c. of the great beam and balance; which weighing of goods and wares is called *tronage*; and no stranger shall buy any goods in London before they are weighed at the king's beam, on pain of forfeiture.

TRONCHIN, Theodore, M. D. born at Geneva, in 1709; and educated at Cambridge and Leyden, under *BOERHAVE*. He settled at Amsterdam, next at Geneva, finally at Paris, where he died in 1781. He wrote in the *Encyclopedie*, and a treatise de *Nympha*, and *De colica Pilonum*.

TRONDA, or } an island of Scotland, opposite
TRONDRAY, } to *Scalloway*, about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and a broad. It is in the parish of *TINGWALL*.

TRONECKEN, a town of Germany, in the late county of the Rhingrave; now annexed to the French empire, and in the dep. of the Rhine and Moselle, 16 miles E. of *TREVES*.

TRONE,

TRONE WEIGHT, the most ancient of the different weights used in Scotland; and, though now forbidden by several statutes, is still used by many for home commodities, and that in a very irregular manner; for the pound varies in different places, and for different purposes, from 20 to 24 Dutch ounces. The common allowance is 21½ oz. for wool, 20½ for butter and cheese, 20 for tallow, lint, hemp, and hay. It is divided into 16 of its own ounces, and 16 lb. make a stone.

TRONINGE, a town of Sweden, in the prov. of Halland; 8 miles E. of Halmstadt.

TRONQUIERE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot; 12 miles N. of Eigeac, and 9 SE. of St Cere.

TRON, St, or **ST TRAUEN**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and ci-devant bishopric of Liege; 13 miles from Maestricht, and 20 SE. of Louvain. Before the revolution, it had a famous Benedictine abbey. Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 50. 48. N.

TRONTHEIM, or **DRONTHEIM**. See **DRONTHEIM**, N° 1 and 2.

TRONTO, a river of Italy, in the marquise of Ancona, which runs past Ascoli, and falls into the Atlantic; 9 miles ESE. of Monte Brandone.

TRONZAN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and ci-devant Piedmontese; 3 miles S. of St Ja, and 7 NW. of Turin.

(1.) **TROON**, a promontory of Argyllshire, projecting about a mile into the Frith of Clyde. Lon. 1. 42. W. of Edin. Lat. 55. 26. N.

(2.) **TROON BAY**, a bay of the Frith of Clyde, between Cape Troon and Lady Ille, 2 miles broad; which affords safe anchorage at all tides.

(3.) * **TROOP**. *n. f.* [*troupe*, Fr. *troppa*, Italian; *troope*, Dutch; *troop*, Swedish; *troppa*, low Lat.] 1. A company; a number of people collected together.—*Troops* of friends. *Shak*.—Saw you not a blessed troop. *Shak*.—A troop, or an army. *Locke*. 2. A body of soldiers.—And sends his slaughter'd troops to shades below. *Dryden*. 3. A small body of cavalry.

(4.) A **TROOP** is a small body of horse or dragons, commanded by a captain.

* **To TROOP**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To march in a body.—*Troop* in the throngs of military men. *Shak*.—With hundreds, and with thousands, *trooping* came. *Milton*.—*Troop* to their standard. *Milt*. 2. To march in haste.—*Troop* home to churchyards. *Shak*.—They *troop'd* up to the king's capacious court. *Chap*. 3. To march in company.—That *troop* with majesty. *Shak*.

* **TROOPER**. *n. f.* [from *troop*.] A horse soldier. A trooper fights only on horseback; a dragon marches on horseback, but fights either as a horseman or footman.—*Troopers* and travellers. *Grezo*.

TROPÆA, an ancient town of the Brutii, in Italy.

TROPÆOLUM, in botany, **INDIAN CRESS**, a genus of plants, in the class of *Odandria*, and order of *Monogynia*; ranking, according to the natural method, in the 23d order, *Trihilate*.

(1.) * **TROPE**. *n. f.* [*τροπή*; *trope*, Fr. *tropeus*, Lat.] A change of a word from its original signification; as, the clouds *foretel* rain, for *forebode*.

—Out there flew a *trope*. *Hudibras*.—It admits of *trope*s. *Dryden*.

(2.) **TROPE**. See **FIGURE**, **LANGUAGE**, **METAPHOR**, and **ORATORY**, Part III. &c. III.

TROPEA, a town and bishop's see of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, built on a high rock, near the coast, which affords a fine prospect. It contains 5 churches, and 11 convents, and is 37 or 45 miles NNE. of Reggio, and 10 NW. of Nicotera. It was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1638. Lon. 16. 24. E. Lat. 38. 42. N.

TROPESES, St, a sea-port town of France, in the dep. of the Var, and ci-devant prov. of Provence, with a castle, seated on the bay of Crimauld, on the Mediterranean; 12 miles SW. of Frejus, and 58 E. of Marseilles. Lon. 6. 44. E. Lat. 43. 16. N.

TROPHEA AUGUSTI. See **TORRIA**.

* **TROPHIED**. *adj.* [from *trophy*.] Adorned with trophies.—The *trophy'd* arches, story'd halls invade. *Pope*.

TROPHIS, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class *dioecia*, and order of *tetrandria*; and in the natural method ranking in the 16th order, *calcifloræ*. This genus, as well as the other genera of the class *dioecia*, afford the most decisive evidences of the truth of the sexual system, by bearing their male and female flowers on distinct plants.

(1.) **TROPHONIUS**, in fabulous history, a celebrated architect, the son of Erginus, king of Orchomenos, in Boeotia. He built the temple of Apollo at DELPHI, with the assistance of his brother *Agamedes*; and when he demanded a reward for his labour from the god, he was told by the priests to wait 8 days, and to spend that interval in cheerfulness and pleasure. But at the end of this period, Trophonius and his brother were found dead in bed. *Lempr*.

(2.) **TROPHONIUS'S CAVE**, or **ORACLE**, a cave near Libadia, in Boeotia, between Helicau and Chæroneia, (*Strabo*): so called from Trophonius, an enthusiastic diviner; who, descending into this cave, pretended to give answers and pronounce oracles; and was hence called *Jupiter Trophonius*. This cave was seated on a mountain above a grove, was formed by art, and surrounded with a wall. The descent was by a moveable ladder. A swarm of bees are said to have first led to it. Such as went down to this cave, were said never after to smile. See **ORACLE**, § 4; and **MYSTERIES**, § 11.

* **TROPHY**. *n. f.* [*tropeum*, *trophaeum*, Latin.] Something shewn or treasured up in proof of victory.—What *trophy* then shall I most fit devise. *Spenser*.—Giving all trophy, signal, and ostent. *Shak*.—Till we with trophies do adorn thy tomb. *Shak*.—Till I have torn that trophy from thy back. *Shak*.—Trophies erected upon the place of victory. *Baron*.—Trophies of their wars. *Dryden*.—The tomb with many arms and trophies grace. *Pope*.—Trophies on a post. *Taung*.

* **TROPICAL**. *adj.* [from *trope*.] 1. Rhetorically changed from the original meaning.—A look and tropical expression. *Brown*.—Tropical or figurative. *South*.—The tropical or allusive part of the parable. *South*. 2. [From *tropic*.] Placed near the tropick; belonging to the tropick.—The pine apple is one of the tropical fruits. *Salmon*.

R I T (1.) **TROPIC**

(1.) TROPIC BIRD. See PHAETON, § III. N^o 1.

(2.) * TROPICK. *n. f.* [*tropique*, Fr. *tropicus*, Lat.] The line at which the sun turns back, of which the North has the tropick of Cancer, and the South the tropick of Capricorn. Under the *tropick* is our language spoke. *Waller*.—Seven times the sun has either *tropick* view'd. *Dryden*.

(3.) TROPICS. See CANCER, § II. 2; CAPRICORN, § 3; and GEOGRAPHY, *Sett.* VI.

TROPINO, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi on the Piazzida. Lon. 108. 0. E. Fer. Lat. 71. 36. N.

* TROPOLOGICAL. *adj.* [*tropologique*, Fr. *τροπος* and *λογος*.] Varied by tropes; changed from the original import of the words.

(1.) * TROPOLOGY. *n. f.* [*τροπος* and *λογος*.] A rhetorical mode of speech including tropes, or a change of some word from the original meaning.—Superconsequences, coherences, figures, or *tropologies*. *Brown*.

(2.) TROPOLOGY. See COMPARISON, FIGURE, METAPHOR, and ORATORY, *Part* III. *Sett.* III.

(1.) TROPFAU, or TROPFAW, a principality of Upper Silesia, bounded on the N. by that of Oppelin, on the E. by Ratibor and Teschen; on the S. and W. by Moravia. The soil is fertile in corn, fruits, and pasture. It contains 11 towns; and is divided between the king of Prussia and the house of Austria.

(2.) TROPFAU, or } a city of Upper Silesia, be-
(2.) TROPFAW, } longing to the emperor, the capital of the above duchy. It is large, handsome, and strong, and has an ancient castle. It was taken by the Prussians in 1741, and 1756; but restored by subsequent treaties. It is seated in a pleasant plain, on the banks of the Oppa and Mohra, 40 miles N. by E. of Olmutz, and 72 S. by E. of Breslaw. Lon. 17. 40. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

TROPLOWITZ, a town of Silesia, in Troppau, 17 miles NNW. of Troppau, and 5 NNW. of Ingerndorf.

TROQUEER, or } a parish of Scotland, in
TROQUIRE, } Kirkcudbrightshire, on the banks of the Nith, opposite to Dumfries, to which it is joined by 2 bridges, at the end of which is a considerable village called Bridgend. (See BRIDGEND, N^o 2.) It is 7½ miles long, and 4½ broad, partly hilly, partly flat. It contains 3625 acres, of which 1450 are cultivated, 3625 arable, but laid out in pasture, and 350 under wood. The population, in 1790, was 2600; the increase 1209, since 1755.

TROS, in fabulous history, the 5th king of Troy, the son of Erichthonius, and grandson of Dardanus, and from whom it was named TROYA. He married Callirhoe, the daughter of SCAMANDER, by whom he had Ilus, Affracus, and Ganymedes. See GANYMEDES.

TROSA, a sea-port of Sweden, in Sudermania, on the Baltic, 18 miles SW. of Stockholm.

TROSACHS, a mountainous district of Perthshire, 10 miles W. of Callander, remarkable for its romantic scenery, which is elegantly described by the rev. Dr James Robertson, in his *Stat. Account of Callendar*. The Trosachs and Loch Catherine, have of late been rendered particularly famous, and a great resort of travellers, by Walter

Scott's celebrated poem of the Lady of the Lake; of which the scene is there laid and embellished with all the graces of that fertile muse.

TROSBURG, a town of Upper Bavaria, 13 miles E. of Wafferburg, and 12 SW. of Burkhaußen.

* TROSSERS. *n. f.* [*trousses*, Fr.] Breeches; hose. See TROUSE.—You rode like a kern of Ireland; your French hose off, and in your strait *troussers*. *Shak*.

TROSSULI. See next article.

TROSSULUM, an ancient town of Etruria, which was taken by a body of Roman knights, without the assistance of the soldiers, and who were hence called TROSSULI. *Plin.* 32. 2. *Sen. ep.* 86. 87.

TROSTRIE, a beautiful lake of Kirkcudbrightshire, in Twyneholm parish, abounding with pikes.

* TROT. *n. f.* [*trót*, Fr. from the verb.] 1. The jolting high pace of a horse.—Who rides his sure and even *trot*. *Herbert*.—While he might still jog on and keep his *trot*. *Milton*.—The virtuoso's saddle will amble when the world is upon the hardest *trot*. *Dryden*. 2. An old woman, in contempt. I know not whence derived.—Marry him to an old trot with ne'er a tooth in her head. *Shak*.—How now bold-face, cries an old *trot*. *L'Est*.

* To TROT. *v. n.* [*troter*, Fr. *tróttien*, Dutch.] 1. To move with a high jolting pace.—To ride on a bay trotting horse. *Shak*.—Time *trots* hard with a young maid, between the contract of her marriage and the day it is solemniz'd. *Shak*.—A gentle trotting horse. *Dennis*. 2. To walk fast; or to travel on foot; in a ludicrous or contemptuous sense.

* TROTTH. *n. f.* [*trouth*, old English; *treoth*, Saxon.] 1. Belief; faith; fidelity.—Bid her light and her *trotth* plight. *Shak*.—Th' afflicted state, divided in their *trotth*. *Daniel*. 2. Truth; verity.—In *trotth*, thou'rt able to instruct grey hairs. *Addis*.

* TROTTHLESS. *adj.* [from *trotth*.] Faithless; treacherous.—Thrall to the faithless waves and *trotthless* sky. *Fairfax*.

* TROTTHPLIGHT. *adj.* [*trotth* and *plight*.] Betrothed; affianced.—He's *trotthplight* to your daughter. *Shak*.

TROTTHY, a river of England, in Monmouthshire, which runs into the Wye near Monmouth.

TROTILUM, an ancient town of Sicily. *Thuc.* 6.

(1.) TROTTER, Mrs Catharine, a most accomplished lady and celebrated writer, was the daughter of Captain Trotter, a native of Scotland, and an officer in the navy of Charles II. She was born in London, 1679. In her 17th year she produced a tragedy called *Agnes du Castra*, which was acted in 1695. This was followed by *Fatal Friendship*, a tragedy, 1698; *Love at a Loss*, a comedy, 1701; *The Unhappy Penitent*, a tragedy, *Gustavus Vasa*, a tragedy, 1703; acted at the Hay-market in 1706. She published also a defence of her conversion from popery, and different treatises on moral and metaphysical subjects. She married Mr Cockburne, a clergyman of the church of Scotland, 1708, and died in 1749. Her works were published in 1751, in two vols 8vo.

(2.) * TROTTER.

(2.) * **TROTTER**. *n. f.* [from *trot*.] 1. One that walks a jolting pace. 2. A sheep's foot.

TROTZA, a river of Russia, in Viatka, which runs into the Kama; 16 miles N. of Kofa.

TROUARD. See **TROARN**.

TROUBADOURS. *n. f.* poets who flourished in Provence during the 12th century. They wrote poems on love and gallantry; on the illustrious characters and remarkable events of the times; satires which were chiefly directed against the clergy and monks; and a few didactic pieces. The troubadours were great favourites in different courts, diffused a taste for their language and for poetry over Europe, which was about that time sunk in ignorance and rudeness; they disappeared in the 14th century. A history of the troubadours in 3 volumes 16mo; was begun by M. de Sainte Palaise, and finished by the Abbé Millot. See **MUSIC**, *Hist.* § 46.

* **TROUBLE**. *n. s.* [*trouble*, Fr.] 1. Disturbance; perplexity.—They stood a while in *trouble*. *Milton*. 2. Affliction; calamity.—Double, double, toil and *trouble*. *Shak*. 3. Molestation; obstruction; inconvenience.—Some new *trouble* raise. *Milton*. 4. Uneasiness; vexation.—Much offence and *trouble*. *Milton*.

* **To TROUBLE**. *v. a.* [*troubler*, Fr.] 1. To disturb; to perplex.—A *troubled* mind drew me to walk abroad. *Shak*.—But think not here to *trouble* holy rest. *Milton*.—Never *trouble* yourself about those faults. *Locke*. 2. To afflict; to grieve.—It would not *trouble* me to be slain for thee. *Sidney*.—A wife man ought not to be *troubled* at afflictions. *Tillotson*.—It is vain to be *troubled* for that which I cannot chuse. *Tillotson*. 3. To distress; to make uneasy.—*Troubled* not himself for others. *Clar*.—Be not dismay'd nor *troubled* at these tidings. *Milt*.—He was sore *troubled* in mind. 1 *Mac*. 4. To busy; to engage overmuch.—Martha, thou art *troubled* about many things. *Luke* x. 41. 5. To give occasion of labour to. A word of civility or slight regard.—I will not *trouble* myself to prove. *Locke*. 6. To teize; to vex.—The boy *troubles* me. *Shak*. 7. To disorder; to put into agitation or commotion.—A woman mov'd is like a foundation *troubled*. *Shak*.—An angel *troubled* the water. *John* v. 4.—God looking forth with *trouble* all his host. *Milton*.—Their office is the *troubled* air to take. *Davies*.—The seas are *troubled*. *Davies*.—It *troubles* and defiles the water. *South*.—*Trouble* and pervert the course of justice. *Addison*.—Swell the *troubled* main. *Dryden*. 8. [In low language.] To sue for a debt.

* **TROUBLER**. *n. f.* [from *trouble*.] Disturber; confounder.—The *troubler* of my happy peace. *Spenser*.—Thou *troubler* of the poor world's peace! *Shak*.—Great conquerors and *troublers* of the world. *Bacon*.—The rich *troublers* of the world's repose. *Waller*.—Great *troubler* of our peace. *Atterbury*.

* **TROUBLESOME**. *adj.* [from *trouble*.] 1. Vexatious; uneasy; afflictive.—How *troublesome* 'tis upon my head. *Shak*.—Things very *troublesome*. *Tillotson*. 2. Full of molestation.—Our passage through this world is rough and *troublesome*. *Atterb*. 3. Burdensome; tiresome; wearisome.—My mother will never be *troublesome* to me. *Pope*.

4. Full of teasing business.—So *troublesome* an idleness. *Sidney*. 5. Slightly harassing.—These *troublesome* disguises. *Milton*.—So *troublesome* a bedfellow. *Shak*. 6. Unreasonably engaging; improperly importuning.—

She of late is lightened of her womb,

That her to see should be but *troublesome*. *Spenser*.

7. Importunate; teasing.—*Troublesome* old nurses. *Arbutnot*.

* **TROUBLESOMELY**. *adv.* [from *troublesome*.] Vexatiously; wearisomely; unreasonably; importunately.—*Troublesomely* critical. *Locke*.

* **TROUBLESOMENESS**. *n. f.* [from *troublesome*.] 1. Vexatiousness; uneasiness.—The treasurer complained of the *troublesomeness* of the place. *Bacon*. 2. Importunity; unreasonableness.

* **TROUBLE-STATE**. *n. f.* [*trouble* and *state*.] Disturber of a community; public makebate.—Those fair baits these *trouble-states* still use. *Dan*.

* **TROUBLOUS**. *adj.* [from *trouble*.] Tumultuous; confused; disordered; put into commotion. An elegant word, but disused.—And oft would dare tempt the *troubulous* wind. *Spenser*.—Their *troubulous* strife they stinted by and by. *Spenser*.—People's *troubulous* cries. *Spenser*.—As a tall ship tossed in *troubulous* seas. *Spenser*.—Then, masters, look to see a *troubulous* world. *Shak*.—In four years *troubulous* and expensive reign. *Daniel*.

* **TROVER**. *n. s.* [*trouver*, Fr.] In the common law, is an action which a man hath against one that having found any of his goods refuseth to deliver them upon demand. *Cowell*.

* **TROUGH**. *n. f.* [*trog*, *troh*, Saxon; *troch*, Dutch; *trou*, Danish; *traug*, Icelandic; *truogo*, Ital.] Any thing hollowed and open longitudinally on the upper side.—

The bloody boar

Swills your warm blood like wash, and makes his *trough*

In your embowel'd bosoms. *Shak*.

—They had no ships but big *troughs*, which they call canoes. *Abbot*.—A half *trough* of stone. *Bac*.—And hollow'd, first a floating *trough* became. *Dryd*.—Separated by water, afterwards in a long *trough*. *Brown*.—The water is conveyed by long *troughs* and canals. *Addis*.

* **To TROUL**. *v. n.* [*trollen*, to roll, Dutch.] See **TROLL**. 1. To move volubly.—To drefs, and *troul* the tongue, and roll the eye. *Milt*. 2. To utter volubly.—Will you *troul* the catch. *Shak*.

* **To TROUNCE**. *v. a.* [derived by *Skinner* from *trunc* or *tronfon*, French, a club.] To punish by an indictment or information.—Their plighted contracts have been *troun'd*. *Hudibras*.—I'll *trounce* you for offering to corrupt my honesty. *Dryden*.

TROUP-HEAD, a cape of Scotland, on the N. coast of Banff-shire, 10 m. W. of Kinnaird Point.

* **TROUSE**. *n. f.* [*trouffe*, Fr. *truis*, Erse.]

* **TROUSERS**. Breeches; hose. See **TROUSERS**.—The leather jockey jack cover his *trouse* on horseback. *Spenser*.—Laced *trouse*. *Wifeman*.

(1.) * **TROUT**. *n. f.* [*trub*, Saxon; *trosta*, *truta*, *trutta*, Lat.] 1. A delicate spotted fish inhabiting brooks and quick streams.—The pond will keep *trout*. *Carew*.—

Where ev'ry *trout* can make as high rants

O'er his inferiours as our tyrants.

Swift.

2. A familiar phrase for an honest, or perhaps for a silly fellow.—Here comes the *trout* that must be caught with tickling. *Shak.*

(3—4.) TROUT. See SALMO. N° 4. 7, and 9.

TROUTBECK, a river of England, in Westmoreland, which runs into the Eden, 3 miles below Appleby.

* TROW. *interj.* [for *I trow*, or *trow you*.] An exclamation of inquiry.—What means the fool, *trow*? *Shak.*

* To TROW. *v. n.* [*treotbian*, Saxon; *troe*, Danish.] 1. To think; to imagine; to conceive. A word now disused, and rarely used even in ancient writers but in familiar language.—What hand-someness, *trow* you, can be observed in speech? *Sidney*.—Is there any reasonable man, *trow* you? *Hosker*.—"Tis time, I *trow*. *Shak.*—O rueful day! rueful indeed, I *trow*. *Gay*. 2. To believe.—Learn more than thou *trowest*. *Shak.*

TROWBRIDGE, a town of England, in Wiltshire, on a hill, on the banks of the Were, famous for its manufacture of broad cloth. It had a castle, and has a market on Saturday, 10 miles S.E. of Bath, 98 W. of London. Lon. 2. 6. W. Lat. 51. 19. N.

* TROWEL. *n. f.* [*truella*, Fr. *trulla*, Latin.] 1. A *trowel* is a tool to take up the mortar with. *Maxon*.—This was dextrous at his *trowel*. *Swift*. 2. It is used for any coarse instrument.—Well said, that was laid on with a *trowel*. *Shak.*—They seem done with a mattock, or a *trowel*. *Wilkins*.

TROWERYN, a river of N. Wales, which rises from a lake in Merionethshire, and runs into the Dee.

(1.) TROY, an ancient city of Phrygia, the destruction of which affords the subject of Homer's *Iliad*. (See TROJA, N° 1.) It had 8 kings; though some enumerate only 6: viz. 1. SCAMANDER, the founder; TEUCER, his son; 3. DARDANUS, his son-in-law; 4. ERICHTHONIUS, his son; 5. TROS, 6. ILUS, his son; 7. LAOMEDON, in whose reign, Troy was taken and sacked by Hercules; and 8. PRIAM, under whom it was destroyed. Of all the wars of antiquity that of Troy is the most famous, particularly immortalized in the *Iliad* and the *Æneid*. Much discussion has taken place among the learned as to the reality of the events and the seat of the place. We may refer particularly to Bryant and Chevalier. The latter published a description of the plain of Troy in the 2d volume of the transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. He fixes the site of the place, and the various scenes described by Homer. He describes particularly the tombs of Elyetes, Ilus, Ajax, Hector, Achilles, Patroclus, and Antilochus. The dissertation was translated and enriched with large notes and illustrations by Mr Dalzel, Greek professor in the University of Edinburgh. Various English travellers have more recently visited those interesting scenes of classic times, and several publications of note have appeared, particularly by Mr Gell, occasioning much diversity of opinion, and much learned discussion on questions now only interesting from their classical celebrity. Lon. 26. 30. E. Lat. 39. 40. N.

(2.) TROY, a post town of New York, in Rensselaer county, seated on the E. bank of the Hudson, 6 miles above Albany, W. of Petersburg.

(3.) * TROY.

} *n. f.* [from *Trois*, Fr.] (3.) * TROY-WEIGHT. } A kind of weight by which gold and bread are weighed, consisting of these denominations: a pound = 12 ounces; ounce = 20 pennyweights; pennyweight = 24 grains.—The English physicians make use of *troyweight*, after the following manner: 20 grains = 1 scruple, 3 scruples = 1 drachm, 8 drachms = 1 oz. 12 oz. = 1 lb.—The Romans left their *avordupois* ounce, for our *troy* ounce, we had elsewhere. *Arbutnot*.

(4.) TROY-WEIGHT, one of the most ancient of the different kinds used in Britain. The ounce of this weight was brought from Grand Cairo in Egypt, about the time of the crusades, into Europe, and first adopted in TROYES, a city of France whence the name.

(5.) TROY-WEIGHT, SCOTS, was established pound. The pound contains 7600 grains, and is equal to 17 oz. 6 dr. *avordupois*. The *cwt.* or only one weight should be used in Scotland, viz. the French *Troy* stone of 16 lb. and 16 oz. in the lb. by James VI. in the year 1618, who enacted, that 112 lb. *avordupois*, contains only 103 lb. 2½ oz. of this weight, though generally reckoned equal to 104 lb. This weight is nearly, if not exactly, the same as that of Paris and Amsterdam; and is generally known by the name of *Dutch weight*. Though prohibited by the articles of union, it is still used in weighing iron, hemp, flax, most Dutch and Baltic goods, meal, butcher-meat, unwrought pewter and lead, and some other articles.

TROYES, an ancient, large, and rich city of France, in the dep. of the Aube, and ci-devant capital of the prov. of Champagne. Before the revolution it was a bishop's see, had 14 churches, 4 abbeys, a castle the residence of the ancient Counts, 10 convents, a college, a public library, and an hospital. All the houses are built of wood, though very elegant. It is surrounded with walls and fine meadows. The citizens carry on a great trade in linen, flax, hemp, cottons, fustians; dimities, wax candles, chandlery, and wine. It is seated on the Seine, 30 miles ENE. of Sens, and 90 ESE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 10. E. Lat. 48. 13. N.

(1.) * TRUANT. *adj.* Idle; wandering from business; lazy; loitering.—A *truant* disposition, good my lord. *Shak.*—And chide his *truant* youth. *Shak.*—Lag behind with *truant* pace. *Dryden*.

(2.) * TRUANT. *n. f.* [*truand*, old Fr. *truwant*, Dutch, a *vagabond*.] An idler; one who wanders idly about, neglecting his duty or employment. To play the *truant* is, in schools, to stay from school without leave.—I have a *truant* bent to chivalry. *Shak.*—Though myself have been an idle *truant*. *Shak.*—Idle loiterers and *truants*. *Morr.*—And you like *truants* come too late ashore. *Dryden*.

* To TRUANT. *v. n.* [*truander*, to beg about a country, Fr. *truwanten*, old German.] To idle at a distance from duty; to loiter; to be lazy.—'Tis double wrong to *truant* with your bed. *Shak.*

* TRUANTSHIP. *n. f.* *truante*, old Fr. from *truant*; *truandise* in Chaucer is beggary.] Idleness; negligence; neglect of study or business.—The master should not chide if the child have used no *truantship*. *Afscam*.

* TRUBS. *n. s.* [*tuber*, Lat.] A sort of herb. *Am.*

* TRUBTAIL. *n. s.* A short squat woman. *Am.* TRUBTCHEVSK,

TRUBTCHESK, a town of Russia, in the province of Orel, on the Desna; 80 miles WSW. of Orel. Lon. 51. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 35. N.

* **TRUCE**. *n. f.* [*truga*, low Lat. *tregua*, Italian; *truce*, old French.] 1. A temporary peace; a cessation of hostilities.—Leagues and *truces*. *Hooker*.—Could not make *truce*. *Shak*.—This token ferveth for a flag of *truce*. *Shak*.—Men without natural affection, *truce* breakers. 2 *Tim*. iii. 3.—Left the *truce* with treason should be mixt. *Dryd*.—Ne'er wou'd have peace with wit, nor *truce* with sense. *Dryden*. 2. Cessation; intermission; short quiet.—*Truce* to his restless thoughts. *Milton*.—Sicknesses, which gave him but short and seldom *truce*. *Fell*.

TRUCHTERSHEIM, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine; 7½ miles W. of Strasburg, and 12 SE. of Haguenau.

* **TRUCIDATION**. *n. f.* [from *trucido*, Latin.] The act of killing.

* **TRUCK**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Exchange; traffick by exchange.—It is no less requisite to maintain a *truck* in moral offices, than in commerce. *L'Esf*.—I must have heart for heart in equal *truck*. *Dryd*. 2. [*τροχός*]. Wooden wheels for carriage of cannon. *Anst*.

(1.) * **To TRUCK**. *v. a.* To give in exchange; to exchange.—The Indians *truck* gold for glasses. *L'Esf*.—*Truck* wares for wares. *Dryd*.—To *Truck* and barter out goods like the wild Indians. *Swift*.

(2.) * **To TRUCK**. *v. n.* [*troquer*, Fr. *truccare*, Italian; *trocar*, Spanish; deduced by *Salmasius* from *τροχός*, to get money.] To traffick by exchange; to give one commodity for another.

* **To TRUCKLE**. *v. n.* [This word is, I believe, derived from *trucklebed*, which is always under another bed.] To be in a state of subjection or inferiority; to yield; to creep.—A land that *truckles* under us. *Cleaveland*.—Run down in courts and *truckle'd*. *Hudib*.—Men may ply and *truckle* too. *L'Esf*.—Religion itself is forced to *truckle* to worldly policy. *Norris*.—Perhaps he might have *truckled* down. *Swift*.—A small *truckling* state. *Swift*.

* **TRUCKLEBED**, or *trundlebed*. *n. f.* [properly *troclebed*; from *troclea*, Latin, or *τροχός*.] A bed that runs on wheels under a higher bed.—There's his standing bed and *trucklebed*. *Shak*.—Honour's *trucklebed*. *Hudib*.

* **TRUCULENCE**. *n. f.* [*truculentia*, Lat.] 1. Savageness of manners. 2. Terribleness of aspect.

* **TRUCULENT**. *adj.* [*truculentus*, Lat.] 1. Savage; barbarous.—Savage and *truculent* inhabitants. *Ray*. 2. Terrible of aspect. 3. Destructive; cruel.—*Truculent* plagues. *Harvey*.

TRUCULENTLY. *adv.* Savagely, barbarously.

* **To TRUDGE**. *v. n.* [*truggolare*, Italian.] To travel laboriously; to jog on; to march heavily on.—That *trudge* between the king and mistress Shore. *Shak*.—No sooner was he fit to *trudge*. *Hudib*.—Away they *trudged* together. *L'Esf*.—And *trudge'd* to Rome upon my naked feet. *Dryd*.—Servile minds *trudge* continually in the beaten track. *Locke*.

* **TRUE**. *adj.* [*treowa*, *truwa*, Saxon.] 1. Not false; not erroneous; agreeing with fact, or with the nature of things.—And fittest for to forge *true*

seeming lies. *Spens*.—And, if the rest be *true* which I have heard. *Shak*.—Hesperian fables *true*. *Milt*.—What you said had not been *true*. *Cowley*. 2. Not false; agreeing with our own thoughts. 3. Pure from the crime of falsehood; veracious.—A *true* witness delivereth souls. *Prov*. 4. Genuine; real; not counterfeit.—The *true* light now shineth. 1 *John*.—What harmony or *true* delight. *Milt*.—And teach that truth is *trust* poetry. *Cowley*.—Religion, gives the *trust* value to them who promote the practice of it by their example. *Atterb*. 5. Faithful; not perfidious; steady.—Come and be *true*. *Shak*.—So young my lord, and *true*. *Shak*.—And wash him fresh again with *true* love tears. *Shak*.—So *true*, to faithful, love unequal'd. *Milt*.—Yourself may to yourself be *true*. *Roscommon*.—These that are *true* to the party. *Temple*.—Smil'd Venus, to behold her own *true* knight. *Dryd*.—*True* to the king her principles are found. *Dryd*.—The *trust* hearts for Voiture heav'd with sighs. *Pope*.—*True* to his charge. *Pope*. 6. Honest; not fraudulent.—The thieves have bound the *true* man. *Shak*.—If king Edward be as *true* and just. *Shak*. 7. Exactly; truly conformable to a rule.—If great painters had made things more regularly *true* they would have been very unpleasing. *Dryd*.—A circle regularly *true*. *Prior*.—A translation nicely *true* to the original. *Arb*. 8. Rightful.—That the *true* anointed King Messiah. *Milt*.

* **TRUEBORN**. *adj.* [*true* and *born*.] Having a right by birth to any title.—A *trueborn* Englishman. *Shak*.—A *trueborn* gentleman. *Shak*.

* **TRUEBRED**. *adj.* [*true* and *bred*.] Of a right breed.—*Truebred* cowards. *Shak*.—*Truebred* beast. *Dryden*.

* **TRUEHEARTED**. *adj.* [*true* and *heart*.] Honest; faithful.—I have known no *truehearted* man. *Shak*.

(1.) * **TRUELOVE**. *n. f.* An herb.

(2.) **TRUELOVE**, in botany. See **PARIS**, N° 9; and **TRILLIUM**.

* **TRUELOVEKNOT**. } *n. f.* [*true*, love, and
* **TRUELOVERSKNOT**. } *knot*.] Lines drawn through each other with many involutions, considered as the emblem of interwoven affection.—*Trueloveknots*, and flourishes. *Hudib*.

* **TRUENESS**. *n. f.* [from *true*.] Sincerity; faithfulness.—*Trueness* to a man's self. *Bacon*.

(1.) **TRUENTINUM**, or } a river of Italy, in
(1.) **TRUENTUM** } Picenum, running into the Adriatic.

(2.) **TRUENTUM**, a town on the above river.

* **TRUEPENNY**. *n. f.* [*true* and *penny*.] A familiar phrase for an honest fellow.—Art thou there, *truepenny*? *Shak*.

* **TRUFFLE**. *n. f.* [*truffe*, *truffe*, French.] Subterraneous mushrooms. *Ray*.

(2.) **TRUFFLES**. See **LYCOPERDON**.

TRUFTLORN, a town of Lower Bavaria; 13 miles SSW. of Vilshofen, and 22 WSW. of Passau.

* **TRUG**. *n. f.* A hod for mortar.

TRUGILLO, a town of Terra Firma, in Venezuela, 120 miles S. of Lake Maracaybo; Lon. 7. 40. W. Lat. 9. 46. N.

TRUIM, a river of Inverness shire, which runs into the Spey, at the church of Liggan.

* **TRULL**. *n. f.* [*trulla*, Italian.] 1. A low whore; a vagrant stumpet.—I'm sure, I scar'd the

the dauphin and his *trull*. *Shak.*—A *trull* who for her living knits. *Dryd.*—To celebrate some suburb *trull*. *Swift.* 2. It seems to have had first at least a neutral sense: a girl; a lass; a wench.—

Among the rest of all the route,

A passing proper lass,

A white-hair'd *trull*, of twenty years. *Tabern.*

* **TRULY**. *adv.* [from *true*.] 1. According to truth; not falsely; faithfully; honestly.—They thought they might do it, not only willingly, but *truly*. *Sidney.*—Things most *truly* are most behoovefully spoken. *Hooker.* 2. Really; without fallacy.—Wisdom alone is *truly* fair. *Milton.*—Such are *truly* holy. *Pearson.* 3. Exactly; justly.—Right reason is nothing else but judging of things *truly*. *South.* 4. Indeed; a slight affirmation, almost expletive.—I have not undertaken it *truly* without often pondering with myself. *Wett.*

TRUMAU, a town of Austria; 5 miles E. of Baden.

TRUMBULL, Sir William, an English statesman, born in Berkshire in 1636. He went ambassador to France, and was some time secretary of state. He is known in literature chiefly as the early patron and correspondent of Pope. He died in 1710.

TRUMIAN, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 40 miles SW. of Tanjore, and 34 S. of Trichinopoly.

* **TRUMP**. *n. f.* [*trompe*, Dutch, and old Fr. *tromba*, Italian.] 1. A trumpet; an instrument of warlike music.—Whilst any *trump* did sound, or drum struck up. *Shak.*—The wakeful *trump* of doom. *Milton.*—And sounding *trumps* that seem'd to tear the sky. *Dryden.*—When the archangel's *trump* shall blow. *Wesley.* 2. [Corrupted from *triumph*. *Latimer*, in a Christmas sermon, exhibiting a game at cards, and made the ace of hearts *triumph*. *Fox.*] A winning card; a card that has particular privileges in a game.—Gain'd but one *trump* and one plebeian card. *Pope.*—She scarce remembers what is *trumps*. *Swift.* 3. To put to or upon the *TRUMPS*. To put to the last expedient.—We are now put upon our last *trump*. *Dryd.*

* To **TRUMP**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To win with a trump card. 2. To **TRUMP** up. [from *tromper*, Fr. to cheat.] To devise; to forge.

* **TRUMPERY**. *n. f.* [*tromperie*, French, a cheat.] 1. Something fallaciously splendid; something of less value than it seems.—The *trumpery* in my house bring hither. *Shak.* 2. Falsehood; empty talk.—Breaking into parts the story, and mixed it with their own *trumpery*. *Raleigh.* 3. Something of no value; trifles.—White, black, and grey, with all their *trumpery*. *Milton.*—Billeted, pricked dances, and other *trumpery*. *Addis.*

(1.) * **TRUMPET**. *n. f.* [*trompette*, French and Dutch.] 1. An instrument of martial music sounded by the breath.—Such a hideous *trumpet* calls to parley. *Shak.*—Let him appear by the third sound of the *trumpet*. *Shak.*—At the *trumpet's* call. *Cowley.*—He blew his *trumpet*. *Milt.*—The last loud *trumpet's* wondrous sound. *Ross.*—By the loud *trumpet*, which our courage aids. *Haller.*—The *trumpet's* loud clangor. *Dryden.*—Every man must be in some measure the *trumpet*

of his fame. *Tatler.*—Let the loud *trumpet* sound. *Pope.* 2. In military style, a trumpeter.—He desired, that a *trumpet* might be first sent for a pass. *Clarendon.*—The enemy demanded by a *trumpet*. *Addis.* 3. One who celebrates; one who praises.—*Trumpets* of the commendation of those they follow. *Bacon.*—That the great politician was pleased to be the *trumpet* of his praises. *Dryden.*

(2.) The **TRUMPET** is used chiefly in war, among the cavalry, to direct them in the service. Some Greek historians ascribe the invention to the Tyrrhenians; but others, with greater probability, to the Egyptians. The trumpet was not in use among the Greeks at the time of the Trojan war; though it was in common use in the time of Homer. According to Potter, (*Arch. Græc.* vol. ii. cap. 9.) before the invention of trumpets, the first signals of battle in primitive wars were lighted torches; to these succeeded shells of fishes, which were sounded like trumpets.

(3.) **TRUMPET**, ARTICULATE, comprehending both the **SPEAKING** and the **HEARING** trumpet, is by much the most valuable instrument. That the *speaking* trumpet was well known to the ancient Greeks, the trumpet of Alexander, and the *whispering* caverns of Diopylius, will not allow us to doubt. It is also certain, from Beritarius's History of the Jesuits, that this instrument was in use in Peru in the 16th century. About the middle of the last century, Athanasius Kircher, in different works, threw out many useful and scientific hints on the construction of speaking trumpets; (See **ACOUSTICS**, *Sec.* IV. and **KIRCHER**, N° 1.) which for some time did not attract much notice. About the year 1670, Sir Samuel Morland exhibited some instruments which he called *stentorophonic horns*, which conveyed articulate sounds to a surprising distance, and he proposed a question to the Royal Society, respecting the best form for a speaking trumpet, vindicating at the same time that of his own instrument, which was conical, suddenly spreading at the mouth. The subject attracted attention on the continent, and a Mr Gaslegrain proposed a conoid formed by the revolution of a hyperbola round its asymptote as the best form. A Mr Hafe of Wirtemberg, on the other hand, proposed a parabolic conoid, having the mouth of the speaker placed in the focus. Which form is the best, is a question that involves deep mathematical calculations. Mr Lambert of Berlin reasons in the following manner in favour of the conical shape, which is universally adopted. Sound naturally spreads in all directions; but we know that echoes or reflected sounds proceed almost strictly in certain limited directions. If therefore we contrive a trumpet in such a way that the lines of echo shall be confined within a certain space, it is reasonable to suppose that the sound will become more audible in proportion as this diffusion is prevented. Therefore, if we can oblige a sound which, in the open air, would have diffused itself over a hemisphere, to keep within a cone of 120°, we should expect it to be twice as audible within this cone. This will be accomplished, by making the reflections such that the lines of reflected sound shall be confined within this cone. We here suppose that nothing is lost

in the reflection. Let us examine the effect of a cylindrical trumpet. Let the trumpet be a cylinder ABED, (Fig. 1. Plate CCCXXXVII.) and let C be a sounding point in the axis. It is evident that all the sound in the cone BCE will go forward without any reflection. Let CM be any other line of sound, which we may, for brevity's sake, call a *sonorous* or *phonic* line. Being reflected in the points M, N, O, P, it is evident that it will at last escape from the trumpet in a direction PQ, equally diverging from the axis with the line CM. The same must be true of every other sonorous line. Therefore the echoes will all diverge from the mouth of the trumpet in the same manner as they would have proceeded from C without any trumpet. Even supposing, therefore, that the echoes are as strong as the original sound, no advantage is gained by such a trumpet, but that of bringing the sound forward from C to *e*. This is quite trifling when the hearer is at a distance. Yet we see that sounds may be heard at a very great distance, at the end of long, narrow, cylindrical, or prismatic galleries. It is known that a voice may be distinctly heard at the distance of several hundred feet in the Roman aqueducts, whose sides are perfectly straight and smooth, being plastered with stucco. The smooth surface of the still water greatly contributes to this effect. Cylindrical or prismatic trumpets must therefore be rejected. Let the trumpet be a cone BCA (fig. 2.) of which CN is the axis, DK a line perpendicular to the axis, and DFHI the path of a reflected sound in the plane of the axis. The last angle of reflection IHA is equal to the last angle of incidence FHC. The angle BFH, or its equal CFD, is equal to the angles FHD and FCH; that is, the angle of incidence CFD exceeds the next angle of incidence FHC by the angle FCD; that is, by the angle of the cone. In like manner, FDH exceeds CFD by the same angle FCD. Thus every succeeding angle, either of incidence or reflection, exceeds the next by the angle of the cone. Call the angle of the cone a , and let b be the first angle of incidence PDC. The second, or DFC, is $b-a$. The third, or FHC, is $b-2a$, &c.; and the n th angle of incidence or reflection is $b-na$, after n reflections. Since the angle diminishes by equal quantities at each subsequent reflection, it is plain, that whatever be the first angle of incidence, it may be exhausted by this diminution; namely, when n times a exceeds or is equal to b . Therefore, to know how many reflections of a sound, whose first incidence has the inclination b , can be made in an infinitely extended cone, whose angle is a , divide b by a ; the quotient will give the number n of reflections, and the remainder, if any, will be the last angle of incidence or reflection less than a . It is very plain, that when an angle of reflection IHA is equal to or less than the angle BCA of the cone, the reflected line HI will no more meet with the other side CB of the cone. We may here observe, that the greatest angle of incidence is a right angle, or 90° . This sound would be reflected back in the same line, and would be incident on the opposite side in an angle $=90^\circ-a$, &c. Thus we see that a conical trumpet is well suited for confining the sound; for by prolonging it sufficiently, we can keep the lines of

reflected sound wholly within the cone. And when it is not carried to such a length as to do this, when it allows the sounding line GH, for example, to escape without farther reflection, the divergency from the axis is less than the last angle of reflection BGH by half the angle BCA of the cone. If therefore the cone be of such a length, that its diameter at the mouth is equal to the length of the part cut off, every line of sound will have at least as many reflections, save one, as if the cone were infinitely long; and the last reflected line will either be parallel to the opposite side of the cone, or lie nearer the axis than this parallel; consequently, such a cone will confine all the reflected sounds within a cone whose angle is a , and will augment the sound in the proportion of the spherical base of this cone to a complete hemispherical surface. This appears to be the best general rule for constructing the instrument: for, to procure another reflection, the tube must be prodigiously lengthened, and we cannot suppose that one reflection more will add greatly to its power. It appears, too, that the length depends chiefly on the angle of the cone; for the mouth piece may be considered as nearly a fixed quantity. It must be of a size to admit the mouth when speaking with force and without constraint. About an inch and a half may be fixed on for its diameter. The foregoing conclusions are therefore general for all the sounds which come in all directions from every point in the area of the mouth-piece. Thus it appears, that a conical trumpet is well fitted for increasing the force of sounds by diminishing their final divergence. For, had the speaker's mouth been in the open air, the sounds which are now confined within the cone $v W t$ would have been diffused over a hemisphere; and we see that prolonging the trumpet must confine the sounds still more. An inconvenience still attends the trumpet of this construction. Its complete audibility is confined to the cylindrical space in the direction of the axis, and it is more faintly heard on each side of it. This obliges us to direct the trumpet very exactly to the spot where we wish it to be heard. This is confirmed by all the accounts we have of the performance of great speaking trumpets. It is evident, that by lengthening the trumpet, and therefore enlarging its mouth, we make the lines expand, and therefore it will not be so difficult to direct the trumpet. But even this is confined within the limits of a few degrees. Even if the trumpet were continued without end, the sounds cannot be reinforced in a wider space than the cone of the trumpet. But it is always advantageous to increase its length; for this makes the extreme tangents embrace a greater portion of the sonorous sphere, and thus increases the sound in the space where it is all reflected. And the limiting tangents expand still more, and thus the space of full effect is increased. But either of these augmentations is very small in comparison of the augmentation of size. If the trumpet were made 100 times longer, its power would not be increased one half. The construction of a speaking trumpet is a problem of some nicety; and as the trials are always made at some considerable distance, it may frequently happen that a trumpet, which is not

not heard at *one* mile's distance, may be made very audible *two* miles off by cutting off a piece at its wide end. We shall find the *parabolic conoid* the preferable shape for an acoustic trumpet; because the sounds coming into the instrument in a direction parallel to the axis, they are reflected so as to pass through the focus. The parabolic conoid must therefore be cut off through the focus, that the sounds may not go out again by the subsequent reflections; and they must be received into a cylindrical pipe of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in diameter. Therefore the parameter of this parabola is $\frac{1}{2}$ th of an inch, and the focus is $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch from the vertex. This determines the whole instrument, for they are all portions of one parabolic conoid. Suppose that the instrument is required to approximate the sound 12 times, as in the example of the conical instrument. The ordinate at the mouth must be 12 times the 6th of an inch, or 2 inches; and the mouth diameter is 4 inches, as in the conical instrument. In trumpets for assisting the hearing, all reverberations of the trumpet must be avoided. It must be made thick, of the least elastic materials, and covered with cloth externally. For all reverberation lasts for a short time, and produces new sounds which mix with those that are coming in. We must also observe, that no acoustic trumpet can separate those sounds to which we listen, from others that are made in the same direction. All are received by it, and magnified in the same proportion. This is frequently a very great inconvenience. There is also another imperfection, which we imagine cannot be removed, namely, an odd confusion, which cannot be called indistinctness, but a feeling as if we were in the midst of an echoing room. The cause seems to be this: Hearing gives us some perception of the direction of the sounding object, not indeed very precise, but sufficiently so for most purposes. In all instruments which we have described for confounding sounds, the last reflections are made in directions very much inclined to the axis, and inclined in many different degrees. Therefore they have the appearance of coming from different quarters; and instead of the perception of a single speaker, we have that of a sounding surface of great extent. We do not know any method of preventing this, and at the same time increasing the sound.

(4.) **TRUMPET, MARINE**, is a musical instrument consisting of three tables, which form its triangular body. It has a very long neck with one single string, very thick, mounted on a bridge, which is firm on one side, but tremulous on the other. It is struck by a bow with one hand, and with the other the string is pressed or stopped on the neck by the thumb. See *Pl.* 334. *Fig. 1.* *Pl.* 337. *Fig. 2.* and *Pl.* 341. *Fig. 3.* It is the trembling of the bridge, when struck, that makes it imitate the sound of a trumpet; which it does to that perfection that it is scarce possible to distinguish the one from the other. And this is what has given it the denomination of *trumpet marine*, though, in propriety, it be a kind of **MONOCHORD**. Of the six divisions marked on the neck of the instrument, the first makes a fifth with the open chord, the second an octave, and so on for the rest, corresponding with the intervals of the military trumpet.

* **To TRUMPET**. *v. a.* [*trumpetter*, Fr. from the noun.] To publish by sound of trumpet; to proclaim.—*Trumpet to the world.* *Shak.*—*To trumpet such good tidings.* *Shak.*—They published and trumpeted reproaches against the Irish. *Bacon.*

(1.) * **TRUMPETER**. *n. s.* [from *trumpet*.] 1. One who sounds a trumpet.—*Trumpeters*, with brazen din. *Shak.*—A herald and *trumpeter* from the Scots overtook them. *Hayw.*—And a *trumpeter* hornet 'o battle sounds loud. *Dryden.*—An army of *trumpeters*. *Addis.* 2. One who proclaims, publishes, or denounces.—Where there is an opinion to be created of virtue, they are good *trumpeters*. *Bacon.*—Spiritual *trumpeters*. *South.* 3. [*Scolopex*.] A fish. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) **TRUMPETER**. See **PSOPHIA**.

(1.) * **TRUMPET-FLOWER**. *n. s.* [*bignonia*.] A tubulous flower. *Miller.*

(2.) **TRUMPET-FLOWER**. See **BIGNONIA**.

* **TRUMPET-TONGUED**. *adj.* [*trumpet* and *tongue*.] Having tongues vociferous as a trumpet.—Will plead, like angels, *trumpet-tongued*. *Shak.*

TRUMPINGTON, a town of Cambridgeshire, 2 miles from Cambridge, where various relics of Roman antiquity have been found. Chaucer's mill is in it.

* **TRUMPLIKE**. *adj.* Resembling a trumpet.—A voice infraet and *trumplike*. *Chapman.*

TRUN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Orne, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles SE. of Falaise, and 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ NNE. of Argentan.

* **To TRUNCATE**. *v. a.* [*trunco*, Latin.] To maim; to lop; to cut short.

* **TRUNCATION**. *n. s.* [from *truncate*.] The act of lopping or maiming.

TRUNCATUM FOLIUM. See **BOTANY**, *Gloss.*

* **TRUNCHEON**. *n. s.* [*trunçon*, French.]

1. A short staff; a club; a cudgel.—With his *truncheon* he so rudely stroke. *Spens.*—Thy leg is a stick compared with this *truncheon*. *Shak.*—Plummets of lead tied to a *truncheon*. *Hayward.*—One with a broken *truncheon* deals his blows. *Dryden.* 2. A staff of command.—Beckon'd with fiery *truncheon*. *Shak.*—The marshal's *truncheon*, and the judge's robe. *Shak.*

* **To TRUNCHEON**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To beat with a *truncheon*.—If captains were of my mind, they would *truncheon* you out of taking their names. *Shak.*

* **TRUNCHEONEER**. *n. s.* [from *truncheon*.] One armed with a *truncheon*.—Forty *truncheoners* drew to her succour. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TRUNDLE**. *n. s.* [*trendl*, Saxon.] Any round rolling thing.

(2.) A **TRUNDLE** is a carriage with low wheels, whereon heavy and cumbersome burdens are drawn.

* **To TRUNDLE**. *v. n.* [*trondeler*, Picard French; *trendl*, a bowl, Saxon.] To roll; to bowl along.—At last *trundles* down in a continued time of dactyls. *Addison.*

* **TRUNDLE-TAIL**. *n. s.* Roundtail.—Or bobtail like, or *trundle-tail*. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TRUNK**. *n. s.* [*truncus*, Lat. *trunc*, Fr.]

1. The body of a tree.—The ivy, which had hid my princely *trunk*. *Shak.*—About the mossy *trunk* I wound me soon. *Milton.*—Does round their *trunks* her purple clusters twine. *Dryden.*—Every

tree

seed is a perfect plant with a *trunk*, branches, and leaves. *Bentley*. 2. The body without the limbs of an animal.—The senseless *trunk*. *Spens.*—From this bare wither'd *trunk*. *Shak.* 3. The main body of any thing.—The large *trunks* of the veins. *Rap.* 4. [*Tronc*, French.] A chest for cloaths; sometimes a small chest, commonly lined with paper.—Carry in *trunks*, and all my drudgery do. *Dryden*.—There happened to stand an old *trunk* in the room. *Locke*.—And sent in quires to line a *trunk*. *Swift*. 5. The proboscis of an elephant, or other animal.—

Leviathan that at his gills
Draws in, and at his *trunk* spouts out a sea.

Milton.

When elephant 'gainst elephant did rear

His *trunk*. *Dryden.*

6. A long tube through which pellets of clay are blown.—In rolls of parchment *trunks*. *Bacon*.—In a shooting *trunk*, the longer it is to a certain limit, the swifter and more forcibly the air drives the pellet. *Ray*.

(2.) *TRUNK*, in botany, that part of the herb which arises immediately from the root, and is terminated by fructification; the leaves, buds, and auxiliary parts of the herb, not entering in its description. See *BOTANY, Index*.

* *To TRUNK. v. a.* [*trunco*, Latin.] To truncate; to maim; to lop. Obsolete.—

Large streams of blood out of the *trunked* flock

Forth gushed. *Spenser.*

* *TRUNKED. adj.* [from *trunk*.] Having a trunk.—Strong and well *trunked* trees. *Hosvel*.

* *TRUNK-HOSE. n. s.* [*trunk* and *hose*.] Large breeches formerly worn.—The short *trunk-hose* shall show thy foot and knee. *Prior*.

* *TRUNNIONS. n. s.* [*tragnons*, French.] The knobs or bunchings of a gun, that bear it on the cheeks of a carriage. *Bailey*.

TRUNS, a town of Switzerland, in the cede-vant country of the *GRISONS*, memorable for the first erection of the Swiss league. It is seated on the Rhine, 7 miles W. of Kantz.

(1.) *TRURO*, a borough of England, in Cornwall, at the mouth of the Falles. It sends 2 members to parliament. Its chief trade is in tin, and copper ore. The lord warden of the stanneries holds his court in it. It has also a tin coinage. It is memorable for the surrender of Lord Hope-ton's troops to Gen. Fairfax, after the battle of *NASEBY*. (See *ENGLAND*, § 47.) It has markets on Wednesday and Saturday, and lies 11 miles NNE. of Falmouth, 79 W. by S. of Exeter, and 257 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 50. 16. N.

(2.) *TRURO*, a town of Massachusetts, on the E. coast of Cape Cod Bay. Lon. 70. 1. W. Lat. 42. 1. N.

(3.) *TRURO*, a town of Nova Scotia, 40 miles N. of Halifax.

TRUSAM, a river of Suabia, which rises near Hohlegraben, in Brisgaw, runs past Friburg, &c. and joins the Eltz, near Riechel.

* *TRUSION. n. s.* [*trudo*, Latin.] The act of thrusting or pushing.—It is really pusion and *trusion*. *Bentley*.

(1.) * *TRUSS. n. s.* [*trouffe*, Fr.] 1. A bandage by which ruptures are restrained from lapsing.—The trouble of wearing a *truss*. *Wifeman*. 2. Bundle; any thing thrust close together.—Bearing a *truss* of trifles at his back. *Spenser*.—Carrying up great *trusses* of hay. *Carew*.—A heartless *truss* of straw. *L'Estr.*—A *truss* of sallet. *Add.* 3. Trousse; breeches. Obsolete.

(2.) *TRUSS*, in a ship, a machine employed to pull a yard home to its respective mast, and retain it firmly in that position.

(4.) A *TRUSS OF HAY* contains 56 pounds, or half an hundred-weight: 56 *trusses* make a load.

* *To TRUSS. v. a.* [*trouffer*, Fr.] To pack up close together.—Strongly *trussed* up together. *Spenser*.—Some of them *truss* up bag and baggage. *Hooker*.—You might have *trussed* him into an celskin. *Shak.*

* *TRUST. n. s.* [*traust*, Runick.] 1. Confidence; reliance on another.—What a fool is how nifty! and *trust*, his sworn brother. *Shak.*—Never put too much *trust* in deceitful men. *Swift*. 2. Charge received in confidence.—Reward them well if they observe their *trust*. *Denham*.—

In my wretched case 'twill be more just

Not to have promis'd, than deceive your *trust*.

Dryden.

—Those who have broken their *trust*. *Davenant*.

3. Confident opinion of any event.—His *trust* was th' Eternal. *Milton*. 4. Credit given with examination.—Most take things upon *trust*. *Locke*. 5. Credit on promise of payment. 6. Something committed to one's faith.—They must commit many great *trusts* to their ministers. *Bacon*.—To violate the sacred *trust* of silence. *Milton*. Our taking of a *trust* doth not engage us to disobey our Lord. *Kettlewell*. 7. Deposit; something committed to charge, of which an account must be given.—The advantages are only a *trust*. *Swift*. 8. Confidence in supposed honesty.—I commit my daughter unto thee of special *trust*. *Tob. x. 12*. 9. State of him to whom something is entrusted.—I serve him truly, that will put me in *trust*. *Shak.* He was left in that great *trust* with the king. *Clarendon*.

(1.) * *To TRUST. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To place confidence in; to confide in.—I'd be torn in pieces ere I'd *trust* a woman. *Ben. Jon.* 2. To believe; to credit.—*Trust* me you look well. *Shak.* 3. To admit in confidence to the power over any thing.—When you lie down, *trust* God with yourself. *Taylor*. To commit with confidence.—This much the rogue to public ears will *trust*. *Dryden*.—Whom with your pow'r and fortune, Sir, you *trust*. *Dryden*. 5. To venture confidently.—Fool'd by thee to *trust* thee from my side. *Milton*. 6. To sell upon credit.

(2.) * *To TRUST. v. n.* 1. To be confident of something future.—I *trust* to come unto you. 2. *John*.—My God shall raise me up I *trust*. *Raleigh*.—Whom I *trusted* to be my friend. *Fell.* 2. To have confidence; to rely; to depend without doubt.—On my arm shall they *trust*. *Isa. li. 5*.—The Lord is a buckler to all that *trust* in him. 2 *Sam. xx.*—Sin never shall hurt them more who rightly *trust*. *Milton*. 3. To be credulous; to be won to con-

S s s fidence.

fidence.—Safer than *trust* too far. *Shak.* 4. To expect.—What is an honest man to *trust* to that keeps a knave company? *L'Estrange.*

* **TRUSTEE.** *n. f.* [from *trust*.] 1. One entrusted with any thing.—A confessor that you may *trust* your soul with. *Taylor.* 2. One to whom something is committed for the use and behoof of another.—You are not the *trustees* of the public liberty. *Dryden.*

* **TRUSTER.** *n. f.* [from *trust*.] One who trusts. *Truster* of your own report. *Shak.*

* **TRUSTINESS.** *n. f.* [from *trust*.] Honesty; fidelity; faithfulness.—*Trustiness* in a dog. *Greav.*

* **TRUSTLESS.** *adj.* [from *trust*.] Unfaithful; unconstant; not to be trusted. A word elegant, but out of use.—I behold this fickle *trustless* state. *Spenser.*

* **TRUSTY.** *adj.* [from *trust*.] 1. Honest; faithful; true; fit to be trusted.—A *trusty* 'squire. *Shak.*—This *trusty* servant. *Shak.*—He removeth away the speech of the *trusty*. *Job.* xii. 26.—His *trusty* slave has sent. *Dryden.*—His most *trusty* slaves. *Addison.* 2. Strong; stout; such as will not fail.—His *trusty* sword. *Spenser.*—The *trusty* weapon. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **TRUTH.** *n. f.* [*treowutha*, Saxon.] 1. The contrary to falsehood; conformity of notions to things.—All *truths* are equal. *Wilkins.*—A punctual *truth*. *Brown.*—With reason and with *truth*. *Milton.*—This clue leads to *truth* and certainty. *Locke.* 2. Conformity of words to thoughts.—Shall *truth* fail to keep her word? *Milton.*—*Truth* is the joining or separating of signs, as the things signified agree or disagree. *Locke.* 3. Purity from falsehood.—Thy *truth* then be thy dower. *Shak.* 4. Right opinion.—To life sequester'd, and ascetic *truth*. *Harte.* 5. Fidelity; constancy.—The thoughts of past pleasure and *truth*. *Song.* 6. Honesty; virtue.—Malice bears down *truth*. *Shak.* 7. It is used sometimes by way of concession.—She said, *truth* Lord. *Matt.* xv. 27. 8. Exactness; conformity to rule.—Ploughs to go true depend much upon the *truth* of the iron work. *Mart.* 9. Reality; real state of things.—In *truth*, what should any prayer require, but only so to be read as becometh. *Hooker.*—There are innumerable *truths*. *Beattie.* 10. Of a **TRUTH**, or in **TRUTH**. In reality.—Of a *truth*, Lord, the kings of Assyria have destroyed the nations. *2 Kings* xix. 17.

(2.) **TRUTH**, a term used in opposition to falsehood, and applied to propositions which answer or accord to the nature and reality of the thing whereof something is affirmed or denied. See **METAPHYSICS**, § XXIII.

* **TRUTINATION.** *n. f.* [*trutina*, Latin.] The act of weighing; examination by the scale.—Men may mistake if they distinguish not the sense of levity unto themselves, and in regard of the scale or decision of *trutination*. *Brown.*

TRUWOR, one of the 3 first monarchs of Russia. See **RUSSIA**, § II. 2.

(1.) **TRUXILLO**, a city of Spain, in Estremadura, taken from the Moors, in the 13th century. It is seated among mountains, on the side of a hill, on the top of which there is a strong fortress. It is built on the banks of the Atamont, 117 miles

SE. of Madrid, and 65 SW. of Toledo. Lon. 5. 23. W. Lat. 39. 4. N.

(2.) **TRUXILLO**, a rich trading city of Peru, in Lima, built by Pizarro, in 1535. It is seated in a fertile country, and contains within its jurisdiction above 50,000 native Peruvians. It is seated on the coast of the S. Pacific Ocean, and surrounded with a brick wall; the houses are well built. The climate is moderated by cold in winter. The people export sugar, corn, maize, fruits, wine, olive oil, barley, wheat, &c. It lies 300 miles NW. of Lima. Lon. 85. 50. W. Lat. 8. 1. S.

(3.) **TRUXILLO**, a town of Mexico, in the prov. of Honduras, seated on a hill above a gulf so named, with a good harbour. It was several times ravaged by the English and Dutch. It is seated between two rivers, and surrounded by thick groves. Lon. 89. 50. W. Lat. 15. 30. N.

(4.) **TRUXILLO**, a town of Terra Firma, in the province of Venezuela, 120 miles S. of Lake Maracaybo. Lon. 69. 15. W. Lat. 7. 20. N.

TRUZZA, or } a town of Tunis, with a ful-
TRUZZO, } phureous spring, 14 miles
SSW. of Tunis.

(1.) * **To TRY.** *v. a.* [*trier*, French.] 1. To examine; to make experiment of.—Come try yourselves. *Shak.*—Not being *tried* and tutor'd in the world. *Shak.*—Doth not the ear *try* words. *Job.* 2. To experience; to assay; to have knowledge or experience of.—Thou evil hast not *try'd*. *Milt.*—Or *try* the Libyan heat, or Scythian cold. *Dryd.*—With me the rocks of Scylla you have *try'd*. *Dryd.* 3. To examine as a judge. 4. To bring before a judicial tribunal. 5. To bring to a decision, with out emphatical.—Nicanor durst not *try* the matter by the sword. *2 Mac.*—I'll *try* it out, and give no quarter. *Dryden.* 6. To act on as a test.—The fire sev'n times *try'd* this. *Shak.*—Sure he who first the passage *try'd*. *Dryd.* 7. To bring as to a test.—The *trying* of your faith worketh patience. *James.*—Under long obedience *try'd*. *Milt.* 8. To assay; to attempt.—Let us *try* adventurous work. *Milt.* 9. To purify; to refine.—*Try'd* in sharp tribulation. *Milt.* 10. To use as means.—To ease her cares the force of sleep the *tries*. *Swift.*

(2.) * **To TRY.** *v. n.* To endeavour; to attempt; to make assay.—

He first deceas'd, the for a little *try'd*
To live without him. *Wotton.*
—Up and *try*. *Woodliff.*

TRYGGEVELDE, a town of Denmark, in the isle of Zealand, 4 miles W. of Store Hedingen.

TRYON, a county of New York.

TRYPHIODORUS, an ancient Greek poet, who lived between the reigns of Severus and Anastasius. None of his numerous writings have come down to us, but an epic poem, of which there are several editions, and Italian and English versions.

TSABA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 10 miles E. of Boli.

TSAKTELU, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Carmania, 28 miles NNE. of Akshehr.

TSALTSALYA, a venomous insect of Abyssinia. See **ABYSSINIA** and **ZIMB.**

(1.) **TSANG**, the Chinese name of TIBET.

(2.) **TSANG**, a city of China, of the 2d rank,

in Petrell, 102 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 134. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 38. 21. N.

TSANPOO. See SANDPU.

TSAN-TSE-AGHISI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 12 miles NW. of Ergrî.

TSAO, 1. A city of China, of the 2d rank, in Chan-tong; 2, 3. Two towns of the 3d rank, in Chan-tong, and Kiang-nan.

TSCHASCHWITZ, a town of Silesia, in Neisse, 4 miles W. of Neisse.

TSCHENGA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, near the Daphne, 50 m. WSW. of Varna.

TSCHERNOIYAR, a town of Russia, in Saratovskoi, 200 miles NW. of Astracan, and 296 NE. of Azoph.

TSCHIGRI, a town of Russia, in Kurkoi.

TSCHOPA, or ZSCHOPAU, a town of Saxony, in Erzgebürg, on a river so named, famous for its blue manufactures; 7 miles SE. of Chemnitz.

TSCHUTSKI, a country and people of Independent Tartary, on the E. coast of Asia, opposite to the NW. coast of America, bounded by the Anadir on the S. They are a handsome, courageous, and warlike race, very formidable neighbours to the KORIACS. The Russians endeavoured to subdue them, but hitherto in vain. (See COOK, N^o III, § 7, and TARTARY, § 2.) Their territory lies in Lon. 168. 41. W. Lat. 66. 5. N.

TSECANDER. See SECANDRA.

TSENG-MING, a populous island, near the coast of China, in the East Sea, seated on the Yang-tse, 50 miles long, and 10 broad. It is watered by numerous canals. The climate is healthy and temperate. It has many towns, shops, and warehouses, elegantly furnished. There is a whitish kind of earth, which abounds with salt, and produces a great revenue from it. Lon. 138. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 38. N.

TSHABRILO, a town of KISTÏ, in the province of Caucasus.

TSHAMIE, the Indian name of a tree which grows in the northern circars of Hindoostan. The pod is the only part used. It is, when ripe, brown, smooth, and contains, besides the seeds, a large quantity of a brown mealy substance, which the natives eat; its taste is sweetish and agreeable.

TSHETSHEN, a country of Asia, with its capital, so named, in the province of Caucasus, inhabited by the KISTÏ.

TSHIM, and- } 2 towns of the KISTÏ,
TSHISHNI-KABUL, } in the province of Caucasus, in Russian Tartary.

TSHLUCHOW. See SLUCHAW.

TSITSIKAR, a district in the country of the Mantchew Tartars, with its capital. See TARTARY, § 1.

TSUR. See SOOR.

TUA, a river of Portugal, in Tra-os-montes, which runs into the Duero, 15 m. NW. of St Joao.

TUABO, a town of Africa, in Galam.

TUESIS, an ancient name of Nairn. See NAIRN, N^o 4.

TUAK, an island in the Red Sea, 12 miles from the coast of Arabia. Lon. 41. 58. E. Lat. 5. 58. N.

TUAM, a town of Ireland, in the province of Connaught, and county of Galway, with an archbishop's see. It was once a famous city, and still retains the title though reduced to a village. It

is 7 miles from Mayo. Lon. 8. 46. W. Lat. 53. 33. N.

TUAPE, the capital of SONORA.

(1.) * TUB. *n. s.* [*tobbe, tubbe*, Dut.] 1. A large open vessel of wood.—A tub of water open. *Buc.*—They fetch their precepts from the Cynick *tub*. *Milton.*—Skillful coopers hoop their *tubs*. *Hudibr.* 2. A state of salivation; so called, because the patient was formerly sweated in a tub. 'To th' *tub*-fast, and the diet. *Shak.*

(2.) TUB, in commerce, denotes an indetermined quantity or measure: thus, a tub of tea contains about 60 lb.; and a tub of camphor from 56 to 86 lb.

TUBA, a river of Russia, in Kolivan, which runs into the Enifei, 16 miles SW. of Abakanik.

TUBAI, one of the Society Islands, 12 miles from Bolabola.

TUBAL-CAIN, an antediluvian metallurgist, the first of whom we have any authentic record; the son of Lamech by Zillah, and the 7th from Adam by Cain.

TUBANSKA, a town of Russia, in the prov. of Irkutskoi, 44 miles NW. of Ilimik.

TUBAQN, a town on the N. coast of Java.

(1.) * TUBE. *n. s.* [*tube*, Fr. *tubus*, Latin.] A pipe; a syphon; a long hollow body.—Fiery *tubes*. *Rose.*—His glaz'd optick *tube*. *Milton.*—The *tubes* and vessels of the vegetables. *Woodward.*

(2.) TUBE, in general, is used for a pipe, conduit, or canal; a cylinder, hollow within-side, either of lead, iron, glass, wood, or other matter, for the air or some other matter to have a free conveyance through it.

(3.) TUBES, AURICULAR, or instruments to facilitate hearing. See TRUMPET, § 3.

TUBERAN, a town of Persia, in Kerman, 171 miles NE. of Schirauz, and 261 ESE. of Isfahan.

(1.) * TUBERCLE. *n. s.* [*tubercule*, Fr. from *tuberculum*, Lat.] A small swelling or excrescence on the body; a pimple.—By what degrades the *tubercles* arile. *Swell.*—A consumption of the lungs arrives through a crude *tubercle*. *Harvey.*

(2.) TUBERCLES, among physicians, denote little tumours which suppurate and discharge pus; and are often found in the lungs, especially of consumptive persons. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

TUBERCULATUS. } See BOTANY, *Gloss*.

TUBERCULUM.

TUBERNOKI, a town of Tunis, 21 miles SE. of Tunis.

TUBEROSA RADIX. See BOTANY, *Gloss*.

(1.) * TUBEROSE. *n. s.* A flower.—The common way of planting *tuberose* is in pots. *Mort.*—The *tuberose* ever breathes and violets blow. *Garth.*

(2.) TUBEROSE, in botany. See POLYANTHES.

* TUBEROUS. *adj.* [*tubereux*, Fr. from *tuber*, Lat.] Having prominent knots or excrescences.—*Tuberous hæmatitæ*. *Woodward.*

TUBESKE, a town of Tunis, 48 miles SW. of Tunis.

TUBINGEN, a city of Wirtemberg, with a castle and university. It is seated on the Neckar, 20 miles SW. of Stuttgart, and 50 E. of Strasburg. Lon. 9. 4. E. Lat. 48. 30. N.

TUBEUF, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine, 4½ miles NNE. of Laffay, 12 NNW. of Vilaine.

TUBUA, a town of Algiers, anciently called *Thubana*, 72 miles SSW. of Constantina.

TUBUHACAN, a town of Sugulmessa, 9 miles from Sugulmessa.

TUBULAR. *adj.* [from *tubus*, Lat.] Resembling a pipe or trunk; consisting of a pipe; long and hollow; fistular. — *A tubular* or pipe-like snout. *Crew.*

* **TUBULATED**. **TUBULOUS**. *adj.* [from *tubulus*, Lat.] Fistular; longitudinally hollow. — The teeth of vipers are *tubulated*. *Derham.*

* **TUBULE**. *n. f.* [*tubulus*, Lat.] A small pipe, or fistular body. — *Testaceous tubules*. *Woodw.*

* **TUBULOUS**. See **TUBULATED**.
TUBULUS MARINUS, a petrification. See *Plate CLXVIII.*

TUBURBO, a town of Tunis, 16 miles WNW. of Tunis.

TUCAPEL, mountains of Peru, in Chili, on the S. of Concepcion.

TUCCA. See **PLIOTUS**, N° 3.

TUCABATCHEE, an Indian town of the United States, in Georgia; 10 miles SW. of Oak-fusker.

TUCHAN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aude, near the Verdoubie; 12 miles S. of Grasse, and 12 NNW. of Perpignan.

* **TUCK**. *n. f.* [*tucca*, Welsh, a knife; *effoc*, French; *focco*, Italian.] 1. A long narrow sword. — Your venom'd *tuck*, *Shak.* — From rusty durance be bail'd *tuck*. *Hud.* 2. A kind of net. — The *tuck* is narrower meathed. *Carecy.*

(1.) * **To TUCK**. *v. a.* [from *trucken*, German.] To press. *Skinner.* 1. To gather into a narrower compass; to hinder from spreading. She *tucked* up her vestments. *Addis.* — *Tucking* up their petticoats. *Addis.* — *Tucked* up their garments to the elbows. *Addis.* — *Tuck* back thy hair. *Prior.* 2. To inclose, by tucking cloaths round. — *Tuck* him warm into bed. *Locke.*

(2.) * **To TUCK**. *v. n.* To contract. A bad word. — The edges *tuck* in, and growing skinned *and* hard, give it the name of a callous ulcer. *Sharp.*

TUCKAABER, a town of Tunis, on the Medjerdah; 24 miles W. of Tunis.

(1.) **TUCKER**, Abraham, Esq. published 9 vols on metaphysics, under the assumed name of *Scarch*. He died at his estate of Dorking, in Surry, in 1775.

(2.) **TUCKER**, Josiah, D. D. a celebrated English divine, born at Laugharne, in Caermarthen-shire, in 1711; and educated at St John's college, Oxford, where he graduated in 1739. He became rector of St Stephens in Bristol, and prebendary of the cathedral. In 1768, he was made dean. He was an able writer on political, commercial, and theological subjects. His chief work is his *Treatise on Civil Government against Locke*, 8vo, 1781. He died in 1799.

(3.) * **TUCKER**. *n. f.* A small piece of linen that shades the breast of women. — By some called a *tucker*, and by others the neck-piece. *Addison.*

* **TUCKETSONANCE**. *n. f.* The sound of the tucket. An ancient instrument of musick.

Let the trumpets sound
The *tucketsonance* and the note to mount. *Shak.*

TUCRI, a town of Naples, in Molise; 15 miles ESE. of Molise.

TUCUMAN, a province of S. America, in Paraguay, bounded on the N. by those of Chicas and Chaco; on the E. by Chaco and Rio de la Plata, on the S. by the country of Chicutos and Pampes, and on the W. by the bishopric of St Jago.

TUCUYO, a town of Terra Firma, in Venezuela, on a river which runs through it. Lon. 69. 2. W. Lat. 7. 31. N.

TUDDER, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and late duchy of Juliers; 11 miles S. of Ruremond.

TUDDINGTON, a town of England, in Bedfordshire, with a market on Sat. 16 miles S. of Bedford, 35 N. of London, and 5 NW. of Dunstable. Lon. 0. 32. W. Lat. 52. 0. N.

(1.) **TUDELA**, a town of Spain in Navarre, with a castle; inhabited by several of the nobility, and adorned with handsome structures. It is seated on the Ebro. It is 45 miles NW. of Saragossa, and 140 NE. of Madrid. Lon. 1. 10. W. Lat. 42. 9. N.

(2.) **TUDELA**, a town of Spain, in Leon.

(3.) **TUDELA**, a town of New Granada.

(4.) **TUDELA**, Benjamin of, a rabbi of the 12th century, author of *Travels through Europe, Asia, and Africa*; translated from the Hebrew into French by Barratier, in 1734.

TUDER. See **TUDERTIA**.

TUDERGA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Nalolia; 32 miles NNE. of Eski-Shehr.

TUDERTES, an ancient people of Italy, in Umbria, who inhabited

TUDERTIA, or **TUDER**, a town of Umbria.

TUDHOPE FELL, a mountain of Roxburghshire, on the English border.

TUDRI, an ancient nation of Germany. *Tac.*

TUECH, a town of France, in the department of the Ardeche; 18 miles NW. of Viviers.

* **TUEL**. *n. f.* [*tuyean*, Fr.] The anus. *Skinner.*

TUELLA, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late duchy of Aosta; 16 miles W. of Aosta.

TVER, a considerable commercial city of Russia, capital of Tverfkoi, seated at the conflux of the Tvertza and Volga. It was burnt in 1763, but rebuilt and much improved by Catherine II. The houses are of wood, and of brick plastered with stucco. It has a seminary endowed by Cath. II. for 600 students. It has also 70 churches. It is an archbishop's see. Tver is 99 miles WNW. of Moscow, and 272 SE. of Petersburg. Lon. 36. 5. E. Lat. 56. 7. N.

TVERSKOI, an extensive province or government of Russia, in Siberia, bounded on the N. by Novogorodskoe, E. by Jaroslavlskoe, and Uladimirskoe; S. by Moscovkaia and Smolenkoe; W. by Pskovskoe; being in all about 180 miles long, and 100 broad. Lon. from 50° 20' to 56° E. Ferro. Lat. 55° 36' to 58° 30' N.

TVERTZA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Volga, at Tver.

TUERYE, a town of the French empire in the dep. of Mont Blanc, 4 miles E. of Chambéry.

(1.) * **TUESDAY**. *n. f.* [*tuesday*, Saxon; *tuy*, Saxon, is Mars.] The third day of the week.

(2.) **TUESDAY**. See **TUSCO**.

TUET, a province of TAFILET.

TUFA,

TUFA, a stone consisting of volcanic ashes concentrated together with various other species of stone. It is of various colours, blackish grey, bluish grey, and yellow; every colour having a different mixture and solidity; but all of them have the bad quality of mouldering down on long exposure to the weather. The yellow kind resists the air less than any other.

TUFANS. See **SIFANS**.

TUFARA, a town of Naples, in Capitanata; 5 miles W. of Volturara.

TUFFE', a town of France, in the dep. of the Sarte; 7 miles SW. of Ferte Bernard.

TUFFENBACH, a town of Stiria; 9 miles S. of Judenburg.

* **TUFT**. *n. f.* [*tuffe*, French.] 1. A number of threads or ribbons, flowery leaves, or any small bodies joined together.—A fine *tuft*, or brush of moss. *Bacon*.—*Tufts* not unlike the beard of a goat. *More*.—A *tuft* of daisies on a flow'ry lea. *Dryd*.—*Tufts* of matted grass. *Dryd*.—A *tuft* of feathers. *Addison*. 2. A cluster; a plump.—A *tuft* of trees. *Sidney*.—The *tuft* of olives. *Shak*.—*Tufts* of trees. *Chapm*.

With high woods the hills were crown'd;

With *tufts* the valleys. *Milt*.

—Under a *tuft* of shade. *Milton*.

* **TO TUFF**. *v. a.* To adorn with a tuft.—Of solemn oaks, that *tuft* the swelling mounts. *Thomf*.

* **TUFTAFFETY**. *n. s.* [from *tufted* and *taffety*.] A villous kind of silk.—

It had been

Velvet: but it was now, so much ground was seen,

Become *tuftaffety*. *Donne*.

* **TUFTED**. *adj.* [from *tuft*.] Growing in tufts or clusters.—*Tufted* grove. *Milton*.—*Tufted* trees. *Milt*. and *Pope*.

TUFTONBOROUGH, a town of New Hampshire in Stafford county; on the E. bank of lake Winnipisogee.

* **TUFFY**. *adj.* [from *tuft*.] Adorned with tufts. A word of no authority.—*Tuffy* coat. *Thomson*.

* **TUG**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Pull performed with the utmost effort.—At the *tug* he falls. *Dryd*.

(1.) * **TO TUG**. *v. a.* [*tigan*, *teogan*, Sax.] 1. To pull with strength long continued in the utmost exertion; to draw.—No more *tug* one another thus. *Chapm*.—He *tugg'd*, he shook till down they came. *Milt*.—*Tug* the laborious oar. *Roscom*. 2. To pull; to pluck.—I mean to *tug* thy beard. *Shak*.—His *tugg'd* ears suffer'd with a strain. *Hud*.

(2.) * **TO TUG**. *v. n.* 1. To pull; to draw.—*Tug* lustily at one oar. *Sandys*.—*Tugging* and pulling. *More*.—Thus galley slaves *tug* willingly at their oar. *Dryden*.—*Tugging* against the stream. *Addis*. 2. To labour; to contend; to struggle.—Let myself and fortune *tug* for the time to come. *Shak*.—*Tugg'd* for life. *Shak*.—*Tugg'd* for their liberty. *Howe*.

(1.) **TUGELOO**, a river of the United States, in Georgia, which rises in the Appalachian mountains, joins the Keowee, and by their united streams forms the large navigable river, the SAVANNAH.

(2.) **TUGELOO**, a town of Georgia, on the above river. Lon. 83. 22. W. Lat. 34. 36. N.

TUGGEN, a town of Switzerland in Glarus.

* **TUGGER**. *n. f.* [from *tug*.] One that tugs or pulls hard.

TUGGURT. See **TOCORT**.

TUGIA, an ancient town of Spain, now called *Toia*. *Plin*. iii. c. 1.

TUGINI, an ancient people of Germany,

TUGULIAN, a town of Russia, near the Straits, which separate the continents of Asia and America.

TUGUZAK, a river of Russia in Upsha, which runs into the Uvelka, 12 miles E. of Troitz.

TUIS, a town of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, 10 miles W. of Udina.

TUISCO, or } a celebrated hero and god of
TUISTON, } the ancient Germans, the MARS or god of war among the Saxons, from whom our TUESDAY is named. (See **POLYTHEISM**, p. 123.)

* **TUITION**. *n. f.* [*tuition*, from *tueor*, Latin.] Guardianship; superintendent care; care of a guardian or tutor.—A folly for a man of wisdom to put himself under the *tuition* of a beast. *Sidney*.—Under my care and tuition. *King Charles*.—Setting ecclesiastical interests wholly out of the *tuition* of the civil. *South*.—Those under whose *tuition* they are. *Locke*.

TUK, a town of Asia, in Charasin.

TUKAM, a town of Courland.

TULA, a city of Russia, capital of the prov. of TULSKOE, seated on the Upsha, near some iron mines; 112 miles S. of Moscow, and 452 SSE. of Peterburg. It has manufactures of fire arms, and leather; and contains 144 churches and convents. Lon. 55. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 45. N.

TULBAGIA, in botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class of *Hexandria*, and the order of *Monogynia*.

TULBING, a town of Austria; 4 miles SSE. of Tulln.

TULCISA, a river of ancient Spain, running into the Mediterranean; now called *Francoli*.

TULCZA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, on the S. bank of the Danube; opposite Ismael.

TULDEN, Theodore VAN, a celebrated Dutch painter, born at Bois-le-Duc, in 1607. He painted historical and ludicrous subjects. He died in 1676.

TULEBRAS, a town of Spain, in Navarre, on the Queios, 7 miles from Tudela.

TULINGI, an ancient people of Germany, who inhabited the country between the Baltic and the Danube. *Ces. de Bel. Gal.* 1. c. 5.

(1.) * **TULIP**. *n. f.* [*tulipe*, Fr. *tulipa*, Lat.] A flower.—The *tulip* opens with the rising, and shuts with the setting sun. *Hakewill*.—*Tulips* of one colour produce some of another. *Brown*.

(II.) **TULIP**, } in botany; (see **BOTANY**, *Index*;) **TULIPA**, } a genus of plants belonging to

the class of *hexandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system ranging under the 10th order, *Coronarie*. The corolla is hexapetalous and campanulated, and there is no style. The species of this genus are four; viz.

1. **TULIPA BIFLORA**, the double flowered tulip.

2. **TULIPA BREYNIANA**, the *Cape Tulip*, a native of the *Cape of Good Hope*.

3. **TULIPA GESNERIANA**, *Gesner's Turkey Tulip* of

of *Cappadocia*, or common garden tulip, hath a large, oblong, tunicated, solid, bulbous root, covered with a brown skin, sending up long oval spear-shaped leaves; an upright round stalk, from half a foot to a yard high, garnished with a few leaves, and its top crowned with a large bell-shaped erect hexapetalous flower, of almost all colours and variegations in the different varieties. It is a native of the Levant. This tulip grows freely in the open ground, in a garden. The principal part should be planted in autumn, and the rest towards Christmas, and in Jan. or Feb. Of this species, the varieties may be divided into two principal classes, viz. 1. Early or dwarf spring tulips, (*præcoxa*.) 2. Late-flowering tall tulips, (*ferolina*.)

1. *Early tulips*, flower early in the spring, a month or more before the others; are much shorter stalked, and the flowers smaller; but are in greater reputation for their early bloom and their gay lively colours, both of self-colours, and broken into flaked variegations; such as reds, crimson, scarlet, carnation, violets, purples, yellow, &c. with flowers of each, edged and flaked with red, yellow, and white, in many diversities.

2. *Late-flowering common tulips*, are all of tall growth, supporting large flowers, and furnish an almost endless variety in the vast diversity of colours, after they break from whole blowers into variegations and stripes, exceeding all others of the tulip kind in beauty and elegance of flower. Both these species of tulips are hardy perennials, durable in root, or at least, although the old bulb decays annually, it perpetuates its species by off-sets, and is annual in leaf and stalk; which rising from the bulb early in the spring, arrives to a flowering state in April and May. All the varieties are succeeded by plenty of ripe seed in July and August, contained in an oblong capsule of three cells, having the seeds placed on each other in double rows. By the seeds many new varieties may be raised, which however will not attain a flowering state till they are 7 or 8 years old; and alter that will require 2 or 3 years, or more, to break into variegations, when the approved varieties may be marked, and increased by off-sets of the root. To obtain the beautiful variegations of colour which florists value so highly, the best method is frequent transplantation, i. e. putting them in a soil this season, as directly the opposite as possible of which they were in the former season. The double tulip is also a variety of the common tulip, and is very beautiful, though not in such estimation among the florists as the common single variegated sorts, not possessing such a profusion of variegations in the colours and regularity of stripes.

4. *TULIPA SYLVESTRIS*, or *wild European tulip*, or *Italian yellow tulip*, a native of the S. of Europe, hath an oblong bulbous root, sending up long narrow spear-shaped leaves; and a slender stalk, supporting at top a small yellow flower, nodding on one side, having acute petals.

(III. i.) * *TULIP TREE*. *n. f.* A tree.

(ii.) *TULIP TREE*. See *LIRIODENDRON*.

TULIPOMANIA, [from *tulipa*, and *mania*, madness;] the name given to a kind of gambling traffic in *tulip roots*, which prevailed in Holland and the Netherlands during part of the 17th century.

It was carried on to such an enormous extent, that one root has been sold for 4600 florins, together with a new carriage, two grey horses, and a complete harness. The tulips, however, were seldom delivered. A nobleman bespoke of a merchant a tulip root, to be delivered in six months, at the price of 1000 florins. During these six months the price of that species of tulip must have risen or fallen, or remained as it was. But instead of demanding his tulip then, he paid or received the difference of price. This singular species of gaming could, from its nature, only go to a limited extent. The value of tulip roots began to fall. The sellers were then anxious to deliver the roots in *natura*, but the buyers would not receive them. The consequence was, that tulips very speedily fell to their intrinsic value, and the gambling was at an end.

TULISCHANA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Podkammennaia Tauguska, in Lon. 15. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 61. 0. N.

TULISKOWO, a town of the late Poland, and palatinate of Kalisch, 16 miles NNE. of Laudick, now annexed to Prussia.

TULL, Jethro, an Oxfordshire gentleman, who projected a new method of culture, to raise repeated crops of wheat from the same land without the necessity of manure; the principles of which he published in *A Treatise on Horse-hoeing Husbandry*.

TULLA, a town of Arabia, in Yemen, 20 miles WNW. of Sana.

TULLAGAN BAY, a bay of Ireland on the W. coast of Mayo county.

TULLAMORE, a town of Ireland, in King's County; on the Cledagh, near the Grand Canal; 18 miles NE. of Banaghin, and 44 W. of Dublin.

TULLES, a city of France, in the department of Correze, ci-devant capital of the Lower Limosin. Its cathedral has a very high and curious steeple. It is seated at the conflux of the Correze and Solane, in a country surrounded by precipitous mountains; on the side of a hill, 37 miles E. of Limoges, and 62 SW. of Clermont. Lon. 1. 42. W. Lat. 45. 23. N.

TULLIA, a daughter of king Servius Tullius, and wife of TARQUIN II. See *ROME*, § 11.

TULLIALLAN, a parish of Perthshire, 4 miles long and 4 broad, containing 4,760 acres, in high cultivation, bounded by the Forth. Kincardine is the chief town. (See *KINCARDINE*, N° 2.) It abounds with excellent free-stone, which has been exported, even to Amsterdam. There are ruins of the castle of Tulliallan. The population, in 1793, was 2,430; increase 1109, since 1755.

TULLIBOLE, a parish of Aberdeenshire, united with FOSSAWAY, in Perthshire.

TULLINS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Isere, 12 miles NNE. of St Marcelin, and 12 NW. of Grenoble.

TULLIOLA, a daughter of Cicero, who died A. A. C. 44.

(1.) *TULLIUS*, M. See *CICERO*.

(2.) *TULLIUS, SERVIVS*, the 6th and best king of Rome. See *ROME*, § 11.

TULLN, a town of Austria, on a river so named, 15 miles NW. of Vienna. Lon. 16. 6. E. Lat. 48. 14. N.

TULLOCH,

TULLOCH, a parish of Aberdeenshire, united with those of **GLENCAIRN** and **GLENMUICK**. See these articles.

TULLOCH-ARD, a high mountain of Scotland, in Ross-shire, and district of Kintail. Its top, in ancient times was used as a kind of TELEGRAPH; or, in cases of sudden invasion, a barrel of tar was kindled upon it, and in 24 hours all Seaforth's tenants appeared at *St Donan Castle* in arms.

TULLOW, a town of Ireland, in Carlow; 8 miles ESE. of Carlow, and 38 SSW. of Dublin.

TULLUS HOSTILIUS, the 3d king of Rome, see **ROME**, § 8.

(1.) **TULLY**. See **CICERO**.

(2.) **TULLY**, in geography, a military township of New York, in **ONONDAGO** county.

TULLYCLEA, a river of Ireland, in Fermanagh county, which runs into Lough Erne, 4 miles N. of Inniskillen.

TULLYNESSLE, a parish of Aberdeenshire, 4 miles long, and 2½ broad, seated on the banks of the **Don**. The surface is mountainous on the N. and W. The soil is a light loam, pretty fertile. The hills are covered with heath, and abound with deers, hares, and other game. In 1791, the population was 396; increase 127, since 1755.

TULOMA, a river of Russia, which runs into Lake Ladoga; 2 miles NW. of Olonetz.

TULON, a town of Tibet; 45 m. E. of Tankia.

TULSK, a town of Ireland, in Roscommon county; 9 miles N. of Roscommon, and 11 SW. of Carrick.

TULSKOE, a government of Russia; bounded N. by Moscowkaia, E. by Riazanskoe, and Tambovskoe; S. by Orlovskoe, and W. by Kaluskoe; 130 miles long, and from 40 to 100 broad. **TULA** is the capital. Lon. 54° to 55° 36' E. Ferro. Lat. 53° to 55° N.

TULUN, a town of Russia in Irkutskoe, on the Tja, 44 miles E. of Niznei Udinsk.

TUMANSKOI, a triangular island of Russia in the Frozen Ocean, N. of Kiriach ille, 360 miles in circuit. Lon. 137° to 144° E. Ferro. Lat. 71. 50. to 73. 15.

TUMAR, *n. f.* in the language of Bengal, rent-roll or assessment.

TUMBERIDIPAL, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore, 22 miles N. of Daraporum; now in the British dominions.

(1.) **TUMBEZ**, a navigable river of Peru, which rises in the Cordilleras, and runs into the Bay of GUAYAQUIL, opposite *St Clare* island.

(2.) **TUMBEZ**, a town of Peru, in the jurisdiction of Peira, on the banks of the above river. The houses are built of canes.

TUMBHUDRA, a river of Indooftan, in Myfore.

* **TUMBLE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A fall.—An unlucky tumble from a tree. *L'Estrange*.

(1.) * **To TUMBLE**. *v. n.* [*tomber*, Fr. *tommelen*, Dutch; *tombolare*, Italian.] 1. To fall; to come suddenly and violently to the ground.—Nature's germins tumble all together. *Shak*.—To stand or walk, to rise or tumble. *Prior*.—It immediately tumbles to the bottom. *Addison*. 2. To fall in great quantities tumultuously.—Riches come tumbling upon a man. *Bacon*. 3. To roll about.—

Well he might tumble and tofs. *Sidney*.—The tumbling billows of the main. *Shak*. 3. To play tricks by various librations of the body.—They'll leave their tumbling. *Roscoe*.

(2.) * **To TUMBLE**. *v. a.* 1. To turn over; to throw about by way of examination.—Tumbling it over and over in his thoughts. *Bacon*.—By tumbling his thoughts. *Collier*.—They tumbled all their little quivers o'er. *Prior*. 2. To throw by chance or violence.—Ideas are sometimes rouzed and tumbled out of their dark cells. *Locke*. 3. To throw down.—To tumble down thy husband and thyself. *Shak*.—Was tumbled on the plain. *Dryd*.—If a greater force tumbles him down. *Locke*.

TUMBLE-DUNG, in entomology. See **SCARABEUS**, N° 3.

* **TUMBLER**. *n. f.* [from *tumble*.] 1. One who shews postures by various contortions of body, or feats of activity.—Common tumblers and dancers on the rope. *Wilkins*.—The nimblest tumblers or rope-dancers. *Arbutnot*.—Never by tumblers through the hoops was shown. *Pope*. 2. A large drinking glass.

(1.) * **TUMBREL**. *n. f.* [*tombreau*, Fr.] A dung-cart.—Twifallow once ended, get tumbrel and man. *Tusser*.—My crops is in a tumbrel laid. *Dryd*.—What shall I do with this beastly tumbrel? *Congr*.—He sometimes rode in an open tumbrel. *Tatler*.

(2.) **TUMBREL** is also a kind of carriage with two wheels, used in artillery, to carry the tools of the pioneers, &c. or the money of an army.

* **TUMEFACATION**. *n. f.* [*tumefactio*, Latin.] Swelling.—*Tumefactions* in the whole body. *Arb*.

* **To TUMEFY**. *v. a.* [*tumefacio*, Latin.] To swell; to make to swell.—The tumefied joint. *Wifeman*.—The lungs were knotted and tumefied. *Blackmore*.—A fleshy excrescence, exceeding hard and tumefied. *Sharp*.

TUMEN, a town of Persia, in Ghilan; 18 miles W. of Reshd.

* **TUMID**. *adj.* [*tumidus*, Lat.] 1. Swelling; puffed up. 2. Protuberant; raised above the level.—The tumid hills. *Milt*. 3. Pompous; boastful; puffy; falsely sublime.—Such expressions may seem tumid and aspiring. *Boyle*.

TUMMARAH, a town of Africa, in Zaara.

(1.) **TUMMEL**, a large river of Perthshire, which rises from **LOCH RANNOCH**, and after running E. through Athol, falls into the **TAY** at **LOGIE RAIT**.

(2.) **TUMMEL**, **LOCH**, a lake formed by the spreading of the above river about the middle of its course.

(1.) **TUMOR**, or **TUMOUR**, (§ 3.) See **MEDICINE**, Index.

(2.) **TUMOR**, in farriery. See **FARRIERY**.

(3.) * **TUMOUR**. *n. f.* [*tumor*, Lat.] 1. A morbid swelling.—*Tumour* is a disease, in which the parts recede from their natural state by an undue increase of their bigness. *Wifeman*.—Having seen what it is that feeds the tumour. *Gov. of the Tongue*.—Knots and tumours in any part of the body. *Blackmore*. 2. Affected pomp; false magnificence; puffy grandeur; swelling mien; unsubstantial greatness.—His stile was far from the tumour. *Wotton*.—*Tumour* and bold looks. *L'Estr*.

* **TUMOUROUS**. *adj.* [from *tumour*.] 1. Swelling;

ling; protuberant.—A pin small below and above, and tumorous in the middle. *Wotton*. 2. Fastuous; vainly pompous; falsely magnificent.—Vast and tumours, speaking of petty and inferior things. *Ben Jonson*.—Sublime and almost tumorous in his looks and gestures. *Wotton*.

* To TUMP, among gardeners, to fence trees about with earth.

TUMPACH, a town of Bavaria, in the Upper Palatinate; 2 miles ENE. of Nuremberg, and 17 NNW. of Amberg.

* To TUMULATE. *v. n.* [*tumulo*, Lat.] To swell. This seems to be the sense here, but I suspect the word to be wrong.—Urinous spirits, or volatile alkalis, as soon as they are put together, tumble and grow hot. *Boyle*.

* TUMULOSE. *adj.* [*tumulosus*, Lat.] Full of hills. *Bailey*.

* TUMULOSITY. *n. f.* [*tumulosus*, Lat.] Hilliness. *Bailey*.

(1.) * TUMULT. *n. f.* [*tumulte*, Fr. *tumultus*, Latin.] 1. A promiscuous commotion in a multitude.—A tumult is improved into a rebellion. *L'Estrange*.—Till in loud tumult all the Greeks arose. *Pope*. 2. A multitude put into wild commotion. 3. A stir; an irregular violence; a wild commotion.—What tumults in the heavens? *Shak*.—Tumult and confusion, all embroil'd. *Milton*.—A tumult among the elements. *Addison*.

(2.) TUMULT. See MOB.

* TUMULTUARILY. *adv.* [from *tumultuary*.] In a tumultuary manner.

* TUMULTUARINESS. *n. f.* [from *tumultuary*.] Turbulence; inclination or disposition to tumults or commotions.—The tumultuaries of the people. *K. Charles*.

* TUMULTUARY. *adj.* [*tumultuaire*, Fr. from *tumult*.] 1. Disorderly; promiscuous; confused.—Orderly, and not tumultuary arming. *Bacon*.—A tumultuary conflict. *King Charles*.—tumultuary agitations. *Glanv*. 2. Restless; put into irregular commotion.—In a tumultuary and restless state. *Atterbury*.

* To TUMULTUATE. *v. n.* [*tumultuor*, Lat.] To make a tumult.

* TUMULTUATION. *n. f.* [from *tumultuate*.] Irregular and confused agitation.—Sudden and eager tumultuation. *Boyle*.

* TUMULTUOUS. *adj.* [from *tumult*; *tumultueux*, Fr.] 1. Violently carried on by disorderly multitudes.—Civil broils, and tumultuous rebellions. *Spenser*. 2. Put into violent commotion; irregularly and confusedly agitated.—Some tumultuous cloud. *Milton*.—His tumultuous breath. *Milton*.—In such tumultuous tides. *Addison*. 3. Turbulent; violent.—This tumultuous strife. *Shak*.—Tumultuous speech. *Knolles*. 4. Full of tumults.—A tumultuous kingdom. *Sidney*.

* TUMULTUOUSLY. *adv.* [from *tumultuous*.] By act of the multitude; with confusion and violence.—It was done by edict, not tumultuously. *Bacon*.

(1.) * TUN. *n. f.* [*tunne*, Sax. *tonne*, Dut. *tonne*, *tonneau*, Fr.] 1. A large cask.—A heap of powder, laid.—Fit for the tun. *Milt*. 2. A pipe; the measure of two hogheads. 3. Any large quantity proverbially.—Tuns of blood. *Shak*. 4. A drunkard; in burlesque.—A tun of midnight-work.

Dryden. 5. The weight of two thousand pounds. 6. A cubic space in a ship, supposed to contain a tun.—A boat of ten tuns cannot be brought into the haven. *Heylyn*. 7. *Dryden* has used it for a geometrical measure, I believe without precedent or propriety.—A tun about was every pillar there. *Dryden*.

(2.) TUN, a large vessel or cask, of an oblong form, biggest in the middle, and diminishing towards its two ends, girt about with hoops, and used for stowing several kinds of merchandize for convenience of carriage; as brandy, oil, sugar, skins, hats, &c.

(3.) TUN is also the name of a measure. A ton of wine is four hogheads; of timber, a square of 40 solid feet; and of coals, 20 cwt.

(4.) TUN is also a certain weight whereby the burden of ships, &c. are estimated.

* To TUN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To put into casks; to barrel.—While it worketh, before it be tunned. *Bacon*.—The same fermented juice tunned up, arms itself with tartar. *Boyle*.

(1.) TUNA, a town of Arabia, in Hedsjas.

(2.) TUNA, an island of Egypt, in lake Tennis.

(3.) TUNA, a town in the above island.

(4.) TUNA, a town of Norway, on the Glanmen, 2 miles NE. of Frederickstadt.

(5.) TUNA, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia: 13 miles S. of Fahlun.

(6.) TUNA, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 56 miles N. of Calmar.

* TUNABLE. *adj.* [from *tune*.] Harmonious; musical.—A cry more tunable. *Shak*.—And tunable as sylvan pipe or song. *Milton*.—Tunable sounds. *Holder*.—Not altogether tunable to a modern ear. *Garth*.

* TUNABLENESS. *n. f.* [from *tunable*.] Harmony; melodiousness.

* TUNABLY. *adv.* [from *tunable*.] Harmoniously; melodiously.

TUNBO, a town of Sweden, in Sudermanland; 50 miles W. of Stockholm.

(1.) TUNBRIDGE, a town of Kent, on a branch of the Medway, over which there is a bridge. It is a large well built place, noted for the mineral waters, 4 or 5 miles S. of the town. Lon. o. 20. E. Lat. 51. 14. N.

(2.) TUNBRIDGE WELLS, a town of Kent, 5 miles S. of Tunbridge, but in the same parish. In June, July, and August, it is much frequented for its mineral waters, which were discovered by Dudley lord North, in 1606.

TUNDERGARTH. See TONDERGARTH.

(1.) * TUNE. *n. f.* [*toon*, Dut. *ton*, Swed. *tonne*, Ital. *tone*, Fr. *tonus*, Lat.] 1. Tune is a diversity of notes put together. *Locke*.—Whose difform tune bereft my vital pow'rs? *Shak*.—Tunes and airs have in themselves some affinity with the affections. *Bacon*.—After the heavenly tune. *Milton*.—The tune I still retain. *Dryden*.—The disposition in the fiddle to play tunes. *Arbutnot*. 2. Sound; note.—As loud, and to as many tunes. *Shak*. 3. Harmony; order; concert of parts.—Keep the commonwealth in tune. *King Charles*. 4. State of giving the due sounds; as, the fiddle is in tune, or out of tune.—Proper state for use or application; right disposition; fit temper; proper humour.—A child will learn three times as much when he is in

in *tune*. *Locke*. 6. State of any thing with respect to order.—*Lear*, in his better *tune*. *Shak*.

(1.) *TUNE*. See *MUSIC* and *TONE*.

(1.) * *To TUNE*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To put into such a state as that the proper sounds may be produced.—*Harp*s ever *tun'd*. *Milton*.—*Tune* your harps. *Dryden*. 2. To sing harmoniously.—*Warbling tune* his praise. *Milton*.—*Tune* your *io* *Poëans*. *Dryden*.—Leave such to *tune* their own dull rhymes. *Pope*. 3. To put into order, so as to produce the proper effect.

(2.) * *To TUNE*. *v. n.* 1. To form one sound to another.—*Whilst tuning* to the waters fall. *Drayton*.—*Temper'd soft tunings*, intermix'd with voice. *Milton*. 2. To utter with the voice inarticulate harmony.

* *TUNEFUL*. *adj.* [tune and full.] Musical; harmonious.—*With chant of tuneful birds*. *Milt*.—*And birds to lay of love their tuneful notes apply*. *Dryden*.—*Thy tuneful sons*. *Prior*.—*Mute the tuneful tongue*. *Pope*.

TUNKA, a town of Russia, in the prov. of Irkutsk, on the *Ilem*; 84 miles N. of Balagenskoi.

* *TUNELESS*. *adj.* [from *tune*.] Unharmonious; unmusical.—*My tuneless harp*. *Spenser*.—*Thy tuneless serenade*? *Cowley*.

* *TUNER*. *n. f.* [from *tuner*.] One who tunes.—*New tuners* of accents. *Shak*.

TUNETTA, an ancient town of Africa, near which *REGULUS*, the celebrated Roman general, was defeated and taken prisoner, by *Xanthippus*. *Liv.* 30. c. 9. It is now called *Tunis*.

TUNGA, a town of Africa, in *Tunis*.

TUNGEHADRA, a river of Hindoostan, in *Golconda*, which runs into the *Kistnah*, 7 miles E. of *Rachore*.

TUNGINSKOI, a town of Russia, on the *Irkut*, 30 miles SW. of *Irkutsk*; and 800 ESE. of *Kolivan*.

TUNGRI, an ancient nation of Germany, who lived on the banks of the *Maëse*, or of the *Spaw*. Their capital was called *Atuatua*, now *TONGREEN*.

TUNGSTAS, } *n. f.* a salt formed by the u-
TUNGSTAT, } nion of the *TUNGSTIC ACID*,
with different bases.

1. *TUNGSTAT OF IRON AND MANGANESE*. See *MINERALOGY*, *Part. II. Chap. VII. Gen. I. Sp. 1*. This species was first called *WOLFRAM*.

2. *TUNGSTAT OF LIME*. See *MINERALOGY*, as above, *Gen. I. Sp. 2*.

3. *TUNGSTAT OF LIME, BROWN*. See *MINERALOGY*, as above, *Sp. 3*.

(1.) *TUNGSTEN*, *n. f.* one of the 22 METALS, discovered and ascertained, as distinct from earths, stones and all other minerals, by the industry of modern Chemists. "There is a mineral," (says *Dr Thomson*) found in Sweden of an opaque white colour, and great weight, from which last circumstance it got the name of *tungsten* or *ponderous stone*. *Scheele* analysed it in 1781, and found it was composed of lime and a peculiar earthy-like substance, which he called from its properties *TUNGSTIC ACID*. *Bergman* conjectured that the basis of this acid is a metal; and this conjecture was soon after confirmed by the experiments of Messrs *D'Elhuyarts*, who obtained the same substance from a mineral of a brownish black colour,

VOL. XXII. PART II.

called by the Germans *WOLFRAM*, which is sometimes found in tin mines. This mineral they found to contain $\frac{1}{3}$ of tungstic acid: the rest of it consisted of manganese, iron and tin. This acid substance they mixed with charcoal powder, and beat violently in a crucible. On opening the crucible, after it had cooled, they found in it a button of metal of a dark brown colour, which crumbled to powder between the fingers. On viewing it with a glass, they found it to consist of a congeries of metallic globules, some of which were as large as a pin's head. The metal thus obtained is called *tungsten*. The manner in which it was produced is evident: tungstic acid is composed of oxygen and tungsten; the oxygen combined with the carbon and left the metal in a state of purity.—*TUNGSTEN*, called by the German chemists *SCHÆLLUM*, is of a greyish white colour, and has a good deal of brilliancy. It is one of the hardest of the metals; for *Vauquelin* and *Hecht* could scarcely make any impression upon it with a file. It seems also to be brittle. Its specific gravity, according to the *D'Elhuyarts*, is 17.6: but this is doubtful, without farther experiments. It requires for fusion a temperature of at least 170° Wedg. It seems to have the property of crystallizing on cooling, like all the other metals: for the imperfect button, procured by *Vauquelin*, contained a great number of small crystals. It is not attracted by the magnet. When heated in an open vessel, it gradually absorbs oxygen, and is converted into an oxide. Tungsten is capable of combining with a different proportions of oxygen, and of forming a different oxides; the black and the yellow." See *TUNGSTIC ACID*; *METALLURGY*, *Part I. Sect. I*; and *MINERALOGY*, *Part III. Chap. IV. § XVII.* and *Sect V. § 17*.

(2.) *TUNGSTEN*, COMBINATIONS OF. "The *Elhuyarts* alone" (says *Dr Thomson*), "attempted to combine tungsten with other metals. They mixed 100 gr. of the metals to be employed, with 50 gr. of the yellow oxide of tungsten, and a quantity of charcoal, and heated the mixture in a crucible. The result of their experiments is as follows: 1. With *GOLD* and *PLATINUM* the tungsten did not combine. 2. With *SILVER* it formed a button of a whitish brown colour, something spongy, which with a few strokes of a hammer extended easily, but on continuing them it split in pieces. The button weighed 144 grains. 3. With *COPPER* it gave a button of a copperish red, which approached to a dark brown, was spongy, and pretty ductile, and weighed 123 gr. 4. With crude or cast *IRON*, of a white quality, it gave a perfect button, the fracture of which was compact, and of a whitish brown colour; it was hard, harsh, and weighed 137 gr. 5. With *LEAD* it formed a button of a dull dark brown, with very little lustre, spongy, very ductile, and splitting into leaves when hammered; it weighed 127 gr. 6. The button formed with *TIN* was of a lighter brown than the last, very spongy, somewhat ductile, and weighed 128 gr. 7. That with *ANTIMONY* was of a dark brown colour, shining, something spongy, harsh, and broke in pieces easily: it weighed 108 gr. 8. That of *BI SMUTH* presented a fracture which, when seen in one light, was

T t t

of

of a dark brown colour, with the lustre of a metal, and in another appeared like earth without any lustre; but in both cases one could discover an infinity of little holes over the whole mass. This button was pretty hard, harsh, and weighed 68 gr. 9. With MANGANESE it gave a button of a dark bluish brown colour and earthy aspect: on examining the internal part of it with a lens, it resembled impure drops of iron: it weighed 107 gr. "PHOSPHORUS is capable of combining with tungsten; but none of the properties of the phosphuret have been ascertained."

(3.) TUNGSTEN, ORES, OXIDES, AND SALT OF. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Ord. XVII. Gen. I. Sp. 1. 2. Part III. Chap. IV. § XVII. Chap. V. § 17.

(4.) TUNGSTEN SULPHURET OF. The sulphuret of tungsten is of a bluish black colour, hard, and capable of crystallizing.

(1.) TUNGSTIC. *adj.* [from tungsten.] Of or belonging to tungsten: containing the essence of that metal.

(2.) TUNGSTIC ACID, in chemistry, a new acid lately supposed to be discovered, extracted from the new metal called TUNGSTEN. Of this acid, the ingenious Dr Thomas Thomson gives the following account, in his *Syst. of Chem.* vol. 2. p. 87, 88. "The substance, called *Tungstic Acid*, by Scheele and Bergman, was discovered by Scheele in 1781. This philosopher obtained it from TUNGSTAT OF LIME, by treating it with nitric acid and with ammonia alternately. The acid dissolves the lime, and the ammonia combines with the tungstic acid. The ammoniacal solution, when saturated with nitric or muriatic acid, deposits a white powder, which is the TUNGSTIC ACID of Scheele. This powder has an acid taste, it reddens vegetable blues, and is soluble in 20 parts of boiling water." But the *D'Eibuyarts* have demonstrated, that this pretended acid is a compound of yellow oxid of tungsten, the alkali employed to dissolve it, and the acid used to precipitate it. Thus when prepared according to the above process, it is a compound of yellow oxide, ammonia, and nitric acid. Their conclusions have been more lately confirmed by the experiments of Vauquelin and Hecht. This substance must therefore be erased from the list of acids, and placed among the salts. The real ACID OF TUNGSTEN is a yellow powder; the method of procuring which and its properties are thus described by Dr Thomson, vol. I. p. 215. "The black oxide of tungsten, (says Dr Thomson) which contains the smallest proportion of oxygen, may be obtained by heating the yellow oxide for some hours in a covered crucible. The yellow oxide, known also by the name of *Tungstic Acid*, is found native in WOLFRAM, and may be obtained from it by boiling 3 parts of muriatic acid in one part of wolfram. The acid is to be decanted in about half an hour, and allowed to settle. A yellow powder gradually precipitates. This powder is to be dissolved in ammonia, the solution, is to be evaporated to dryness, and the mass kept for some time in a red heat. It is then yellow oxide in a state of purity. This oxide has no taste. It is insoluble in water, but remains long suspended in that liquid, forming a kind of

yellow milk, which has no action on vegetable colours. When heated in a platinum spoon it becomes dark green; but before the blow-pipe on charcoal, it acquires a black colour. It is composed of 80 parts of tungsten and 30 of oxygen. Its specific gravity is 6.12."

TUNG-TCHOUEN, a city of China, of the first rank, capital of the prov. of Se-tchuen. Lon. 102. 25. E. Lat. 27. 30. N.

TUNGURAGUA, a mountain of Peru, 21 m. N. of Rio-Bamba.

TUNGUSES. See TARTARY, § 2.

TUNGUSIANS. See TONGUSIANS.

(1.) TUNGUSKA, NIZNEI, a river of Russia, in Irkutskoe, which rises 64 miles W. of Kirensk, and runs into the Enisei, 8 m. S. of Turuchansk.

(2.) TUNGUSKA, PODKANENSKAJA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Enisei, 200 miles below Eniseisk.

TUNGUSTI, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Ob: 56 miles S. of Tara.

TUNIA, or, a town of New Grenada, 30 miles TUNJA, § SW. of Truxillo.

(1.) TUNICA, a kind of waistcoat or under garment, in use among the Romans. They wore it within doors by itself, and abroad under the gown. The common people could not afford the toga, and so went in their tunics; whence Horace calls them *populus tunicatus*.

(2.) TUNICA, in anatomy, is applied to the membranes which invest the vessels, and divers others of the less solid parts of the body; thus the intestines are formed of five tunics or coats.

(3.) TUNICA ARACHOIDES. See ANATOMY, Index.

(4.) TUNICA VAGINALIS TESTIS. See SURGERY, § 596.

(1.) * TUNICK. *n. f.* [tunique, Fr. tunica, Lat.] 1. Part of the Roman dress.—The *tunicks* of the Romans, which answer to our waistcoats, were without ornaments, and with very short sleeves. *Arbuth.* 2. Natural covering; integument; tunicle.—The intern *tunic* of the gullet. *Harvey.*—Well fenced with neat and close *tunicks*. *Derham.*

(2.) TUNICK. See TOGA.

* TUNICLE. *n. f.* [from *tunick*.] Natural cover; integument.—The humours and *tunicles* are purely transparent. *Ray.*—Four or five distinct plant. under one common *tunicle*. *Bentley.*

(1.) TUNING, *part. n. f.* See MONOCHORD, § 2.

(2.) TUNING OF KEYED INSTRUMENTS. The method of tuning any instrument by means of the monochord is as follows: First, you must tune the C of the monochord to the concert pitch by means of a tuning fork; next, you are to put the middle C of your instrument in perfect unison with the C of the monochord: Then move the sliding fret to the next division on the scale, and proceed in the same manner with all the several notes and half notes within the compass of an octave. When this is done with accuracy, the other keys are all to be tuned, by comparing them with the octave which is already tempered. The monochord is here supposed to be made to the pitch of C; but this may be varied at the will of the constructor.

TUNICK,

TUNIOK, a town of Hungary, seated on the *Samos*, 6 miles E. of *Etfed*.

(1.) **TUNIS**, a country of Africa, in Barbary, bounded on the N. and E. by the Mediterranean and the kingdom of Tripoli, on the S. by several tribes of the Arabs, and on the W. by Algiers and the country of *Esfab*; being 300 miles long from E. to W. and 250 in breadth from N. to S. This country was formerly a monarchy; but a difference arising between a king and his son, one of whom was for the protection of the Christians, and the other for that of the Turks, in 1574 the inhabitants shook off the yoke of both. From this time it became a republic under the protection of the Turks, and pays a certain tribute to the *bashaw* who resides at *Tunis*. The air in general is healthy; but the soil in the eastern parts is indifferent for want of water. Towards the middle the mountains and valleys abound in fruits; but the western part is the most fertile, because it is watered with rivers. The environs of *Tunis* are very dry, upon which account corn is generally dear. The inroads of the Arabs oblige the inhabitants to sow their barley and rye in the suburbs, and to inclose their gardens with walls. However, there are plenty of citrons, lemons, oranges, dates, grapes, and other fruits. There are also olive-trees, roses, and odoriferous plants. In the woods and mountains there are lions, wild bees, ostriches, monkeys, camels, roebucks, hares, pheasants, partridges, and other sorts of birds and beasts. The most remarkable rivers are the *Guadilcarbar*, *Magrida*, *Magerada*, and *Caps*. The form of government is aristocratic; that is, by a council, whose president is the *dey*, not unlike the *doge* of Venice. The members of the *divan* or council are chosen by the *dey*, and he in his turn is elected by the *divan*; which is composed of soldiers, who have more than once taken off the *dey's* head. The *bashaw* is a Turk, residing at *Tunis*. The inhabitants carry on a great trade in linen and woollen cloth. They also have a trade in horses, olives, oil, soap, ostriches eggs and feathers. The principal religion is *Marometanism*; but the inhabitants consist of Moors, Turks, Arabs, Jews, and Christian slaves.

(2.) **TUNIS**, a large and celebrated city, the capital of a kingdom of the same name. It is seated on the point of the gulph of *Goletta*, about 8 miles from the place where the city of *Carthage* stood. It is in the form of a long square, and is about 4 miles in circumference, with 10 large streets, 5 gates, and 35 mosques. The houses are all built with stone, though but not very high; but the walls are very lofty, andanked with several strong towers. It has a good *adel*, and is said to contain 300,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Jews. Lon. 10. 16. E. Lat. 6. 42. N.

TUNISIANS. *n. f. plur.* the people of *TUNIS*.
TUNKAT. See *TONCAT*.

TUNKERS, a religious sect of baptists in Pennsylvania, so called from the word *tunker*, to put morfel in fauce. They are also called *tumblers*, because in performing baptism they plunge the person into the water with the head first. As the Germans found the letters *t* and *b* like *d* and *p*, the words *tunkers* and *tumblers*, have been some-

times written *dunkers* and *dumplers*. Their church government and discipline are the same with those of the English baptists, except that every brother is allowed to speak in the congregation, and the best speaker is usually ordained to be their minister. They are a harmless, well meaning people.

(1.) * **TUNNAGE**. *n. f.* [from *tun*.] 1. Content of a vessel measured by the ton.—Bulk and *tunnage* of their shipping. *Arbutb.* 2. Tax laid by a *tun*; as, to levy *tunnage* and poundage.

(2.) **TUNNAGE**. See *TONNAGE*.

* **TUNNEL**. *n. f.* 1. The shaft of a chimney; the passage for the smoke.—And one great chimney, whose long *tunnel* thence. *Spenser*.—The smoke, might linger in the *tunnel*. *Wotton*. 2. A funnel; a pipe by which liquor is poured into vessels.—Make an instrument like a *tunnel*. *Bacon*. 3. A net wide at the mouth, and ending in a point, and so resembling a funnel or tunnel.

* **To TUNNEL**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To form like a tunnel.—*Tunnelled*, convolved leaves. *Derham*. 2. To catch in a net. 3. This word is used by *Derham* for to make net-work; to reticulate.—Some birds curiously *tunnel* the fibrous parts of vegetables into nests. *Derham*.

(1.) * **TUNNY**. *n. f.* [*tonnen*, Ital. *thynnus*, Lat.] A sea-fish.—*Tunny* and turbot. *Carreau*.

(2.) **TUNNY**, in ichthyology. See *SCOMBER*, N° 2.

(3.) **TUNNY**, FISHING. See *FISHERY*, § 12. and *SCOMBER*, N° 2.

TUNS, in geography, islets or rocks in *St George's Channel*, near the coast of *Wexfordshire*, *Ireland*; 3 miles NE. of the *SALTES* Islands.

TUNSTALL, James, D. D. a learned English divine, born in 1720, and educated at *St John's College*, Cambridge. He became rector of *Stwimmer* in *Essex*, in 1739, and public orator of the university, in 1741. He wrote *Academica*, or *Discourses upon Natural and Revealed Religion*, and several other works: and died in 1772.

(1.) * **TUP**. *n. f.* [I know not of what original.] A ram. This word is yet used in *Staffordshire*, and in other provinces.

(2.) **TUP**, in zoology. See *ARIES*, N° 2; *OVIS*, § II. N° 1. § IV. N° ii. *RAM*. § 1; and *SHEEP*, § 8, and II.

* **To TUP**. *v. n.* To but like a ram.

TUPERSDORF, a town of Upper Saxony, in *Vogtland*; 4 miles NE. of *Oelnitz*.

TUPES, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of *Chrudim*; 8 miles NW. of *Chrudim*.

(1.) **TURA**, a town of Germany in *Tirol*, 34 miles SW. of *Trent*, and 9 SW. of *Riva*.

(2.) **TURA**, an island, in the Grecian archipelago. Lon. 42. 1. E. Ferro. Lat. 39. 34. N.

(3.) **TURA**, a town of Hungary, 24 miles W. of *Topoltzan*.

(4.) **TURA**, a river of Russia, which rises 40 miles NW. of *Verchotura*, in the prov. of *Ekaterinenburg*; and runs into the *Tobol*, opposite *Turchanskoi*, in *Tobolskoi*.

TURAN, or *DURAN*, a country of *Hindoostan*, extending between *India* and *Persia*, and possessed by the *AFGHANS*. It was for many years prosperously governed by their monarch, *Abdalab*, who strengthened himself by forming

an alliance with the celebrated usurper KOU-LI Khan, or NADIR Shah, which was strictly observed till the death of Nadir, which he even attempted to *revenge*. Abdallah was succeeded by *Ahmed*, who was still more successful, and in a few months conquered all the countries which the Mogul had been forced to cede to Nadir. He also conquered the whole province of LAHORE, and laid DELHI under a contribution, in 1755. He also took the famous city of *Matra*, the reputed birth-place of the Hindoo deity, *Krishen*, the APOLLO of the Hindoos, and sacrificed to the *Gobia*, the *Muses* of Indostan. In 1761, his son *Timur* having been defeated by a party of Maharrattas, under the famous *Roganaut Row*, Ahmed became the head of a combination of Indian princes, who united to oppose the over-grown power of the MAHARRATTAS, whom he totally overthrew in a bloody battle, wherein above 50,000 of them were killed on the spot. In 1762, he again crossed the Indus, to exterminate the SEIKS, a tribe of Hindoos, who profess *Deism*, and on that account are hated by the superstitious Mahometans. He accordingly defeated them with great slaughter, and in the true spirit of bigotry, massacred the prisoners and piled up their heads in pyramids. At last this bloody conqueror died of an ulcer in his face on the 15th July 1773; and was succeeded by *Timur*. But since the death of Ahmed, the Afghans of Turan have made no figure in Indian history.

TURANO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: 3 miles W. of Bisignano.

TURATTE, a powerful kingdom, in the island of Celebes; with its capital city, of the same name; 60 miles N. of MACASSAR.

(1.) TURBAN. *n. f.* [from *turban*, the eastern nations. It consists of two parts, a cap and fast of fine linen or taffety, artfully wound in divers plaits about the cap. The cap has no brim, is pretty flat, though roundish at top, and quilted with cotton; but does not cover the ears. The fast of the Turks turban is white linen; that of the Persians red woollen. These are the distinguishing marks of their different religions; Sophi king of Persia, being of the sect of Ali, was the first who assumed the red colour, to distinguish himself from the Turks, who are of the sect of Omar, and whom the Persian esteem heretics.

(2.) *TURBAN. } TURBANT. *n. f.* [A Turkish

(3.) *TURBAND. } word.] The cover worn by the Turks on their heads.—Keep their impious turbans on. *Shak*—His hat was in the form of a *turban*. *Bacon*.—Dusk faces with white silken turbans wreath'd. *Milton*.—I see the Turk nodding with his *turban*. *Howel*.—For folded turbans finest Holland bear. *Dryden*.

*TURBANED. *adj.* [from *turban*.] Wearing a turban.—A *turban'd* Turk. *Shak*.

*TURBANT. *See* TURBAN.

*TURBARY. *n. f.* [*tubaria*, low Latin; from *turf*.] The right of digging turf. *Skinner*.

TURBED, a town of Persia, in the province of Chorasán; 90 miles SSW. of Meshid.

TURBICO, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the department of the Olona, and ci-devant duchy of Milan; 13 miles W. of Milan.

*TURBID. *adj.* [*turbidus*, Lat.] Thick; muddy; not clear.—Lees make the liquid *turbid*. *Bac*.—*Turbid* streaming clouds of smoke. *Phil*.—Springs, before clear, fresh, and limpid, became thick and *turbid*. *Woodward*.

*TURBIDNESS. *n. f.* [from *turbid*.] Muddiness; thickness.

TURBIDO, Francis, an eminent Italian painter, born at Verona, in 1500. He studied under Giorgione and Veronese. He painted in oil and in fresco. His best piece is a *Transfiguration*. He died in 1581.

*TURBINATED. *adj.* [*turbinatus*, Latin.] 1. Twisted; spiral; passing from narrower to wider.—A spiral and *turbinated* motion of the whole moved body. *Bentley*. 2. Among botanists, plants are called *turbinated*, as some parts of them resemble, or are of a conical figure. *Di3*.

*TURBINATION. *n. f.* [from *turbinated*.] The art of spinning like a top.

(1.) *TURBITH. *n. f.* [*turpethus*, Lat.] Yellow mercury precipitate.—Twelve grains of *turbith* mineral. *Wifeman*.

(2.) TURBITH MINERAL. *See* CHEMISTRY, and PHARMACY, *Indexes*; and TURPETH.

TURBO, the WREATH, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *vermes testaces*. The animal is of the snail kind; the shell consists of one spiral solid valve, and the aperture is orbicular. There are 116 species; of which the most remarkable are,

1. TURBO CLATHEUS, or *barbed wreath*, has a taper shell of 3 spires, distinguished by elevated divisions running from the aperture to the apex. There is a variety pellucid, with very thin edges. It is analogous to that curious and expensive shell, the *wenle trap*.

2. TURBO LITTOREUS, or *periwinkle*. They are abundant on moist rocks far above low-water mark.

(1.) *TURBOT. *n. f.* [*turbot*, French and Dut. *rhombus*, Latin.] A delicate fish.—*Turbot* preserved fresh in vinegar. *Carew*.—The salmon, the *turbot*. *Peacham*.

(2.) TURBOT, in ichthyology. *See* PLEURO-NECTES.

*TURBULENCE. } *n. f.* [*turbulence*, Fr. *turba-*

*TUREULENCY. } *lentia*, Lat.] 1. Tumult; confusion.—Bloody *turbulence*. *Shak*.—Like *turbulencies* in the affairs of men. *Milton*. 2. Disorder of passions.—I come to calm thy *turbulence* of mind. *Dryden*. 3. Tumultuousness; tendency to confusion.—This *turbulence* of blood. *Swift*.

*TURBULENT. *adj.* [*turbulentus*, Latin.] 1. Raising agitation; producing commotion.—Whole heads that *turbulent* liquor fills with fumes. *Milt*. 2. Exposed to commotion; liable to agitation.—Once full of peace; now tost, and *turbulent*. *Milt*. 3. Tumultuous; violent.—For so untam'd, so *turbulent* a mind. *Dryden*.—The *turbulent* mirth of wine. *Dryden*.—Ambitious and *turbulent* spirits. *Bentley*.

*TURBULENTLY. *adv.* [from *turbulent*.] Tumultuously; violently.

TURCÆ, or } (*Mela*); supposed to be the
TURCI, } TUSCI of Ptolemy; whom he
places between Caucasus and the Montes Cerau-
ni.

nii. The name is said to denote, "to desolate, or lay waste." Herodotus places them among the wild or barbarous nations of the north. There is a very rapid river called *Turk*, running into the Caspian Sea, from which some suppose the Turks to take their name. They made no figure in the world till towards the 7th century; about the beginning of which they fell from the Portæ Caspiæ, laid waste Persia, and joined the Romans against Chosroes king of Persia. In 1042 they subdued the Persians, in whose pay they served, and from whom they derived the Mahometan religion; and afterwards pouring forth, over-ran Syria, Cappadocia, and the other countries of the Hither Asia, under distinct heads or princes, whom Ottoman succeeding, united the whole power in himself, which to this day continues in his family, and who fixed his seat of empire at Prusa in Bithynia. His successors subdued all Greece, and at length took Constantinople in 1453; which put a period to the Roman empire in the East, under Constantine XIII. There is a standing tradition among the Turks, that their empire will at length be overturned by the Franks or Christians.

(1.) **TURCKHEIM**, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Rhine, and ci-devant prov. of Alsace, near the Colmar, memorable for a victory obtained near it, by Turenne, over the imperialists, in 1675. It is one mile W. of Colmar, and 4 SSW. of Schleusstadt. Lon. 7. 26. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

(2.) **TURCKHEIM**, a town of Germany, in Suabia, in the lordship of Mindelheim; 6 miles E. of Mindelheim, and 30 SE. of Ulm.

(3.) **TURCKHEIM RHEIN**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Tonnerre, and ci-devant bishopric of Worms; 4 miles N. of Worms.

TURCOCARIA, a town of European Turkey, in Livadia, 14 miles N. of Livadia.

TURCOIN, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, and district of Lille. Turcoin lies 6 miles NE. of Lille, and 9 SW. of Courtray.

TURCOISE. See **TURQUOISE**.

TURCOMANIA, a province of Asiatic Turkey, comprehending the ancient kingdom of Armenia, or that part of Armenia which belongs to the Turks.

TURCOMANS. See **TARTARY**, § 2.

TURCZYNKA, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the late palatinate of Volhynia, 38 miles N. of Zydomiers; now annexed to Russia.

* **TURD**. *n. f.* [*turd*, Saxon.] Excrement.

TURDETANI, an ancient people of Hispania Bætica, who inhabited the country on both sides of the Bætis. *Liv.* 21. c. 6. &c.

TURDETANIA, the country of the **TURDETANI**. See **BORTICA**.

TURDUS, the **THRUSH**; a genus of birds belonging to the order of *passeres*. The bill is straightish, bending towards the point, and slightly notched near the end of the upper mandible. The nostrils are oval, naked, or half covered with a membrane; the corners of the mouth are furnished with a few slender hairs, and the tongue is slightly jagged at the end. There are 136 species: of which 7 are British; viz. all the following, except the **POLYGLOTTUS**.

1. **TURDUS ILIACUS**, the **REDWING**, has a very near resemblance to the thrush, but is less; their colours are much the same; only the sides under the wings and the inner coverts in this are of a reddish orange, in the thrush yellow; above each eye is a line of yellowish white, beginning at the bill, and passing towards the hind part of the head. These birds appear in Great Britain a few days before the fieldfare; they come in vast flocks, and from the same countries as the latter. With us they have only a disagreeable piping note; but in Sweden, during the spring, they sing very finely, perching on the top of some tree among the forests of maples. They build their nests in hedges, and lay six bluish-green eggs spotted with black.

2. **TURDUS MERULA**, the **BLACK BIRD**, when it has attained its full age, is of a fine deep black, and the bill of a bright yellow; the edges of the eyelids yellow. When young, the bill is dusky, and the plumage of a rusty black, so that they are not to be distinguished from the females; but at the age of one year they attain their proper colour. This species is of a very retired and solitary nature; frequents hedges and thickets, in which it builds earlier than any other bird. It lays 4 or 5 eggs of a bluish-green colour, marked with irregular dusky spots. The note of the male is extremely fine, but too loud for any place except the woods; it begins to sing early in the spring, continues its music part of the summer, desists in the moulting season, but resumes it for some time in September and the first winter months.

3. **TURDUS MUSICUS**, the **THRUSTLE**, is in length 9 inches, in breadth 133. In colour, it so nearly resembles the **MISSAL**, (N° 8.) that no other remark need be added, but that it is less, and that the inner coverts of the wings are yellow. The thrush is the finest of our singing birds, not only for the sweetness and variety of its notes, but for the long continuance of its harmony; for it obliges us with its song for near three parts of the year. Like the *missal*, it delivers its music from the top of some high tree; but to form its nest descends to some low bush or thicket: the nest is made of earth, moss, and straw, and the inside is curiously plastered with clay. It lays 5 or 6 eggs, of a pale bluish-green, marked with dusky spots.

4. **TURDUS PILARIS**, the **FIELDFARE**, is in length 10 inches, in breadth 17. The head is ash-coloured, inclining to olive, and spotted with black; the back and greater coverts of the wings of a fine deep chestnut; the tail is black; the lower parts of the two middlemost feathers, and the interior upper sides of the outmost feathers excepted; the first being ash-coloured, the latter white. The legs are black; the talons very strong. This species passes the summer in the northern parts of Europe, also in Lower Austria. They breed in the largest trees; feed on berries of all kinds and are very fond of those of the juniper. Fieldfares visit our islands in great flocks about Michaelmas, and leave us in the end of Feb. or beginning of March. These birds and the redwings were the *turdi* of the Romans, which they fattened with crumbs of figs and bread mixed. Varro says they were birds of passage, coming in autumn

autumn and departing in spring. They must have been taken in great numbers; for, according to Varro (lib. 3. c. 5.), they were kept by thousands together in their fattening aviaries. They do not arrive in France till the beginning of December.

5. **TURDUS POLYGLOTTUS**, or the **MOCKING THRUSH**, is a native of America. It is about the size of a thrush, of a white and grey colour, and a reddish bill. It is possessed, not only of its own natural notes, which are musical and solemn, but it can assume the tone of every other animal in the wood, from the wolf to the raven.

6. **TURDUS ROSEUS**, a native of Great Britain.

7. **TURDUS TORQUATUS**, or **RING-OUZEL**, is superior in size to the black-bird; the length is 11 inches, breadth 17. The bill in some is wholly black, in others the upper half is yellow; on each side the mouth are a few bristles; the head and whole upper part of the body are dusky, edged with pale brown; the quill feathers and the tail are black. The coverts of the wings, the upper part of the breast, and the belly, are dusky, slightly edged with ash-colour. The middle of the breast is adorned with a white crescent, the horns of which point to the hind part of the neck. In some this is of a pure white, in others of a dirty hue. In the females and in young birds this mark is wanting, which gave occasion to some naturalists to form two species of them. The ring-ouzel inhabits the Highland hills, the north of England, and the mountains of Wales. They also breed in Dartmoor, in Devonshire, and on the sides of streams. The places of their retreat are not known. In Scotland and Wales they breed in the hills, but descend to the lower parts to feed on the berries of the mountain ash. They migrate in France at the latter season; and appear in small flocks about Monthard in Burgundy, in the beginning of October, but seldom stay above 2 or 3 weeks.

8. **TURDUS VISCIVORUS**, the **MISSAL**, is the largest of the genus. Its length is 11 inches; its breadth 16½. The bill is shorter and thicker than that of other thrushes; dusky, except the base of the lower mandible, which is yellow. The irides are hazel. Head, back, and lesser coverts of the wings, are of a deep olive brown. The lower part of the back is tinged with yellow. The lowest order of lesser coverts, and the great coverts are brown; the first tipped with white, the last both tipped and edged with the same colour. The inner coverts of the wings white. The tail is brown; the 3 outermost feathers tipped with white. The cheeks and throat are mottled with brown and white; the breast and belly are whitish yellow, marked with large spots of black; the legs are yellow. These birds build their nests in bushes, or on the side of some tree, generally an ash, and lay 4 or 5 eggs; their note of anger or fear is very harsh, between a chatter and shriek, from whence some of its English names. Its song, however, is very fine; which it begins sitting on the summit of a high tree, very early in the spring, often with the new year, in blowing showery weather, which makes the inhabitants of Hampshire call it the *form rock*. It feeds on insects, holly and mistletoe berries, which are the food of

all the thrush kind; in severe snowy weather, when there is a failure of their usual diet, they scratch out of the banks of hedges, the root of arum, or the cuckoo pint; this is remarkably warm and pungent, and a provision suitable to the season.

TURDUTI. See **TURDETANI**.

TURENBERG, a town of Prussia, in Smaland, 16 miles WNW. of Koningberg.

(1.) **TURENNE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Correze, and ci-devant county of Limoges, with a castle; 42 miles S. of Limoges. Lon. 1. 30 E. Lat. 45. 9. N.

(2.) **TURENNE**, Viscount. See **TOUR**, N° 1.

TUREQUATO, a town of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan, 33 miles S. of Mechoacan.

TUREVSKOI, a town of Russia, in the prov. of Ustiug, on the Vim, 60 miles NE. of Yarosl.

(1.) * **TURF**. *n. f.* [*tyrf*, Saxon; *torf*, Dutch; *turf*, Swedish.] A clod covered with grass; a part of the surface of the ground.—Ditch'd, and wall'd with *turf*. *Shak.*—*Turf* and peats are cheap fuels. *Bacon.*—They left me weary on a grassy *turf*. *Milton.*—I with green *turfs* would grateful altars raise. *Dryden.*—Their trampling turns the *turf*. *Dryd.*—A *turf* of earth. *Addis.*—The mossy *turf*. *Phil.*—The green *turf*. *Pope.*

(2.) **TURF**, or **PENT**, is a blackish earth used in several parts of Britain, Holland, and Flanders, as fuel. *Turf*, as distinguished from peat, consists of mould interwoven with the roots of vegetables; when those roots are of the bulbous kind, or in a large proportion, they form the looser and worse kind of *turf*; but when mixed with a considerable proportion of peat, they form what is called *stone turf*; it at first hardens, but at last crumbles by long exposure to the air.

* **To TURF**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover with turfs.—The face of the bank is *turfed*. *Mort.*

TURFAN. See **TOURFAN**.

* **TURFINESS**. *n. f.* [from *turf*.] The state of abounding with turfs.

* **TURFY**. *adj.* [from *turf*.] Full of turfs.

* **TURGENT**. *adj.* [*turgens*, Lat.] Swelling; portuberant; tumid.—Where humours are *turgent*. *Gov. Tongue.*—White o'er the *turgent* film the living dew. *Thomson.*

* **TURGESCENT**. } *n. f.* [*turgescens*, Latin.]

* **TURGESCENTY**. } 1. The act of swelling; the state of being swollen.—The infant *turgescens* is not to be taken off. *Brown.* 2. Empty magnificence.

TURGHE, a river of S. Wales, in Caermarthen-shire, which runs into the Cothey.

* **TURGID**. *adj.* [*turgidus*, Lat.] 1. Swelling; bloated; filling more room than before.—A bladder grew *turgid* and hard. *Boyle.*—The blood *turgid* and tumefied by the febrile fermentation. *Harvey.*—*Turgid* fruit. *Philips.*—Those channels, *turgid* with th' obstructed tide. *Black.* 2. Pompous; tumid; fastuous; vainly magnificent.—A violent and *turgid* manner of talking. *Watts.*

* **TURGIDITY**. *n. f.* [from *turgid*.] State of being swollen.—*Turgidity* of the eyes. *Arbuth.*

TURGOT, Anne Robert James, the famous financier, was born at Paris May 10, 1727, of a very ancient Norman family. His father was

long provost of the merchants, M. Turgot, at the age of 23, took his degree, and was elected prior of the Sorbonne, and afterwards master of requests. About this period he wrote some articles for the *Encyclopédie*. In 1761, he was appointed intendant of Limoges; in which office he did much good. At the death of Lewis XV. the public voice called M. Turgot to the first offices of government, as a man who united the experience resulting from habits of business to all the improvement which study can procure. After presiding in the marine department a short time, he was, Aug. 24, 1774, appointed comptroller-general of the finances. During his discharge of this important office, the beneficial objects he accomplished, are almost incredible. In the more immediate department of finances, he found the public borrowing at 5½ per cent, and reduced the rate to 4. He lessened the public engagements 84 millions. He found the revenue 19 millions deficient, and left a surplus of three millions and a half. His merits, however, only served to inflame the envy of courtiers. He was obliged to resign within 20 months. In retirement, his intellectual attainments effectually prevented the intrusion of ennui. He died March 20, 1781.

TURGOW. See **GOUDA**.

TURGUT, or DURGUT. See **DURGUT**.

TURIANO, a river of Sicily, which runs into the sea, 10 miles NE. of Mistrretta.

TURIAS, a river of Hispania Bastica, running into the Mediterranean; now called **GUADALAVIAR**.

TURICUM, an ancient town of Gallia Helvetica; now called **ZURICH**.

TURIGA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Niznei Tunguska; in Lon. 116. 30. E. Lat. 66. 12. N.

(1.) **TURIN**, an ancient, populous, strong, and handsome city of Italy, now annexed to the French empire, and capital of the dep. of the Po, as it formerly was of the late **PIEDMONTESSE**. It has a strong citadel, and had an university. It is seated on a vast plain, at the confluence of the Doria and Po. It is one of the handsomest cities in Italy; but the air is unhealthy in autumn and winter, on account of the thick fogs. One half of it is lately built; and the streets are straight and clean, being washed by an aqueduct. Before the late revolutions, there were above 87,000 inhabitants, and 48 churches and convents. Turin is very well fortified, and extremely strong. The French, in 1706, besieged it a long time in vain. But on the 10th Dec. 1798, it was entered by the French republicans, without opposition. In August 1799, it was retaken by the allies. But in 1800, it was recovered by the French, and annexed, with the rest of the king of Sardinia's dominions, to their republic. It still forms a part of the French empire. (See **REVOLUTION**, N° VI. § 42, 43.) There are also fine gardens on the side of the Po; and the house called *La Charité* is remarkable, as there is room for 3000 people. The college of the academy is very large and well built, and has a great number of ancient inscriptions. It is charmingly seated at the foot of a mountain, 63 miles NE. of Genoa, 72 SW. of Milan, and 280 NW. of Rome. Lon. 7. 45. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

(2.) **TURIN**, *n. f.* in the porcelain manufacture, a large oval vessel, for holding broth or soup, at table. Turins are also sometimes made of silver.

TURING, a town of Sweden, in Blekingen, 7 miles N. of Carlscrona.

TURINGE, a town of Sweden, in Sudermanland, 24 miles WSW. of Stockholm.

TURINSK, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, with a wooden fort, 7 churches, and 350 houses; 144 miles W. of Tobolsk, 620 WNW. of Kollivan, and 1028 E. of Petersburg. Lon. 81. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 58° N.

TURINSKOL, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Niznei Tunguska; 132 miles E. of Turuchansk.

TURIOSA, an ancient town of Spain.

(1.) **TURK**, a son of Japhet, whom the Moguls rank as their first monarch, (See **MOGULS**, § 2.) and from whom the Tartars claim their origin. (See **TARTARS**, § 1.)

(2.) **TURK**, *n. f.* a native of Turkey.

(3.) **TURK**, a rapid river of Asia, which runs into the Caspian Sea.

(4.) **TURK DEAN**, a town of England, in Gloucestershire, 3 miles N. of Leach.

(5.) **TURK ISLANDS**, a cluster of islets, among the Bahama Islands. Lon. 70. 52. W. Lat. 21. 26. N.

(6.) **TURK MOUNTAIN**, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, near Killarney lake, which affords one of the most beautiful prospects in Europe.

TURKEIM. See **TURCKHEIM**, N° 1, 2.

(1.) **TURKESTAN**, or **TARAZ**, a country of Asia, in Independent Tartary; (See **TARTARY**, N° II.) bounded on the N. by deserts, which separate it from Russian Tartary; on the E. by Chinese Tartary, and that part of Tartary possessed by the **KALMUCKS**; on the S. by **BUKHARIA**, and on the W. by *Charafm*, or **KARASH**, and the Caspian Sea. It extends 700 miles from E. to W. in length, and about 350 from N. to S. in breadth. It is divided between 2 Tartar khans; of whom the one resides at **TASCHKENT**, and possesses the E. part; the other, who possesses the W. district, resides at **TURKESTAN**, (N° 2.) and has the title of *khon of the Karakalpak*.

(2.) **TURKESTAN**, a city of Asia, capital of the above country. It is seated on a river, which runs into the **SIR**; in Lon. 87. 28. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 45. N.

(1, i.) **TURKEY**, a very extensive empire, comprehending some of the richest countries in Europe, Asia, and Africa. See **TURCKE**.

(2.) **TURKEY, BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS OF**. The Turkish empire comprehends various countries in Europe, Asia, and Africa; and is divided accordingly into,

i. **TURKEY, AFRICAN**. In Africa, the Turkish dominions are **EGYPT**, and some districts of **BARBARY**. See these articles in their order.

ii. **TURKEY, ASIATIC**, is divided into Eastern and Western. The Eastern comprehends Georgia, Turcomania, and Diarbekir; and the Western, Natolia, or Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine.

iii. **TURKEY, EUROPEAN**, or Turkey in Europe, is bounded on the S. by the Mediterranean; on the N. by Croatia, Slavonia, and Transylvania;

nia; on the E. by Poland, Russia, and Asia; and on the W. by the Adriatic and Dalmatia. The principal countries of European Turkey, are Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, Walachia, Moldavia, Bessarabia, Greece, Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, Livadia, Morea, and the Archipelago Islands.

(3.) **TURKEY, GOVERNMENT OF.** The grand signior, or emperor of the Turks, is restrained by no laws or compacts, the government being purely despotic; but if he indulges not the humours of the people, and especially of the mutinous janisaries, he is in danger, not only of being deposed, but also of being put to death. Those who have offices under the government, he squeezes, disgraces, and puts to death, upon the least suggestion of their disaffection or misconduct, without giving them an opportunity of answering for themselves, they being looked upon as more immediately his slaves. In the succession to the empire, no regard is paid to age or birth-right, the Turks thinking it sufficient, if, in their elections, they keep to the family. Women are excluded from the throne. The emperor's council is either ordinary or extraordinary. The first, meeting every Sunday and Thursday, consists of the great officers of state, and is called the *divan*. (See *DIVAN*, § 2.) The sultan hears what passes from an adjoining chamber. At the head of the ministry is the grand vizir, who is, as it were, his lieutenant-general, with whom he divides, or rather to whom he leaves, the care of the whole empire: he being entrusted not only with the finances, with foreign affairs, and the administration of justice in civil and criminal matters, but also with the conduct of the war, and the command of the army. His income, without any breach of probity, may amount to 600,000 dollars, exclusive of presents and other perquisites. Notwithstanding his high dignity, his palace is open to every one, and he gives audience to the meanest of the poor. When the sultan names a grand vizir, he puts into his hand the seal of the empire; and when he honours him with the command of an army, he takes out one of the plumes of his own turban at the head of the troops, and delivers it to him to place it in his own. The other great officers of state are the *KAIMAKAN*, or vizir's deputy, not to be confounded with the governor of Constantinople, who is also called *kaimakan*; the vizirs of the bench, or *bailhas* of three horse tails, because three horse tails are carried before them when they march, and who sit in the *divan* or courts of justice with him: the *kadi-lasquiers*, or chief justices of provinces; the *BEGLERBEGS* or viceroys, of which the chief are those of Romania, Natolia, and Damascus; the ordinary *bailhas* or governors of towns and districts under the *beglerbegs*; the *reis effendi*, or lord chancellor and secretary of state; the *tefterder* or high treasurer; the *aga* of the janisaries; the *aga* of the *sphas*; the *aga* of the *huds*, &c.

(4.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE ORIGIN OF THE EMPIRE, TILL MAHOMET II.'S ACCESSION.** Of the origin of the Turkish empire, and the first Turkish invasion of the Roman empire by their sultan *TANOROLIX*, we have given a full account under the article *CONSTANTINOPLE*, § 10; as well as of their capture and

dreadful pillage of that city, under § 12 and 13, of the same article. It will be expected, however, that under the present article, we should at least give a brief chronological series of the Turkish monarchs, from that period to the present. *Alstedius* and other chronologists, indeed, trace the origin of the Turkish empire from an earlier period, viz. from the rise of *Mahomet's* imposture, A. D. 621. (See *MAHOMET*, N° 1. and *SARACENS*, § 1.) But though their power and their conquests rapidly increased after that period, yet *OTTOMAN* or *OTHMAN*, is generally ranked as their first emperor, and the commencement of his reign placed in A. D. 1297. From him Turkey is often styled the *Ottoman empire*. After conquering Syria, Cappadocia, and the greater part of Asia, he died A. D. 1326, in the 29th year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son *Orchan*; who took *Barla* and made it the seat of his empire. He died in the 31st year of his reign, A. D. 1357, and was succeeded by his son *AMURATH I.* (See that article.) He reigned also 31 years, according to *Alstedius*, and was succeeded, A. D. 1388, by his son *BAJAZET I.* who was taken prisoner by *TAMERLANE*. (See *BAJAZET I.*) After an interregnum of 6 years, he was succeeded by his son *SOLIMAN I.* A. D. 1403; who was murdered in his 7th year, A. D. 1410, by his brother *Moses*; who reigned only 3 years; and was succeeded by his brother *Mohammed I.* A. D. 1413. *Mohammed* or *MAHOMET I.* transferred the seat of empire to *Adrianople*; and, after a glorious reign of 8 years, died in 1421, and was succeeded by his son *AMURATH II.* (see that article;) who, after reigning 31 years, died in 1452, and was succeeded by *MAHOMET II.* furnished the *Great*, of whose reign we now proceed to give the history.

(5.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE CAPTURE OF CONSTANTINOPLE TILL THE DEATH OF MAHOMET II.** In 1453 the Turks made themselves masters of CONSTANTINOPLE, which from that time became the capital of their empire. *Mohammed II.* then sultan, treated the inhabitants with the greatest cruelty. In 1454, he entered *Servia* at the head of 20,000 men, and obliged the inhabitants to pay him an annual tribute of 40,000 ducats. On his return to *Adrianople*, *Mohammed* repopled the towns and villages about Constantinople with 4000 men and women, whom he had taken; and going to that city, built a palace 8 stadia in compass. Next year a fleet was sent against the islands of *Rhodes* and *Chios*; but the attempt on both proved unsuccessful; however, the island *Cos* was reduced, and some other places; after which the sultan, turning his arms towards *Hungary*, laid siege to *Belgrade*, which the celebrated *John Hunniades* obliged him to raise with considerable loss. He next set about the entire conquest of the *Morea*. The Grecian princes, among whom were two of the emperor's brothers, *Thomas* and *Demetrius*, were so terrified by the taking of Constantinople, and the great progress of the Turks, that they prepared to retire into Italy; upon which the Albanians seized on the country, choosing one *Manuel Cantaczenus*, a Greek, for their prince. Then falling on the Greeks who remained, they made an offer to the sultan of the cities and fortresses, provided

provided he would allow them to keep the open country. At this time, however, the sultan chose rather to support the Greeks than to let the country fall into the hands of such barbarians; and having defeated the Albanians, was content to accept of a tribute from the Greeks. But the danger was no sooner over, than the Grecian princes revolted anew; and in which Mohammed entering the country with a powerful army, prince Thomas, with his family, fled to Italy; while Demetrius thought himself eligible to submit to the sultan, by whom he was carried away, with many of the most considerable persons of Lacedæmon, Achaia, &c. where Turkish governors were appointed. Two thousand families were also carried away from the Morea, in order to be settled at Constantinople, and 2000 young men to be enrolled among the sultan's troops. Many cities at his time fell into the hands of the Turks, among which the principal were Corinth and Athens. The Greeks, however, still made some faint struggles; but all in vain: for by the year 1459 the whole country was subdued, excepting some maritime places held by the Venetians; and prince Thomas was obliged finally to take up his abode at Rome, where he was lodged in the pope's palace, and had a pension of 3000 livres a-year allowed him. Mohammed now pursued his good fortune; and having made war on the emperor of Trebizond, he subdued his dominions, and put him to death. His career, however, was for some time stopped by SCANDERBEG, the Epirote. This prince had already defeated an army of 12,000 Turkish horse, of whom only 5000 escaped the slaughter; and dispersed another, with the loss of their general, and 4120 men killed on the spot. Encouraged by this success, he laid siege to Belgrade, which was now in the hands of the Turks; but through the treachery of his scouts, his army was defeated, and 5000 of his men killed; upon which one of his generals, named *Moses*, went over to the Turks. Scanderbeg, not at all dispirited by this misfortune, prosecuted the war with the utmost vigour. His first enterprise was against his perfidious general Moses, who had been immediately put at the head of an army by the sultan. This army was by Scanderbeg totally destroyed, excepting about 4000 men; upon which Moses fell into such disgrace with the Turks, that he returned to his old master, who forgave his treachery, and restored him to all his former posts. The bad success of Moses did not prevent Amesa, the nephew of Scanderbeg, from following his example. Mohammed received him kindly, and sent him with Ithak bashaw of Constantinople; whom he entrusted with an army of 50,000 men against his uncle. Scanderbeg, with only 1000 men, retired towards Lysia, a maritime city of the Venetians. The Turks pursued, contrary to the advice of Amesa; and being surprised by Scanderbeg, were utterly defeated, with the loss of their camp, 20,000, or, according to others, 30,000 men killed on the spot, and the treacherous Amesa taken prisoner. With the like good fortune Scanderbeg defeated three other Turkish armies, one of 20,000, another of 30,000, and he third of 18,000 men. On this Mohammed sent against him an old experienced commander,

VOL. XXII. PART II.

at the head of 40,000 chosen troops; but as he likewise was able to achieve nothing, the sultan thought proper to conclude a peace with Scanderbeg in 1461. Mohammed being thus freed from such a troublesome enemy, completed the conquest of the Greek islands; subdued Wallachia, Bosnia, and Illyria, extending his empire nearly to the confines of Italy. But as it was easy to see that no conquests would satisfy the Turkish ambition, the Venetians, who found themselves ill-treated by their warlike neighbours, entered into an alliance with the Hungarians, to repress the overgrown power of the Turks, and prevent the western parts of the world from being totally over-run by them; and into this alliance Scanderbeg was soon drawn, notwithstanding his treaty with Mohammed already mentioned. The Hungarians invaded the Turkish dominions on the W. side, defeated some troops, and carried off 20,000 slaves; the Venetians invaded the Morea, where they made some conquests, but were soon obliged to abandon them: however they recovered the island of Lemnos; but being defeated in two engagements at land, they were obliged to solicit assistance from France, Germany, and Spain. Having obtained considerable supplies from those parts, they again entered the Morea; but meeting with still worse success than before, they applied for assistance to Matthias the son of John Hunniades king of Hungary. Matthias willingly made another incursion into the Turkish dominions, ravaged Servia, and carried off a vast number of prisoners with a great booty. In the mean time, Mohammed, fearing lest Scanderbeg should be declared generalissimo of the Christian forces, sent him, desiring a renewal of the league between them. But this being refused, the war was renewed with the utmost vigour. Many Turkish armies were sent against this hero; but they were utterly defeated and dispersed, till 1466, when by his death the sultan was freed from the most formidable enemy he had ever encountered. (See SCANDERBEG.) The death of Scanderbeg was followed by the entire reduction of Epirus and Albania. The Venetians in 1469 defeated the Turks in a pitched battle; but were driven out of Negropont; at that time the strongest city in Europe; after which they entered into an alliance with Ferdinand king of Naples, Lewis king of Cyprus, and the grand master of Rhodes, at the same time that they sent ambassadors to Uzun Hassan king of Persia, in order to persuade him to attack the Turkish dominions on the east side. Mohammed did not lose his courage at the number of his enemies; but having defeated the Persians, reduced the Venetians to such distress, that they were obliged to conclude a treaty in 1479. In 1481 the war was renewed, and the city of Rhodes besieged, but without success; however, the city of Cephalonia was taken from the Venetians, Italy invaded, and the city of Otranto taken. This was the last of the exploits of Mohammed II. who died this year of the gout, and was succeeded by his son Bajazet II.

(6.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TILL THE MURDER OF BAJAZET II. Under this prince a war commenced with the Mamelukes of Egypt; which, under his successor Selim I. ended in the

U u u total

total subjection of that country. (See EGYPT, § 20.) Bajazet, however, greatly facilitated Selim's conquest by the reduction of Circassia, whence the Mamelukes drew their principal resources. Caramania and Croatia were totally reduced; the cities of Lepanto, Modon, and Durazzo, taken by the Turks, though the Venetians recovered Cephalonia; Syria on the east, and Moldavia on the west, were invaded and ravaged by the victorious armies of the sultan; till at last a peace was concluded with the European powers in 1503. The year 1509 is remarkable for a dreadful earthquake at Constantinople, which overturned a great number of houses, and destroyed 13,000 people; being also followed by an epidemic distemper, which carried off great numbers. About this time also the sultan, finding the infirmities of old age drawing on, and being desirous of passing the remainder of his days in quiet, resolved to resign the throne to his eldest son Achmet. But having engaged in this affair with too great precipitation, and before he had gained over the grandees, his second son Selim, whom he had made governor of Trebizond, hastily crossing the Euxine sea, de-throned and put to death his father, in 1512.

(7.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF SELIM I. This monster, who had not scrupled to sacrifice his father to his ambition, did not hesitate at establishing himself upon the throne by the death of his brother also. Accordingly, as Achmet, knowing he could be nowhere safe, resolved to stand on his defence, Selim with a powerful army, marched against him; and having defeated the few forces of his brother, took him prisoner and put him to death. Having thus secured himself, he marched against the Persians, whom he overthrew in a great battle: after which he took the city of Tauris; made some other conquests; and having secured tranquillity on the E. side of his dominions, turned his arms against Sultan Gauri of Egypt. Him he reduced in the manner related under EGYPT, § 19. His farther designs of conquest were frustrated by his death, which happened in 1519.

(8.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF SOLIMAN II. Selim was succeeded by his son Soliman II. surnamed the *Magnificent*, who proved no less ambitious and warlike than his father. Having defeated and killed the governor of Damascus, who had rebelled against him, he attacked the European princes with a design to extend his dominions as far to the westward as he possessed to the eastward of his capital. In 1520 he set out with a great army to conquer Hungary. The city of Belgrade was immediately invested, and in a short time taken. Rhodes also being attacked by a great force by sea and land, was obliged to submit, after a most desperate resistance, (see RHODES, and SOLIMAN II.) and Soliman entered the city in triumph on Christmas day 1522. His conquests for some time were stopped by a rebellion in Egypt; but this being soon quashed, the war with Hungary was renewed in 1525. King Lewis having rashly engaged the Turkish army of 200,000 men with only 25,000, was utterly defeated, himself drowned in a ditch, and his whole army, excepting a few horse, cut in pieces.—This defeat was followed by the surrender of Buda, which,

however, the Hungarians retook in 1528; but in 1529, it was again taken by the Turks, and soon after both the Moldavians submitted to their jurisdiction. The city of VIENNA was then invested; but after being reduced to the greatest straits, the sultan was obliged to abandon the siege by the coming on of the autumnal rains; which, however, he did not without barbarously massacring all his prisoners. The raising the siege of Vienna was followed by an entire repulse of the Turks from the German territories; on which Soliman, resolving to extend his dominions on the east, subdued the country of Georgia, and made himself master of the city of Bagdad; at the same time that his admiral, the celebrated BARBAROSSA, ravaged the coasts of Italy, and took the cities of Biserta and Tunis in Africa. But, in 1536, he was obliged to retire before Charles V. of Spain, who retook the city of TUNIS. Soliman, to revenge this disgrace, suspended for a time the war in Persia, to turn all his forces against Italy; but while this country was in danger of being totally overwhelmed, a Venetian captain having rashly taken and sunk some Turkish vessels, Soliman changed his design of attacking Italy into that of chastising the Venetians. However, after some trifling encounters, a peace was concluded in 1540. This year the war was renewed in Hungary; the transactions were very unfortunate for the Christians, and ended in the entire reduction of the kingdom to a Turkish province. The kingdom of France being oppressed by its enemies, entered into an alliance with Soliman, who was now grown so powerful, that the whole European powers seemed scarce able to resist him. However, in 1565, he was baffled by the knights of MALTA; (see that article;) and in 1566 an end was put to his ambition and his conquests by death.

(9.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE VICTORY AT LEPANTO. Soliman was succeeded by his son Selim II. surnamed *Mess*, or *The Drunken*. Under him the empire at first lost nothing of its lustre; but in 1571 the maritime power of the Turks was almost entirely destroyed at LEPANTO, where one of the most remarkable sea engagements mentioned in history took place. The Christian fleet was commanded by DORIA the Venetian admiral; and consisted of upwards of 209 galleys and large ships, besides smaller craft; and the Turkish fleet consisted of 335 sail. The number of Turks slain were supposed about 32,000, besides 3500 prisoners. The galleys taken amounted to 161. Forty more were sunk or burnt; and of gallies, with other small vessels, about 60 were taken.

(10.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF MAHOMET III. Notwithstanding the prodigious loss sustained by the Turks on this occasion, the confederates reaped but little advantage from this victory; and next year Kilij Ali Pasha, who had succeeded to the post of high admiral, fitted out a fleet of 250 galleys, with which he ravaged the coasts of Christendom wherever he came, and maintained his ground so well, that the confederates could never gain the least advantage over him. The Turkish power from this time, however, began to decline. The progress of civilization being much more quick among the western nations, and their improvements in the art of war

very considerable, the Turks found it not only impossible to extend their dominion over Germany, but even a matter of some difficulty to withstand the power of the western princes. During the remainder of the reign of Selim II. the war was carried on in Hungary with little advantage on either side; but under his successor, Amurath III. the Turks met with several severe checks from the Germans. Amurath III. reigned 20 years. In 1594, Mohammed III. having succeeded his father Amurath, murdered his 19 brethren to secure himself on the throne; and caused 10 of his father's wives and concubines to be thrown into the sea, lest any of them should prove with child. The emperor Rodolph II. having entered into a confederacy against him with the princes of Transylvania, Walachia, and Moldavia, defeated the Turks and their Tartar auxiliaries in several engagements, and took many cities; while so grievous a famine and plague raged in Hungary, that of 85,000 Tartars who had entered the country the year before, scarce 8000 remained alive. This was followed by new misfortunes; so that in 1595 the Turks were entirely driven out of Transylvania, Moldavia, and Walachia.

(11.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE PEACE WITH POLAND. Mahomet III. was succeeded by his son *Achmet I.* who died in 1617, leaving two sons, *OTHMAN I.* and *AMURATH IV.* yet the throne was seized by his brother *MUSTAFA I.*; who was deposed for *heresy*, in 1623 and strangled in prison by the Janizaries in 1611. In 1621, under *OTHMAN II.* the Turks first engaged in a war with Poland; but a peace was concluded the same year; the chief article of which was, that the Poles should have a free trade in the Turkish dominions, and that for this their merchants should pay 10,000 sequins. The Turkish affairs continued much in the same way till 1673, when a dreadful war broke out with Germany, Russia, and Poland, whose army was at that time commanded by the celebrated *JOHN SOBIESKI*. The year before, hostilities had commenced on account of the Poles having endeavoured to detach the Cossacks from their allegiance to the sultan. At this time the Turks were successful, through the dissensions which reigned among the Poles; and the latter were obliged to pay an annual tribute of 20,000 rix-dollars, and to deliver up 48 towns and villages in the territory of Kamienieck. However, the articles of this treaty were never executed; for, in 1673, the states of Poland sent a letter to *Kyoprili Achmed Pasha*, the vizir, informing him that they considered as null the conditions of the treaty, being concluded without their consent, and that they would rather suffer death than submit to the infamy of paying one farthing by way of tribute. On this the sultan, *MOHAMMED IV.* who had succeeded, in 1649, after the murder of his father, *Ibrahim I.* determined to take a severe revenge on their perfidy, set out with a great army; but was entirely defeated, with the loss of 20,000 men killed on the spot, all the baggage, 25,000 waggon loads of provisions and ammunition, and 2000 pounds of money. Soon after this victory, John was proclaimed king of Poland; but his subjects, jealous

of his glory, refused to support him properly in prosecuting his advantage; so that, 4 years after, a treaty was concluded, by which the Poles for ever resigned their pretensions to Kamienieck and to the dominion of the Cossacks in Podolia.

(12.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO PRINCE EUGENE'S VICTORY AT ZENTA. But though peace was thus made with Poland, the war was carried on very unsuccessfully with Russia. In 1678, an army of the Tartars was entirely cut in pieces or taken near the city of Cherin; which so intimidated another army of 40,000 Turks, who had waited for the arrival of the auxiliaries, that they threw away their arms, and fled without stopping till they had crossed the Bog. This defeat inclined the sultan to peace; but the negotiations proving ineffectual, he, in 1679, again sent a powerful army of 80,000 Turks, 30,000 Tartars, and 4000 Cossacks, under the command of the vizir, to retrieve his lost honour. This army, however, succeeded little better than the former: for the vizir was defeated in several engagements; and at last put to death on account of the bad success of the war. In 1684 the Venetians again declared war, while the Poles and Germans continued their hostilities with the utmost violence. The Turks were forced to yield to the superior fortune and valour of their adversaries; they were defeated in a great number of engagements, and lost many places of importance. In 1687, Mahomet IV. was deposed by the Janizaries, and succeeded by his brother *SOLIMAN III.* an indolent prince, who died in 1691. *MAHOMET IV.* died in prison in 1693, and was succeeded by his brother *Achmet II.* who died in 1695, and was succeeded by his nephew *Mustapha II.* who defeated the imperialists at Temeswar, and made war with success against the Venetians, Poles, and Russians; but was deposed and died in 1703. He was succeeded by his brother *Achmet III.* who was deposed in 1730, and succeeded by his nephew, *MAHOMET V.* the son of *Mustapha II.* But to return to public affairs. Turkish affairs seemed to be totally going to wreck, when, in 1688, they were retrieved by the new vizir *Achmed Kyoprili*, a man of great skill and experience in war, as well as of the most upright character. Having roused the enthusiasm of the people, they flocked in great numbers to his standard; after which, having reformed many abuses both in the civil and military departments, he led them against the enemy. The good effects of his reformation were evident. Great numbers of the enemy were cut off, and almost all the important places taken which had been lost before; when, in 1691, he was defeated and killed by the Germans at *Ilankamen*. After his death the Turkish affairs again fell into disorder; and, though the utmost efforts were used by succeeding vizirs, no progress could be made; and, in 1697, a prodigious overthrow was given them by Prince Eugene at Zenta.

(13.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE TREATY OF CARLOWITZ. At last, in 1698, all parties being weary of such an expensive and ruinous war, a pacification took place at Carlowitz, but on different terms with the different nations who had been at war with the Turks. The emperor made

U u u s a truce

a truce for 25 years, upon condition that all Transylvania should be resigned to him: the city of Temeswar was to be restored to the Turks, and the navigation of the Teisse and Maros rivers free to both nations: that the country between the Danube and the Teisse, called *Bacsbak*, remain in the emperor's hands; that the boundary of the eastern part of Hungary, belonging to the emperor, should be a right line drawn from the mouth of the Maros towards the banks of the river Teisse to the mouth of the Bosuth, where it falls into the Saave; that towards the south the Saave should part the Turkish from the imperial limits, till it receives the Unna; and that no new castles besides Belgrade and Peterwaradin should be erected, or old ones fortified, anywhere within these boundaries. The Russian ambassador made a truce only for two years, upon the footing of each party possessing what he had taken. The Poles made a truce on the like terms with the sultan; namely, that they should have Kamienieck, Podolia, and Ukraina, restored to them, in the same extent as possessed by them before sultan Mohammed's first expedition into Poland; and, on the other hand, resign Soczawa, Nemoz, and Sotaka, in Moldavia, to the Turks. The Venetians obtained these conditions: that all the Morea, as far as Hexamilos, should belong to them; and that the firm land, with Naupactum, (or Lepanto,) Prevesa, and the cattle of Romania, which had been demolished, should be restored to the Turks; that the bay of Corinth should be common to both, and the Venetians possess Lenkade with the adjacent islands. The yearly tribute paid by the islands in the Archipelago to the Venetians was to be abolished; and Zakynth to be declared free from the like burden by the Turks. In Dalmatia, Kuin, Cing, Kiklut, Verlika, Duare, and Vergoraz, were to be left to the republic, and fixed as the boundaries of their dominions on that side. The Ragusians were to continue free, and the Venetians to retain the castles of Castelnovo and Risauo, with what they possessed in the neighbourhood. Both parties were allowed to fortify their borders with new fortresses; or to repair those which were decayed, excepting Naupactum, Prevesa, and the castle of Romania.

(14.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE WAR WITH RUSSIA, AND CAPTURE OF AZOPH.** From the conclusion of the peace of Carlowitz to 1769, nothing remarkable occurs in the Turkish history, excepting that MUSTAPHA III. the son of *Achmet* III. succeeded his father in 1757. He was a weak prince, and drained the treasury. But the Turks recovered the Morea from the Venetians by the treaty of Passarowitz. (See **VENICE**.) Their war with the Russians under Peter the Great has been taken notice of under the article **RUSSIA**, § 17; and those afterwards with **PERSIA**, under that article, § 17. None of these, indeed, were of any great consequence; but, in 1769, a war commenced with Russia, which threatened the Ottoman empire with destruction, and which has given it such a severe check as it can scarcely recover. The origin of this war is given under the article **POLAND**, § 23; and during the course of it, an almost uninterrupted train of success attended the Russian arms.—About the end of March 1769, a

body of Russian troops made themselves masters of the important fortrefs of Azoph, at the mouth of the Don.

(15.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE CAPTURE OF BENDER.** In the end of April, prince Gallitzin, commander in chief of the Russian army on the frontiers of Poland, passed the Niefter, hoping to take the fortrefs of Choczim by surprise; but being disappointed, he was obliged to return. Near the beginning of July, however, he again passed that river, and on the 13th attacked and defeated the van of the grand vizir's army, consisting of about 50,000 or 60,000 men. Of the fugitives 13,000 entered Choczim; which was next day invested by the Russians: but they were at last obliged to raise the siege and repass the Niefter; which they could not effect without considerable loss. In the mean time, both the Ottoman and Russian courts were displeased with the conduct of their generals. The Turkish grand vizir was deprived of his command, and afterwards beheaded; and was succeeded by Moldovani Aga Pacha, a man of a bold and enterprising spirit. On his first taking the command of the army, finding it impossible to subsist where he was, he attempted to force a passage over the Niefter; but being three times repulsed with great loss, he made a precipitate retreat towards Bender, at the same time drawing the troops out of Choczim, which the Russians immediately took possession of. Prince Gallitzin was now superseded by Gen. Romanzow, who took the command of the army on the 29th Sept. Soon after his arrival, he received news of the success of general Elmpt, who, with a body of 10,000 men, had reduced the province of Yassy. He invested Bender; but finding the season of the year too far advanced, he soon withdrew his troops, and put them into winter quarters. This first campaign had proved to unpropitious to the Turkish affairs, that the court would gladly have concluded a peace, if they could have obtained it upon honourable terms; but the Russians insisting upon the entire cession of Moldavia and Walachia, as a preliminary article, the negotiations came to nothing. A new campaign was therefore resolved on; and this proved still more unsuccessful than before. The grand Russian army under general Romanzow passed the Niefter in May 1770; and, having assembled at Choczim on the 3d of June, marched towards Pruth: at the same time, their 2d army, commanded by general Panin, arrived before Bender. The plan of operation was, that the latter should form the siege of Bender, and Romanzow should cover it. On the 18th July, Gen. Romanzow attacked an army of 80,000 Turks and Tartars commanded by the Khan of Crimea, and strongly entrenched on an almost inaccessible mountain, forced their intrenchments, and obliged them to flee in the utmost confusion, leaving an immense quantity of ammunition and provisions, &c. in their camp; which they totally abandoned to the victors.—After this victory, the Russian general pushed on towards the Danube; and on the 2d of August attacked another Turkish army, commanded by the grand vizir in person, and totally defeated it, making himself master of their camp, ammunition, 143 pieces of cannon, and

and above 7000 carriages loaded with provisions. The loss of the Turks on this occasion was not reckoned less than 40,000 men, and some accounts raised it to 60,000.—During the course of this summer also, the fortrefs of Kilia Nova, at the most northerly mouth of the Danube, surrendered by capitulation; and likewise that of Ackerman, or Bialogorod, near the mouth of the Niefter. Bender was taken by storm on the 27th November, and the Russians, enraged at the obstinate resistance they met with, made a terrible slaughter of their enemies. It was computed that 30,000 Turks perished on this occasion.

(16.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE DESTRUCTION OF THE TURKISH FLEET.** The fortrefs of Brailow, situated on the N. side of the Danube, was invested on the 26th of September, and the garrison so much intimidated by the taking of Bender, that they abandoned the place, and most of them were drowned in crossing the river. During this campaign, it was reckoned that the Russians took 1000 pieces of cannon from their enemies.—This year also a Russian fleet of 16 or 18 ships entered the Mediterranean, and landed a body of troops on the Morea. These being joined by the Greeks, committed great cruelties on the Turks, and made themselves masters of almost the whole country. At last, however, the Porte, notwithstanding their bad success in other parts, found means to send a force into the Morea sufficient to overpower the Russians. The Greeks now suffered in their turn; and the Russians, hearing that a Turkish fleet had passed the Dardanelles, abandoned the Morea, and failed to meet their antagonists. A battle ensued, in which the Turks were defeated; and having imprudently retired into a neighbouring harbour, they were next day entirely destroyed by the Russian fire ships, except one ship of 64 guns, which was taken. This fleet consisted of 15 ships of the line, from 66 to 60 guns, three large frigates, and 7 large armed vessels, besides galleys. After this victory, the Russian fleet blocked up the mouth of the Dardanelles, interrupted the Turkish trade, prevented the carrying of provisions to Constantinople by sea, and raised contributions from most of the islands in the Archipelago.

(17.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEFEAT OF THE GRAND VIZIR'S ARMY AND RECAPTURE OF GIORGIOW.** In 1771, matters did not at first go on so successfully on the part of the Russians. On the side of the Danube, they were obliged to keep on the defensive. Another army, under prince Dolgorucki, had better success; they reduced the whole peninsula of Crim Tartary in less than a month, though defended by an army of 50,000 men.—During these transactions the Turks made themselves masters of the fortrefs of Giorgiow; which enabled them to become so formidable on the side of Walachia, that prince Repnin durst not attack them. Upon his refusal to do so, he was deprived of his command; which was given to General Essen. On the 17th August, he attacked the Turkish intrenchments; but, after a desperate engagement of four hours, was defeated, with the loss of upwards of 3000 men. This was the only engagement of any consequence in which the Turks had proved victorious since

the beginning of the war; and, after it, their usual bad fortune attended them. In consequence of their victory, they determined to winter on the N. side of the Danube, which would have been of the utmost service to them; and with which view they considerably reinforced their army in Walachia. But general Romanzow, by a train of masterly dispositions, not only thwarted all their schemes, but surprised them on their own side of the river. They had divided their army into two great bodies, which were stationed in the nearest and most important posts on the Turkish side of the Danube. On the 20th of October, one of these bodies was surprised at Tuliza by general Weismann, and another at Maczin by general Miloradowits. The event was the same in both places. The intrenchments were forced, the Turks totally routed, and their artillery, stores, and magazines taken, together with their towns and their castles. Next day general Weismann attacked the grand vizir himself, with the like success. The intrenchments were forced, a vast quantity of artillery taken, and likewise the town and castle of Babadagh; while the vizir, with the remains of his army, fled 30 miles to seek refuge at Mount Hemus. A few days afterwards general Essen defeated another body of Turks, and retook the fortrefs of Giorgiow, driving the enemy totally out of Walachia. The Russian fleet this year spread ruin and desolation through the defenceless islands of the Archipelago and the coasts of Asia, striking terror into the city of Constantinople itself. A dreadful pestilence raged this year in the Turkish army; and in autumn broke out at Moscow, where it destroyed vast numbers.

(18.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF GEN. WEISMAN.** The affairs of the Turks were now in such a desperate condition, that they very eagerly sued for peace. The only conditions on which this could be obtained, however, were, that the CRIMEA, Budziac Tartary, and all that vast tract of country on the coast of the Black Sea, as far as the N. shore of the Danube, should continue for ever under the dominion of Russia; that the Russians should enjoy an unlimited freedom of navigation on the Black Sea, together with the possession of the city of Asoph, on the mouth of the Don; and that a sum of money should be paid them by way of indemnification for the expences of the war. These terms, however, were rejected; and the negotiations, which continued through the whole year 1772, at last came to nothing. The commissioners on both sides retired from Bucharest, the place where the congress was held, on the 22d March 1773. For some time a desultory kind of war was carried on between detachments from the two armies. But as this was very prejudicial to the Russians, who could not be so easily recruited as the Turks, about the middle of June, Romanzow prepared for passing the Danube with the grand Russian army, consisting of 87,000 men: which, however, he did not accomplish till the 24th; when he marched with his army, in large divisions, towards the city of Silistria. He was terribly harassed on his march by large bodies of the Turkish cavalry, of whom the grand vizir had detached 27,000 for this purpose. At last,

123, however, they arrived before the city, which was strongly fortified, and defended by a body of troops consisting of about 24,000 men. On the 29th of June, this body was defeated by Gen. Weisman, who commanded the van of the Russian army, and forced to retire into Silitria. The grand vizir then detached 30,000 men to the relief of the place; upon this the Russians found it necessary to retreat; which was not accomplished without very great difficulty and loss. In this retreat general Weisman was killed, and the army left all their magazines behind them.

(19.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE PEACE WITH RUSSIA, in 1774. Many other severe conflicts happened this campaign, which proved less glorious to the Russians than any of the former ones. In 1774, however, their arms were attended with better success. On the 11th Jan. 1774, the sultan MUSTAPHA III. died in his 17th year, and was succeeded by his brother ACHMET IV. the present sultan, although he left 4 sons, whom Achmet, with more than usual humanity, only keeps in confinement. Romanzow's army was reinforced by 40,000 men; and, on the night between the 16th and 17th of June, passed the Danube in spite of all opposition. A continued series of engagements then happened between the Russian generals and different bodies of the Turks. In these the latter were always defeated; and at last became so much dispirited, that a body of 40,000, or, according to some accounts, of 70,000 Turks, fled at the first sight of a body of their enemies greatly inferior in number, leaving behind them all their tents and baggage, with a fine train of brass artillery. From this time, disorder, mutiny, and dismay, seized all the Turkish armies, and they absolutely refused to face their enemies; and the ministers of state were obliged to furnish them with vessels for their transportation into Asia. According to some accounts, no fewer than 140,000 of the Turkish troops deserted in this manner. Even in the grand vizir's camp at Schunla, matters went on in the same manner. He was abandoned by his whole cavalry; his European and Asiatic troops quarrelled, and cut one another to pieces before his face; and, in short, the vast army he commanded was reduced almost to nothing. The Russian general did not fail to take advantage of these misfortunes. He placed the different divisions of his army in such advantageous situations, that he totally cut off all communication between the Turkish camp and every mean of subsistence. The unfortunate yizir, therefore, was obliged at last to submit to the terms which Romanzow dictated to him. The principal articles were, the independency of the Crimea; the absolute cession of Kilburn, Kerche, and Jenickal, and all the country between the Bog and the Nicper; a free navigation in all the Turkish seas, in which was included the passage through the Dardanelles, with all the privileges and immunities which were granted to the most favoured nations. Russia gave up all her conquests, except Afoph and Taganrock. There were, besides, several stipulations in favour of the inhabitants of Moldavia and Walachia, and the Greek islands which were restored by Russia.

(10.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE WAR

WITH AUSTRIA, AND SURRENDER OF CHOCZIN. Soon after this period an extraordinary alarm was excited at the Porte by the sudden appearance of a *new prophet* in Upper Asia. This man, whose name was *Sheik Mansour*, pretended that he was predestined by the eternal and immutable decrees of Heaven to fill up the measure of Divine revelation to mankind; and that as he was to be the *last*, so he was the greatest of the prophets. The scene of his ministry was in the wide and desolate regions on the borders of the Caspian Sea; and though the first rumour of his proceedings represented him as at the head of a multitude of armed enthusiasts, ready to overturn the established government and religion of Mahomet, it was soon discovered that all the military fury of his zeal was directed against the Christians. He had even influence enough to form a combination of all the nations of Caucasian Tartars against the Russians, which was certainly of some service to the Turks in that war which the empress Catherine was now meditating against them. In the mean time, while this war was impending, the most formidable rebellion broke out in Egypt, the granary of the Turkish empire (see EGYPT, § 30); but it was, after a long, bloody, and dangerous war, almost suppressed by the wise conduct and intrepid bravery of Hassan Bey, the Captain Pacha or Grand Admiral, who, at the age of 70, fought with all the ardour of youth, and all the skill of the most consummate general. That veteran, however, was recalled before he was able to carry all his patriotic designs into execution, that he might aid the divan with his counsel, in the critical situation into which the empire was brought by the claims of the court of Russia. The result of the deliberation was a precipitate declaration of war against that court, contrary to the better judgment of the old Pacha. The war commenced in autumn 1787, and the hordes of Tartars which were first brought into the field, headed by the new prophet, were every where defeated by the superior discipline of the Russian troops commanded by Prince Potemkin. Some enterprises which were undertaken by the Turks against the island of Tamen and the Crimea were attended with as little success as the attempts of the Tartars; while the Emperor Joseph declared to the Porte that he would assist his ally the empress of Russia with an army of 80,000 men. Four Austrian armies were accordingly assembled; one at Carlsbad in Croatia, under Gen. de Vins; another at Peterwaradin in Hungary, under Gen. Langlos; a 3d on the borders of Lithuania, under Gen. Febris; and the 4th in the Bukovina, under the prince of Saxe Cobourg. Two other generals, ten lieutenant-generals, and 30 major-generals, were all ordered to prepare for active service in the frontier armies. If any thing had been yet wanting to show the fixed determination of the court of Vienna, the sending Gen. Alvinzi to act in and observe the conduct of the Russian armies during the war, and the receiving a Russian officer of equal rank to act the same part in the Austrian, would have been alone a sufficient explanation. The war between the Turks and Austrians was carried on with various success. At first the advantage was evidently on the side of the Ottoman

ians, and Joseph II. acquired no warlike renown. His declared purpose was to get possession of Belgrade; from which, however, his enemies repulsed him with disgrace. The prince of Saxe-Cobourg, in his department of the war displayed indeed prodigies of valour; but being opposed to a superior force, he was long obliged to act only on the defensive. At length, being joined by a body of Russian forces under Gen. Soltikow, preparations were made for commencing in form the siege of Choczim, which was surrendered to the allied armies on Michaelmas day 1788, after a defence which would have done honour to the ablest general in Europe. Still, however, success seemed to lean to the Turks. The grand vizir made a sudden incursion into the Bannat, and spread consternation and dismay to the very gates of Vienna. The Austrian affairs seemed approaching to a very alarming crisis. The first campaign of an invasive war had already produced an impression on the territory of the invader.

(21.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE CAPTURE OF OCZAKOW.** In this situation of affairs Marshal Laudohn was with some difficulty drawn from his retirement to take the command of the army in Croatia; and under his auspices fortune began to smile on the Austrian arms. He quickly reduced *Dubecz* and *Nevi*, though they were both defended with the most obstinate bravery. He then sat down before Turkish GRADISCA; but the autumnal rains coming on with such violence that the Saave overflowed its banks, he was compelled to raise the siege. During this period the war in the Bannat raged with the utmost violence; torrents of blood were shed, and much desperate valour, and many brave actions performed on both sides, while a great part of that unfortunate country suffered all the desolation that fire and sword could inflict. The inhabitants were objects of commiseration; but the injustice with which the emperor had commenced the war, made his personal losses be considered as the just reward of his conduct. Hitherto the Russians had hardly entered into the war; but at last they began to act with vigour both by sea and land. They experienced however a very general coldness with respect to their claims, pretensions, and designs, in almost all the courts of Europe. The court of London prohibited British seamen from entering into foreign service, and declared its resolution to observe the strictest neutrality. The United Provinces of Holland pursued the same line of conduct. In the mean time a vast Russian army, estimated at 150,000 men, appeared on the banks of the Bog, adjoining to the confines of Poland, Turkey, and Tartary, and on the way to the Black Sea, under prince Potemkin and Gen. Romanzow; assisted by prince Reppin, Gen. Soltikow, and other commanders. This great force was supported by a train of 137 pieces of artillery, besides a vast park of heavy battering cannon and mortars, destined for the siege of OCZAKOW; and furnished with an exuberance of powder, ball, shells, and military machines. After the most obstinate defence OCZAKOW was taken on the 17th of Dec. 1788, and the governor basha graced the triumphant return of Prince Potemkin to Peterburgh. In the mean time Russia found herself

attacked by a new and formidable enemy in the Swedish monarch, of whose exploits we have given an account elsewhere (see SWEDEN, § 45, 46, 48); and by his interference her conquests were certainly retarded.

(22.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE PEACE WITH AUSTRIA, AND CAPTURE OF ISMAIL.** Marshal Laudohn renewed his attempts upon Gradisca as soon as the season would permit, and after a brave defence it fell into his hands. This with some other successes roused the emperor from his inactivity, and made him seriously determined upon the attack which he had long meditated upon Belgrade. The enterprise was entrusted to Laudohn, who, with that good fortune which seemed constantly to attend him, made himself master of the place in less than a month. The rest of the campaign was little else than a succession of the most important successes; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians, of suffering the Turkish troops to march out of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Accordingly, while one detachment of General Laudohn's forces took possession of Czernitz in Walachia, another made itself master of Cladova in Servia. Bucharest, the capital of the former of these provinces, fell without opposition into the hands of Prince Cobourg; while Akerman on the Black Sea was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to Prince Potemkin, not without suspicion of sinister practices, on the 13th of November. In 1790, the emperor JOSEPH II. died, and his successor LEOPOLD II. showed a desire for peace. After the reduction of Orsova, therefore, which happened on the 16th of April 1790, the war was carried on with languor on the part of Austria; and in June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces assisted, and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was also to be restored. Catherine was thus deprived of an ally, but still she continued the war. On the 22d of December 1790, the fortress of Ismail was taken by storm by General Suwarrow; and it is said that the siege and the capture did not cost the Russians less than 10,000 men. The most shocking part of the transaction is, that the garrison (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe the highest honours) were massacred in cold blood by the merciless Russians, to the amount of, by their own account, upwards of 30,000 men; and the place was given up to the unrestrained fury of the brutal soldiery. After this bloody scene, the Russians went into winter quarters; the vizir retired towards Constantinople, and on his return fell a sacrifice to the sanguinary policy which has long disgraced the Ottoman counsels.

(23.) **TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE PEACE WITH**

WITH RUSSIA, in 1791. The campaign of 1791 opened on the part of Russia with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th April, by Prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory on the 12th by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish the intention of besieging Brailow. After reinforcing this place, the vizir proceeded to the banks of the Danube near Silistria; and, by a bridge which he threw across the river, his advanced posts were enabled to make incursions on the opposite side. The ability of the vizir and the valour of the Turks were however exerted in vain against the discipline and experience of European armies. In June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under General Kutusow. On the 3d July the fortress of Anapa was taken by General Gudowitch, and the garrison, of 6000 men, made prisoners. This event was followed, on the 9th of the same month, by a signal victory which Prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Russians are said to have lost only 150 men killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded. At last peace was restored between the Porte and Russia, principally through the mediation of Great Britain and the northern powers. Catherine II. confined her views at length to the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Neister, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. These terms, considering the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very disadvantageous to the Porte, who has lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoying Russia than for defending their own territories; but certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, has secured the peaceable enjoyment of the Crimea, the inhabitants of which are certainly highly indebted to the late empress, for the measures she adopted for their improvement and civilization, by establishing schools, academies, &c. See TARTARY, § III; TOMSK, &c.

(24.) TURKEY, HISTORY OF, TO THE PRESENT TIME. Nothing very important, either to Turkey or the world, has occurred in the history of this empire since the peace with Russia which we have mentioned. The Porte has been alternately at war with Great Britain and with France; but in neither contest has she acquired either honour or territory. The Turks declared war against the Russians on the 30th of December 1806, urged thereto by French intrigue; and our famous Fox administration attempted what they probably meant as a diversion in favour of the Russians. (See REVOLUTION, vi. 51.) After Bonaparte compelled the feeble Emperor Alexander to ratify the treaty of Tilsit, (See the same article, 50.) he encouraged for his own purposes the war between Russia and Turkey; in which however nothing decisive on either side occurred, and which was happily ended before the tyrant's grand attack on Rus-

sia, of which we have given a hasty sketch under the article WAR, § 238. The only remarkable fact therefore with respect to Turkey which we have still to record, is the revolution which placed Mustapha IV. on the Ottoman throne. In the spring of 1807, a spirit of revolt appeared among the janizaries in the grand vizier's camp, and a garrison at the Dardanelles. On the 15th of May the troops in garrison in the various castles of the Dardanelles, accounted for their insubordination, by objecting to the European uniform, the new tactics, &c. Hali Aga, commandant of Madichirbarna on the Asiatic shore, was put to death. Indische Bey, commandant of the entrance of the Black Sea, escaped the same fate only by flight. The Reis effendi coming at that time to inspect that post, the janizaries accused him as one of the patrons of the nizâm geded. He attempted to escape; but he and his attendants were all sacrificed. He was particularly disliked, as he had promised to raise the pay of the janizaries on condition of their submitting to the new discipline; and this promise was never performed. Other circumstances contributed to excite and increase their rage, and they determined with vigor and foresight to overthrow all their enemies. The sultan Selim for a time determined to defend himself, and troops and ammunition, &c. were brought to the seraglio. Soon after, the Mullahs, the Seimen bashes, &c. joined the revolted janizaries. A formal council was held, in which it was proposed to request the grand seignior to abolish the new discipline, &c. Selim thought he should be able to stop the insurrection, by sending the heads of Mahmud, Tersana Emiri, Haggai Ibrahim, &c. to the Emeldan, where the janizaries were in force. In this, however, he was disappointed. The janizaries were more enraged than ever. They admired and lamented Mahmud effendi, and demanded the head of the Reis effendi then in the grand vizier's camp. The janizaries searched every where for those officers who had countenanced and promoted the adoption of the European discipline, and fourteen of them they found and massacred. At this time Selim sent a letter in his own hand, abolishing for ever, and execrating the nizâm geded; but this the revolted troops would not now accept. The deposition of the grand seignior was determined on. Mustapha IV. born 7th September, 1799, eldest son of Sultan Achmet IV. set aside in 1789, was called to the throne. The solemn invitation to Mustapha to ascend the throne, was made on the 29th of May. The ceremony of investing him with the sabre of the Prophet, took place on the 3d of June. According to the ancient and approved custom of this barbarous empire, Selim, the deprived sultan, was put to death by his own nephews, that he might not disturb the tranquillity of the new sovereign Mustapha IV.; at whose feet it is said he threw himself, and killed the border of his garment, after which he submitted to his fate with the feelings of a true Mussulman. Molla Pacha, governor of Widin, is at this time (January 1813) in open rebellion against the Porte; but this is so common in the history of that state, as to excite little attention, and scarcely to require notice. It is said he is secretly

secretly excited by the Russians. Pelivan Aga, his personal enemy, is preparing to reduce him.

(25.) **TURKEY, INHABITANTS OF, DRESS, CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE.** The Turks are generally robust and well shaped, of a good mien, and patient of hardships, which renders them fit for war. They shave their heads; but wear their beards long, except the military and those in the seraglio, who wear only whiskers. They cover their heads with a white linen turban of an enormous size, and never put it off but when they sleep. None but Turks must presume to wear a white turban. Their breeches or drawers are of a piece with the stockings; and they have slippers instead of shoes, which they pull off when they enter a temple or house. They wear shirts, with wide sleeves, not gathered at the wrists, and over them a vest tied with a sash; their upper garment being a loose gown, something shorter than the vest. The women's dress pretty much resembles that of the men; only they have a stiffened cap with horns, something like a mitre, on their heads instead of a turban, and wear their hair flowing down. When they go abroad, they are so wrapped up, that their faces cannot be seen. The Turks sit, eat, and sleep, according to the custom of the east, on sofas or cushions, mattresses, and carpets. Rice is their most general food, and coffee their common drink. Their most usual salutation is to bow the head a little, laying the right hand on their breasts; but to persons of rank they stoop so low as to touch the border of their vest. The women are kept under a rigorous confinement. They have generally delicate skins, regular features, black hair and eyes, with an admirable chest. Many of them are complete beauties. Their cleanliness is extraordinary; or they bathe twice a week, and suffer not the smallest hair or the least soil to be upon their bodies. As to the qualities of their minds, they are said to want neither wit, vivacity, nor tenderness, and to be exceedingly amorous. It is no doubt for this reason that the men never suffer their wives faces to be seen, not even by the dearest friend they have in the world. There is no need of much wit to behave one's self well here; or a good mien and gravity supply the place of merit in the east, and much gaiety would spoil all. Not that the Turks want wit; but they speak little, and pride themselves in sincerity and modesty more than eloquence. The Turks use no unnecessary words, whereas the Greeks talk incessantly. Though these two nations are born under one climate, their tempers are more different than if they lived in the most distant countries. The Turks make profession of candour and faithfulness, and are a charitable good-natured people, calous, excepted, and very sober. On the other hand, they are extremely proud, insolent, indolent, superstitious, and covetous. They are also much addicted to unnatural lusts; and despise all other nations in general, especially those which are not of their religion. The common appellation that they give the Christians is that of *dogs*. An uniformity runs through all the actions of the Turks, and they never change their manner of living. They seem to have no kind of genius for the improvement of the arts and sciences, though

they live under the influence of the same heaven, and possess the same countries, as the ancient Grecians did. They generally loiter away their time, either among the women in the harem, or in smoking or taking opium; and though they herd together, you will observe as little conversation among them as amongst so many horses in a stable. They seldom travel, or use any exercise or rural sports, and discover little or no curiosity to be informed of the state of their own or any other country; but Turkey, after all, is not without men of parts, probity, and honour; nor without benevolent, liberal, conversible, and ingenious people. They behave very commendably to their slaves and servants, and frequently better than the Christians do to theirs. There are no hereditary governments or titles of nobility in Turkey; and indeed the commonalty there enjoy the greatest liberty.

(26.) **TURKEY, LANGUAGES, LEARNING, AND SCIENCES IN.** The languages spoken in European Turkey, are the Turkish and Tartarian, which have a great affinity to one another; the modern Greek, which differs widely from the ancient, the Slavonian, and Wallachian. The Arabic is the language of the learned. Learning is at a very low ebb among the Turks; however, they have some schools, colleges, and academies, but they are on a very different footing from those among us. Not many years since a printing-house was set up at Constantinople, where books of all kinds were allowed to be printed, except on matters of religion. The most ingenious Musselmens employ themselves in reading the Alcoran and the commentators upon it, to which almost all their learning is confined. Some of them amuse themselves with poetry, in which they are said to succeed very well. Other Turks delight in music, and spend the whole day in playing upon an instrument, without being tired, though they only repeat the same tune. It is said there are many MSS. in the Turkish, Arabian, and Persian languages, among the Turks; but it is not to be supposed that they contain any very deep, solid, ingenious, or useful learning.

(27.) **TURKEY, MILITARY FORCE OF.** The Turkish regular troops are the spahis and timar spahis, who are light horse. The latter, who have estates in land assigned them instead of pay, are obliged to bring a certain number of slaves into the field with them. The tributary princes of Moldavia and Wallachia, and of Tartary, are also obliged to send auxiliaries. But the flower of the Turkish army consists of the janisaries, who amount to about 40,000, and are all infantry. They have particular privileges, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga or commander. Their pay is three aspers a day, besides victuals, and a suit of clothes every year. They are all lodged at Constantinople together in a sort of barracks, having been educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy. Besides the janisaries, there is another body of foot called *sipsis*. The whole Turkish army, regulars and irregulars, amounts to above 300,000 men. Besides the true janisaries, or janisaries of the Porte, and in actual pay, there are great numbers all over the empire, who pro-

cure themselves to be registered in this body, in order to be entitled to their privileges. The bachelors only are capable of bearing offices in the barracks or chambers at Constantinople. When any of the janissaries are disabled in the service, they have an allowance for life. To distinguish them, they wear a cap of a particular make. The emperor's guards are composed of them, and they are feared and respected everywhere, though they carry only a cane in their hand; for arms are not delivered to them but when they take the field. The chief commanders of the army are distinguished by two or three horse-tails carried before them.

(28.) **TURKEY, NAVY OF.** The Turkish navy is not so considerable as might be expected in such extensive dominions, situated on several seas, and abounding in commodious harbours. By their neglecting navigation and foreign commerce, they can never find sailors to man a great fleet; and those they have are unskilful, as well as their pilots and officers. If they would apply themselves to navigation, and make the most of their situation and advantages, they could not fail to become a very formidable maritime power. Their navy generally consists of about 40 large ships, exclusive of galleys. In time of war they hire or buy merchant-ships, and others are sent them from Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli. The captain-basha, or admiral, is the second officer in the empire, the grand vizir being the only officer above him. His power is absolute when he is out of the Dardanelles; and not only the sea-officers, but all the governors of the maritime provinces, receive orders from him. The pilots are mostly Greeks, and the captains renegadoes. The captain-basha sails round the Archipelago in summer, to collect the capitation tax, and learn the state of affairs in those parts.

(29.) **TURKEY, POPULATION OF.** In Constantinople alone, it is estimated that there are no fewer than 400,000, besides Turks, Jews, Armenians, &c. It is therefore probable, that there are no fewer than a million of souls in the whole empire. The islands in the Archipelago are very populous.

(30.) **TURKEY, PRODUCE OF.** See § 35.

(31.) **TURKEY, RELIGION OF.** Mahometanism of the sect of Omar, is the established religion; but Christians, Jews, and all other sects, are freely tolerated. *Friday* is their *Sabbath*. Their chief priest is called the *MUFTI*. Their places of worship *MOSCHES*.

(32.) **TURKEY, REVENUE OF.** The revenues of the empire are paid either into the public treasury, or into the sultan's private treasury. The former, called by the Turks *deitalmali mustimim*, i. e. *the public money of the Musselmens*, is not to be touched but on the most pressing exigency of the state. The other the sultan may dispose of at pleasure. Prince Cantimir says, in his time, 27,000 purses, amounting to 13,000,000 and a half of crowns, were annually returned to both treasuries; arising from the produce of the customs, demesne lands, the capitation or tax paid by every subject of the empire who is not of the Mahometan religion; the annual tributes paid by the cham of the Crim Tartars, the princes of

Moldavia, Walachia, the little republic of Ragusa, and part of Mingrelia; together with half a million of money out of a million and a half levied annually in Egypt. These are the fixed revenues; but vast sums are also raised by the confiscations of the estates and effects of the bashas and other officers, and from the estates of Turks dying without male issue.

(33.) **TURKEY, SERAGLIO OF.** The chief officers of the seraglio are the *kissar Agasi*, who is superintendent of the women, and has the command of all the black eunuchs; the *CAPAGA*, who has the command of all the white eunuchs, and to whom all petitions to be presented to the prince are delivered. Both these are also eunuchs, and of the same complexion as those of whom they have the command. Besides the women and eunuchs, there are in the seraglio the *iehoglans* and *azamoglans*, mutes, dwarfs, and buffoons. The *iehoglans* are young men bred up in the seraglio, not only to serve about the prince, but to fill in time the first posts of the empire. The *azamoglans* are trained up there for inferior employment. No children are admitted into the seraglio of Constantinople, Pera, or Adrianople, till they are first reviewed and approved of by the grand signior. They are generally the most beautiful, well-made, and sprightly, that can be met with. They are first taught, after being circumcised, silence, and a modest humble behaviour. Then they are instructed in the Mohammedan religion, to speak and write the Turkish language, and afterwards the Persian and Arabic. As they grow up, they are taught many exercises, and whatever is thought requisite to qualify them for state employments; but they are seldom preferred out of the seraglio until the age of 40. The ladies of the harem are a collection of young beautiful virgins, either the presents of governors, purchased, or captives taken in war; most of them being the children of Christian parents. They are taught music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. Some of them frequently play and dance before the grand signior, while others divert him with their conversation. They have many female slaves to wait on them; but are scarce ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signior changes his place of residence, when a troop of black eunuchs convey them to the boats, which are enclosed with lattices; and when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals made at certain distances, to give notice that none may approach the road through which they are to pass.

(34.) **TURKEY, TITLES OF THE EMPEROR OF.** The empire is styled the *Ottoman kingdom* or empire, the *Ottoman Porte*, the *Sublime Porte*, the *Sublime Sultanian Porte*, &c. The appellation of *Porte* is said to be derived from the large gate built by Mohammed II. at the entrance of the seraglio at Constantinople; though the Orientals in general call a royal palace the *king's porte* or gate. The grand signior assumes still more pompous, or rather blasphemous titles, as "God upon earth, the shadow of God, the brother of the sun and moon, the disposer of crowns," &c.

(35.) **TURKEY, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURES OF.** The manufactures and commodities of Turkey

key are silks, carpets, goat's hair, wool, camel's hair, cotton-yarn, dimity, burdets, waxed linen, shagreen skins, Morocco leather; coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, storax, gums, opium, galls, mastic, emery, lemnian hole, pomegranate shells, sponges, dates, almonds, wine, oil, figs, raisins, mother of pearl, boxwood, saffron, &c. The inland trade is carried on chiefly by the Jews and Armenians. No nation is more advantageously situated for traffic than the Turkish; having the navigation of the Black Sea, the Levant, and the Red Sea; but they never attempt distant voyages, and have but few merchant ships. Tyre, Sidon, and Alexandria, which once commanded the navigation and trade of the world, are in their possession, but make no figure in commerce at this day. Several European Christian nations have envoys and residents at Constantinople, and consuls in other ports. In this empire there is a great traffic in the human species.

(II.) TURKEY, a town of New Jersey, in Essex County, on the banks of the Passaic. It has a Presbyterian church, and is 79 miles N.E. by N. of Philadelphia.

(III.) TURKEY, a town of Georgia, 60 miles N. of Oakessee.

(IV.) * TURKEY, *n. f.* [*gallina turca*, Latin.] A large domestic fowl supposed to be brought from Turkey.—Here he comes swelling like a turkey-cock. *Shak.*—The turkey-cock hath swelling gills. *Bacon.*—Who lately flic'd the turkey's calow care. *Gay.*

(V.) TURKEY, in ornithology. See MELEAGRIS.

(VI.) TURKEYS, REARING-OF. See RURAL ECONOMY, Part IV. Sec. VIII. § IV.

TURKIN, a town of Russia, in the prov. of Caucasus; on the banks of the Caspian Sea; 140 miles S. of Astracan. Lon. 65. o. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 15. N.

TURKISH, *adj.* Of or from Turkey.

TURKMANS, or TURKMEANIANS. } See TARTARY, § 2.

(1.) * TURKOIS, *n. f.* [*turquoise*, French, from *turkey*.] A blue stone numbered among the meaner precious stones, now discovered to be a bone impregnated with cupreous particles.—The *turquois* stone is part of a bone tinged with green or blue. *Woodward.*

(2.) TURKOIS. See TURQUOISE.

TURKOMANS. See TARTARY, § 2.

(1.) * TURKSCAP, *n. f.* [*martagon*.] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) TURK'S CA., is a species of LILIUM.

TURLAMORE, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

TURLOUGHMORE, a town of Ireland, in Galway.

TURLINGTON, a celebrated English Quack, who made a fortune in Q. Anne's reign, by his *Balsam of Life*.

* TURM, *n. f.* [*turma*, Lat.] A troop. Not in use.—Legions and cohorts, *turns* of horse and wings. *Milton.*

TURMA. See DECURIA.

(1.) * TURMERICK, *n. f.* [*turmerica*, Latin.] An Indian root which makes a yellow dye.

(2.) TURMERICK, in botany. See CURCUMA, and LAKY § 3.

* TURMOIL, *n. f.* [derived by *Skinner* from *tremouille*, French, a mill-hopper, more probably derived from *mail*, to labour.] Trouble; disturbance; harassing uneasiness; tumultuous molestation. Little in use.—Torment and *turmoil*. *Spenser.*

After much *turmoil*

A blessed foul doth in elysium. *Shak.*

—Blinded greatness ever in *turmoil*. *Daniel.*

From this *turmoil* set free. *Denham.*

* To TURMOIL, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To harass with commotion.—That wretched realm hath continually been *turmoiled*. *Spenser.*—Miserably tossed and *turmoiled*. *Spenser.*—Did earth, and heav'n, and Jove himself *turmoil*. *Dryden.* 2. To weary; to keep in uneasiness.—Toil and *turmoil'd* in fathomless and unquiet deeps of controversy. *Milton.*

(1.) * TURN, *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of turning; gyration. 2. Meander; winding way.

Fear milled the youngest from his way;

But Nilus hit the *turns*. *Dryden.*

3. Winding or flexuous course.—*Turns* and windings. *Addis.* 4. A walk to and fro.—Come, you and I must take a *turn* together. *Shak.*—I'll take a *turn* in your garden. *Dryd.*—Take a *turn* or two upon it. *Collier.* 5. Change; vicissitude; alteration.—The *turns* and varieties of all passions.

Hooker.—Oh, world, thy slippery *turns*! *Shak.*

The state of Christendom might by this have a *turn*. *Bacon.*—This *turn* hath made amends. *Milt.*

—This *turn's* too quick to be without design. *Dryden.*—Too well the *turns* of mortal chance I know. *Pope.*—The several *turns* of state. *Locke.*

6. Successive course.—Nobleness and bounty had their *turns* in his nature. *Bacon.* 7. Manner of proceeding; change from the original intention or first appearance.—The matter that fed them takes another *turn*. *Bluckem.*—The wife turn they thought to give the matter. *Swift.* 8. Chance; hap.—Every one has a fair *turn* to be as great as he pleases. *Col.* 9. Occasion; incidental opportunity.—Loaden at every *turn* with blows and reproaches. *L'Estr.* 10. Time at which by successive vicissitudes, any thing is to be had or done.

—Take your *turn* to speak. *Bacon.*—His *turn* will come to laugh at you again. *Den.*—And now the peaceful planets take their *turn*. *Dryd.*—When it came to their *turn* to govern. *Atter.*—Of these in their *turns*. *Arbut.*—The nymph will have her *turn*. *Swift.* 11. Actions of kindness or malice.—Thanks are half lost when good *turns* are delay'd. *Fairfax.*—Some natures delight in doing ill *turns*. *L'Estr.*—Shrewd *turns* strike deeper than ill words. *South.* 12. Reigning inclination.—The *turn* and fashion of the age. *Swift.* 13. A step off the ladder at the gallows.—Or take a *turn* for it at the session. *Butler.* 14. Convenience; use; purpose; exigence.—Diogenes' dish did never serve his master for more *turns*, notwithstanding that he made it his dish, cup, cap, measure, and water-pot. *Spens.*—They never found occasion for their *turn*. *Hubberd.*—His going I could frame to serve my *turn*. *Shak.*—My daughter Catharine is not for your *turn*. *Shak.*—Who first did serve their *turn*, and now serves his. *Dan.*—They had served their *turns*, often. *Clar.*—Neither will this

X X X X shift

shift serve the *turn*. *Wilkins*.—It will serve the *turn*. *Temple*. 15. The form; cast; shape; manner.—The *turn* of his thoughts and expressions. *Dryd*.—It gives my thought a *turn* that makes my heart the better. *Addif*.—Female virtues are of a domestick *turn*. *Addif*.—An agreeable *turn*. *Add*.—The *turn* of his neck and arms. *Addison*.—A sprightly *turn*. *Speer*.—Books give the same *turn* to our thoughts. *Swift*.—The *turn* of voice. *Watts*.—They will try to give all things a false *turn*. *Davenant*.—The whole *turn* of their expressions. *Arbut*. 16. The manner of adjusting the words of a sentence.—The *turn* of words. *Dryd*.—The *turn* of expression. *Addif*. 17. New position of things; as, something troublesome happens at every *turn*. 18. By *Turns*. One after another; alternately.—They feel by *turns* the bitter change. *Milton*.—By *turns* the tuneful muses love to sing. *Dryden*.—By *turns* put on the suppliant, and the lord. *Prior*.

(2.) *TURN*, in geography, a town of Walachia, at the conflux of the Danube and Alant, 34 miles E. of Orfova, and 24 S. of Brancovan.

(1.) * *To TURN*. v. a. [*turnan*, Sax. *tourner*, Fr. from *torno*, Latin.] 1. To put into a circular or vertiginous motion; to move round; to revolve.—She would have made Hercules *turn* the spit. *Shak*.—He *turn'd* me about with his finger and thumb. *Shak*.—Turning the key. *Shak*.—Turn swift their various motions. *Milt*. 2. To put the upper side downwards; to shift with regard to the sides.—What care does the hen take in turning the eggs frequently. *Addif*. 3. To change with respect to position.—When to advance, or stand, or *turn*. *Milt*.—He bid his angels *turn* ascanse the poles. *Milton*. 4. To change the state of the balance.—A feather will *turn* the scale. *Shak*.—A single soul's too light to *turn* the scale. *Dryden*. 5. To bring the inside out.—He told me I had *turn'd* the wrong side out. *Shak*.—Up from the bottom *turn'd* by furious winds. *Milton*. 6. To change as to the posture of the body, or direction of the look.—Turne head, ye well-rod peeres of Troy. *Chapm*.—His gentle dumb expression *turn'd* at length. *Milton*.—The monarch turns him to his royal guest. *Pope*. 7. To form on a lathe by moving round, (*torno*, Lat.)—This is the whole sum of turning. *Moxon*.—The lathe is made strong, because the matter it turns is metal. *Moxon*. 8. To form to shape.—His person is finely *turned*. *Tat*.—His limbs how *turn'd*, how broad his shoulders spread! *Pope*. 9. To change; to transform; to metamorphose; to transmute.—

My throat of war be *turn'd*

To the virgin's voice.

This mock of his

Hath *turn'd* his balls to gunstones.

Shak.

Shak.

—Turn the council of Ahiathophel into foolishness. *Sam*. xv.—Impatience turns an ague into a fever. *Taylor*.—O goodness! that shall evil *turn* to good. *Milt*.—To turn—metals of drossier ore to perfect gold. *Milton*. 10. To make of another colour.—The choicer of a hog *turned* syrup of violets green. *Floyer*. 11. To change; to alter.—Could *turn* so much the constitution. *Shak*. 12. To make a reverse of fortune.—And when they least expect it, turns the dice. *Dryden*. 13. To translate.—Who turns a Persian tale for half a crown. *Pope*. 14.

To change to another opinion, or party, worse or better; to convert; to pervert.—Turn ye not unto idols. *Lev*. 15. To change with regard to inclination or temper.—Turn thee unto me, and have mercy upon me. *Pf*. xxv. 16. To alter from one effect or purpose to another.—That unreasoningness they *turn* to soothing themselves. *Hooker*.—Turn it into advantage. *Taylor*.—Turning them to advantage in this world. *Tillot*. 17. To betake.—Sheep, and great cattle, it seems indifferent which of those two were most *turned* to. *Temple*. 18. To transfer.—These came to David, to turn the kingdom of Saul to him. *1 Chron*. xii. 23. 19. To fall upon by some change.—The destruction of Demetrius *turned* upon the father. *Bacon*. 20. To make to nauseate.—The fight of a luxurious feeder, would *turn* his stomach. *Fell*.—This beastly line quite turns my stomach. *Pope*. 21. To make giddy.—And turn their heads to imitate the fun. *Pope*. 22. To infatuate; to make mad; applied to the head or brain.—This cursed love will surely *turn* my brain. *Theocrit*.—A man who has his head *turned* with religious enthusiasm. *Addison*.—Her brain, I fear, is *turn'd*. *Rowe*. 23. To change direction to, or from any point.—Turn rein from th' equinoctial road. *Milton*.—He turns his eyes. *Locke*.—Unless he turns his thoughts that way. *Locke*.—They turn away their eyes. *Addison*. 24. To direct by a change to a certain purpose or propension.—My thoughts are *turn'd* on peace. *Addison*.—This turns the busiest spirits from the old notions of honour. *Addison*.—His natural magnanimity *turn'd* all his thoughts. *Addif*.—He *turn'd* his parts to books. *Prior*.—A soul *turn'd* to poetry. *Pope*. 25. To double in.—But turns at ev'ry seam an inch in. *Swift*. 26. To revolve; to agitate in the mind.—Turn these ideas about in your mind. *Watts*. 27. To bend from a perpendicular edge; to blunt.—Sharp tools, whose edges be very soon *turn'd*. *Ascham*. 28. To drive by violence; to expel; with out, or out of.—Rather *turn* this day out of the week. *Shak*.—They *turn'd* weak people out of the city. *Knolles*.—And fit to be *turn'd* out of door. *Hudibras*.—Turn'd myself out of my benefice. *Dryden*.—God would turn him out of paradise. *Locke*.—Turn'd the good man out of his dwelling. *Addif*. 29. To apply by a change of use.—

They all the sacred mysteries of heaven

To their own vile advantages shall *turn*.

—Land will be *turned* most to great cattle. *Temple*.

30. To reverse; to repeal.—God will *turn* thy

captivity. *Deut*. xxx. 31. To keep passing in a

course of exchange or traffick.—These yield the

readiest money of any that are *turn'd* in this king-

dom. *Temple*.—A man must *turn* the penny. *Col-*

lier. 32. To adapt the mind.—He was perfectly

well *turn'd* for trade. *Addif*. 33. To put towards

another.—I will make all thine enemies *turn* their

backs unto thee. *Exod*. 34. To retort; to throw

back.—His conscience turns these very reasonings

upon him. *Atterbury*. 35. To TURN away. To

dismiss from service; to discard.—She had hoped

to *turn away* the fancy that master'd her. *Sidney*.

—Yet you will be *turn'd away*. *Shak*.—She *turn'd*

away one servant. *Arbut*. 36. To TURN away.

To avert.—We pray to God to *turn away* evil

from us. *Duty of Man*. 37. To TURN back. To

return

turn to the hand from which it was received.—*Ve turn not back the silks upon the merchant. bak.* 38. To TURN off. To dismiss contemptuously.—Then take we down his load, and turn him off. *Shak.*—The murmurer is turn'd off. *Gov. Tongue.*—He turn'd off his former wife. *Addis.* 9. To TURN off. To give over; to resign.—We're not so wholly turned off to that reverſion, as to have no ſupplies for the preſent. *Decay of Piety.* 10. To TURN off. To deſect; to divert.—To turn off the thoughts of the people. *Addis.* 41. To be TURNED off. To advance to an age beyond. An odd ungrammatical phraſe.—Juſt turn'd off boy, and on the verge of man. *Ovid.*—When turned off. *Addis.* 42. To TURN over. To tranſfer.—Turning over the fault to fortune. *Sidney.* 43. To TURN over. To refer.—After he had ſaluted Soyman, he was turn'd over to the Baſſa's. *Knolles.*—You turn me over to another hand. *Dryd.* 44. To TURN over. To examine one leaf of a book ſter another.—To turn over a concordance. *Swift.* 5. To TURN over. To throw off the ladder.—Are blinded firſt, and then turn'd over. *Butler.* 6. To TURN to. To have recourſe to.—Turn to theſe rules. *Grew.*—They may be turn'd to on all occaſions. *Locke.*

(2.) * To TURN. v. n. 1. To move round; to have a circular or vertiginous motion.—They turn round like grindſtones. *Ben Jonſ.*—The gate on golden hinges turning. *Milt.*—Long turning round. *Bacon.* 2. To ſhew regard or anger, by directing he look towards any thing.—Pompey turned upon him and bade him be quiet. *Bacon.*—The underſtanding turns inwards on itſelf. *Locke.*—Turn, mighty monarch, turn, this way. *Dryden.* 3. To move the body round.—Seeing me ſhe turn'd. *Milton.*—He ſaid, and turning ſhort with ſpeedy pace. *Dryd.* 4. To move from its place.—The ſkeleton is apt to turn out on either ſide. *Wiſem.* 5. To change poſture.—Theſe dice could turn upon no other ſide. *Cheyne.* 6. To have a tendency or direction.—His cares all turn upon Altyanax. *A. Phillips.* 7. To move the face to another quarter.—The morning, as miſtaken, turns about. *Dryd.* 8. To depart from the way; to deviate.—My lords turn in, into your ſervant's houſe. *Gen. xix.* 2.—Virgil turns ſhort on a ſudden into ſome ſimilitude. *Dryd.* 9. To alter; to be changed; to be transformed.—Wood will turn into the nature of ſtone. *Bacon.*—Your bodies may at leaſt turn all to ſpirit. *Milton.*—A ſtorm of ſad miſchance will turn into ſomething good. *Taylor.*—This ſuſpicion turned to jealousy. *Dryd.*—When the wide earth o heaps of aſhes turn'd. *Pope.*—Butter that turns to oil. *Swift.* 10. To become by a change.—Cygnets from grey turn white. *Bacon.*—They will turn into a mouldy ſubſtance. *Boyle.*—They turn viragos too. *Dryd.*—The gall will turn of a blackiſh colour. *Arb.* 11. To change ſides.—I turn'd, and try'd each corner of my bed. *Dryd.*—A man on a fever turns often. *Swift.* 12. To change the mind, conduct, or determination.—Turn from thy fierce wrath. *Exod.*—Turn at my reproof. *Prov.*—He will relent and turn from his diſpleaſure. *Milton.* 13. To change to acid. Uſed of milk.—It turns in leſs than two nights. *Shak.*—Aſſes milk turneth not ſo eaſily as cows. *Bacon.* 14. To be brought eventually.—Something which may

turn to their advantage. *Locke.*—Every thing we do may turn to account at the great day. *Addis.*—Theſe things might turn to his deſtruction. *Addis.*—They have not turned to any great account. *Baker.* 15. To depend on, as the chief point.—The queſtion turns upon this point. *Swift.*—Conditions of peace certainly turn upon events of war. *Swift.*—Which reduces into one important action all the particulars upon which it turns. *Pope.* 16. To grow giddy.—Left my brain turn. *Shak.* 17. To have an unexpected conſequence or tendency.—Afflictions ſhall turn to our advantage. *Wake.* 18. To TURN away. To deviate from a proper courſe.—The turning away of the ſimple ſhall ſlay him. *Prov.* 19. To return; to recoil.—His foul eſteem—turns foul upon himſelf. *Milton.* 20. To be directed to, or from any point; as the needle turns to the pole. 21. To change attention or practice.—Forthwith from dance to ſweet repaſt they turn. *Milton.* 22. To TURN off. To divert one's courſe.—Turn off with care, for treacherous rocks are near. *Norris.*—This word, through all the variety of its applications, commonly preſerves that idea of change which is included in its primary meaning; all gyration, and all deſlection being change of place; a few of its uſes imply direction or tendency, but direction or tendency is always the cauſe and conſequence of change of place.

TURNAU, a town of Bohemia, in Boheſlaw; 44 miles NNE. of Prague, and 14 NE. of Jung-Buntzel.

* TURNBENCH. n. ſ. [turn and bench.] A term of turners.—Small work in metal is turn'd in an iron lathe called a *turnbench*, which they ſcrew in a vice, and, having fitted their work upon a ſmall iron axle, with a drill barrel, fitted upon a ſquare ſhank, at the end of the axle, next the left hand, they with a drill-bow, and drill-ſtring, carry it about. *Maxon.*

* TURNCOAT. n. ſ. [turn and coat.] One who forſakes his party or principles; a renegade.—Then is courteſy a turncoat. *Shak.*

TURNDORF, a town of Bavaria, 21 m. NW. of Amberg, and 32 NE. of Nuremberg.

TURNEBUS, Adrian, an eminent critic, born in 1512. His father was a Scotch officer whoſe name was Turnbull, which Adrian varied to *Turnebe*, in Latin *Turnebus*. He acquired ſo extenſive a reputation by his learning that he had great offers made him from Italy, Germany, and England; but he preferred poverty in France to riches anywhere elſe. He taught polite literature firſt at Toulouſe; but in 1547 went to be Greek profeſſor at Paris, in 1552, he took upon him the care of the royal Greek preſs for three years, when he quitted it on being admitted into the number of royal profeſſors. He died in 1565; and his works, which are all in Latin, were printed at Straſburg, in one vol. folio, 1600.

TURNEFF, an iſland in the bay of Honduras, near the coaſt of N. America; 30 m. long: Lon. 88. 20. W. Lat. 17. 15. N.

(1.) TURNER, in botany, a ſpecies of BRASSICA. For the culture of theſe, ſee RURAL ECONOMY, Part II. Sect. III.

(2.) TURNER BREAD. See BREAD.

(3.) TURNER FLY. See CHRYSOMELA, and RURAL ECONOMY, Part I. Sect. VII.

(1.) TURNER,

(1.) **TURNER, William, M. D.** a celebrated physician and divine, in the 16th century, born at Morpeth, in Northumberland, and educated at Cambridge where he became a Protestant, travelled over England to preach the reformed faith; for which Bp. Gardiner put him in prison. On his release he went to Italy, and graduated at Ferrara. On the accession of Edward VI. he returned, and was made Dean of Wells. When Mary succeeded, he again went abroad, and did not return, till after her death. Q. Elizabeth restored him to his preferments. He wrote a *Treatise on the Baths of England and Germany: A Complete Herbal or History of Plants*, fol. *Hifloria de naturis Herbarum, fœbulis & notis vallata*, 8vo; and some other botanical works. He died in 1568.

(1.) **TURNER, Francis**, son of the above, was educated at Winchester, and at New College Oxford. He became prebendary of St Paul's, dean of Windsor, and Bp. of Rochester in 1683, and in 1684 Bp. of Ely. He was one of the 7 bishops whom James VII. sent to the Tower; yet he was deprived of his bishopric at the revolution, for refusing to take the oaths. He published some sermons, several sacred poems, and the *Life of Mr Nicholas Ferrar*. He died in 1700.

(3.) * **TURNER. n. f.** [from *turn*.] One whose trade is to turn in a lathe.—Smooth-grain'd and proper for the turner's trade. *Dryden*.—Some turners, shew their dexterity in turning. *Moxon*.

TURNERA, in botany a genus of plants, in the class of *Pentandria*, and order of *Trigynia*, ranking in the natural method, under the 37th order. *Columnifera*.

TURNHOUT, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Dommel and Scheldt, and ci-devant province of Dutch Brabant; 25 miles SSW. of Bois-le-Duc, and 18 SSE. of Breda.

(1.) * **TURNING. n. f.** [from *turn*.] Flexure; winding; meander.—Thro' paths and turnings often trod by day. *Milton*.

(1.) **TURNING** is the art of forming hard bodies, as wood, ivory, iron, into a round or oval shape by means of a machine called a *lathe*. This art was well known to the ancients, and seems to have been carried by them to a very great degree of perfection; at least Pliny and other authors tell us, that those precious vases enriched with figures in *half relief*, which still adorn our cabinets, were turned on the lathe. Turning is performed by the lathe, of which there are various kinds, and several instruments, as gouges, chisels, drills, formers, screw tales, used for cutting what is to be turned into its proper form as the lathe turns round. One of the most simple kinds of lathe is represented in *Pl. CCCXXXVIII. fig. 1.* in which *a* is the footstool, *b* the cord, *c* the frame of the lathe, *d d* the puppets, *e e* the points, *f* the spanging-tree. The lathe should be fixed in a place very well lighted; it should be immoveable, and neither too high nor too low. The puppets should neither be so low as to oblige the workman to stoop in order to see his work properly, nor so high that the little chips, which he is continually driving off, should come into his eyes. The piece to be turned should be rounded (if it be wood) before it be put on the lathe, either with a small hatchet made for the purpose, or with a plane, or

with a file, fixing it in a vice, and shaving it down till it is everywhere almost of an equal thickness, and leaving it a little bigger than it is intended to be when finished off. Before putting it on the lathe, it is also necessary to find the centres of its two end surfaces, and that they should be exactly opposite to each other, that when the points of the puppets are applied to them, and the piece is turned round, no side may belly out more than another. To find these two centres, lay the piece of wood to be turned upon a plank; open a pair of compasses to almost half the thickness of the piece; fix one of the legs in the plank, and let the point of the other touch one of the ends of the piece, brought into the same plane with the plank on which the compasses is fixed and very near the fixed leg. Describe 4 arches on that end at equal distances from each other at the circumference of the end, but intersecting one another within; the point of intersection is the centre of the end. In the same manner must the centre of the other end be found. After finding the two centres, make a small hole at each of them, into which insert the points of the puppets, and fix the piece so firmly as not to be shaken out, and yet loose enough to turn round without difficulty. The piece being thus fixed, it is necessary in the next place to adjust the cord, by making it pass twice round the piece and in such a manner that the two ends of the cord, both that which is fixed to the *spang* and to the *foot-board*, come off on the side on which the turner stands; that the piece may move against the edge of the cutting-tool and be turned. If the lathe be moved by a wheel, the manner of adjusting the cord needs no directions. If the workman does not choose to be at the trouble to find the two centres of the piece in the manner described above, let him lay, as nearly as he can, the centre of one end upon the point of the left hand puppet, and then let him push forward the right hand puppet, striking it with a mallet till its point is as near as he can in the centre of the other end of the piece; and then fixing the right hand puppet by a gentle blow of the mallet on the key, let him turn round the piece to see by the eye if the centres have been properly found. If any part of it bellies out, let him strike that part gently with the mallet till it goes properly; then let him strike one of the puppets pretty smartly to drive the points into the piece, and afterwards fix the puppet by striking the key. If the workman cannot judge by the eye whether the piece be turning properly round its centres or not, he should apply gently the point of an instrument called a *triangular graver*, leaning it on the *rest*, and it will mark by a line the place where the piece is out of its centre; and by striking upon this line with a mallet, the piece can easily be placed properly. The *rest*, of which we have just spoken, ought to be placed upon the two arms of the lathe, and fixed with screws as near the piece as the workman pleases. The piece being fixed between the two points of the puppets (or, as we call them in Scotland, the *head*), the cord adjusted, and the *rest* fixed as near the work as possible without touching it; the workman is now to take a *gauge* (*fig. 2. Pl. 334.* in which *a* is the mouth and *b* the handle) of

of a proper size on his left hand, and hold it by the handle a little inclined, keeping the back of the hand lowermost. With his right hand, the back of which is to be turned upwards, he is to grasp it as near the end as possible on this side of the *rest*; then leaning the gouge on the *rest*, he is to present the edge of it a little higher than the horizontal diameter of the piece, so as to form a kind of tangent to its circumference; then putting the right foot on the foot-board, and turning round the wheel, and holding the gouge firmly on the *rest*, the piece will be cut neatly. In the same manner are the chisels, formers, and other instruments to be used, taking care that the wood be cut equally, and that the instrument be not pushed improperly, sometimes stronger than at others; and taking care also that the instrument used do not follow the work, but that it be kept firmly in the hand without yielding. The young turner ought to endeavour to acquire the management of the gouge and the chisel, which are the instruments by far the most frequently used, and the most necessary in this art: by them, almost entirely, are the soft woods turned; for as for hard woods and other things, as box, ebony, horn, ivory, and the metals, they are hardly ever turned except by *shaving off*. In that case gravers are to be used with square, round, or triangular mouths (fig. 3, 4, 5). They should be held horizontally while applied to the wood, and not obliquely as directed for the gouge and the chisel. After the work is completely turned, it is next to be polished; and this cannot be done with the instruments hitherto mentioned. Soft woods, as pear-tree, hazel, maple, ought to be polished with shark-skin or Dutch rushes. There are different species of sharks; some of which have a greyish, others a reddish skin. Shark skin is always the better to be a good deal used; at first it is too rough for polishing. The *Dutch-rush*, before using, should be moistened a little, otherwise they break in pieces almost immediately, and render it exceedingly difficult to polish with them. They are particularly proper for smoothing the hard woods, as box, *lignum vitæ*, ebony, &c. After having cleaned up the piece well, it should be rubbed gently either with wax or olive-oil, then wiped clean and rubbed with its own raspings or with a cloth a little worn. Ivory, horn, silver, and brass, are polished with pumice-stone finely pounded and put upon leather or a linen cloth a little moistened: with this the piece is rubbed as it turns round in the lathe; and to prevent any dirt from adhering to any part of it, every now and then it is rubbed gently with a small rush dipped in water. To polish very finely, the workmen make use of *TRIPOLI*, and afterwards of putty or calx of tin. Iron and steel are polished with very fine powder of emery; this is mixed with oil, and put between two pieces of very tender wood, and then the iron is rubbed with it. Tin and silver are polished with a burnisher and hard kind of red stone called in France *sanguine lune*. They may be polished also with putty, putting it dry into flannel skin, or with the palm of the hand. To succeed in turning iron, it is necessary to have a *lathe* exceedingly strong in all its parts, and exceedingly well fixed. The pup-

pets should be short, and the *rest* well fixed very near the work: the back of the *rest* should be two or three lines lower than the iron to be turned. The lathe and other instruments being prepared, it is necessary to determine the length and thickness of the iron to be turned according to the design which is to be executed, and to make a model of it in wood a little thicker than it ought to be: Then one exactly like this is to be forged of the best iron that can be procured; that is to say, it must not be new, but well prepared and well beaten with hammers; it must have no flaws, nor cracks, nor pimples. New iron, which has not been well beaten, often contains round drops of cast iron, called by the workmen *grains*, which blunt the edges of the gouges, chisels, and other instruments used for cutting; break them, or make them slide: The iron being forged according to the model, it should be annealed, that is, heated red hot and allowed to cool slowly on the coals till the fire go out of itself. Some people, to soften the iron, cover it over with clay and allow it to cool. The iron cylinder being thus made, it is next to be put upon the lathe, finding the centres as formerly directed, and boring a small hole in them that the iron may not escape from the points. The points should be oiled from time to time to prevent their being excessively heated and spoiled, while the iron is turning. A *crotchet* is then to be applied to the iron to be turned, a little above its centre gently, and thus the inequalities of the cylinder will be taken off. Other instruments are then to be applied to mould the iron according to the model; and whenever any of them grow hot, they are to be plunged into a basin of water lying beside the workman. If the iron, after being properly turned, it is to be bored like a gun-barrel, one of the puppets is to be removed and another substituted in its place, having a square hole through it, into which the collar of the iron is to be fixed firmly, so as not to shake; then borers are to be applied, like those which locksmiths use to bore keys; and beginning with a small one, and afterwards taking larger ones, the hole is to be made as wide and deep as necessary; great care must be taken to hold the borers firm on the *rest*, otherwise there is danger of not boring the hole straight. The borer must be withdrawn from time to time to oil it and to clean the hole. As it is difficult to make a hole quite round with borers alone, it is necessary to have also an instrument a good deal smaller than the hole, one of the sides of which is sharp, very well tempered, and a little hollow in the middle. This instrument being fixed in a pretty long handle, is to be applied with steadiness to the inner surface of the hole, and it will entirely remove every inequality that may have been there before its application. The method of cutting a screw upon our cylinder, is this. Some persons use an instrument, consisting principally of a female screw, for this purpose: but this is rather dangerous; for if one presses too violently, or inclines it ever so little to the right or left, he runs the greatest risk of spoiling the screw. To avoid this danger, some persons use it only to trace out the lines of the screw, and afterwards finish it with a file. But there is a much better way of cutting a screw; and it is this

this. Take a tap for making a female screw, the threads of which have been cut very accurately, and exactly of the size of the screw which you want; and having put it in the opening which you have traced in the collar of the axis on which the screw is to be cut, solder it with tin, sal-ammoniac, and rosin, as exactly corresponding to the axis as possible. Take then a puppet with a hole cut into a corresponding female screw, into which the male screw is to be put. The axis on which the screw is to be cut must be placed exactly horizontally between the two puppets. The *rest* is then to be brought as near as possible to the place where the screw is to be cut, and a small hollow should be cut in that part of it which is exactly opposite to the place where the screw is to be cut, to hold your instrument firmly and prevent it from shaking. The instrument with which the screw is to be cut should be very sharp, and its point should make an angle of 60° with the screw to be cut; and if you wish the screw to be cut very deep, it should make an angle a little larger. The lathe being now put in motion, the tap fixed at the end of the axis will move gradually through the female screw in the puppet; and your instrument in the mean time will trace a similar male screw on the axis fixed in the lathe. Many persons, after having in this manner drawn the outlines of the screw, finish it with a screw-tale of 3 teeth corresponding exactly to the size of the screw. For turning *ovals*, a lathe of somewhat a different construction is used. The axis or spindle, having on it the pulley over which the band-cord passes for turning the lathe, is fixed between the two puppets so as to turn round easily; one end of it passes through one of the puppets, and to it is firmly fixed a circular plate of brass, so that it turns round along with the spindle. Upon this plate two brazen segments of circles are fastened, the circumference of which correspond to the circumference of the plate: their cords are parallel, and equally distant from the centre of the plate, so that they leave a distance between them. They have a groove in each of them: in these grooves another plate is placed which exactly fills up the space between the two grooves, but is shorter than the diameter of the larger circular plate on which it is laid. This plate is made to slide in the grooves. To its centre is fixed a short spindle, on which the piece of wood to be turned is fixed. When the lathe is set a going, the circular plate moves round, and carries the piece along with it; the plate of brass on which the piece is fixed loosely in the grooves already described, slides down a little every time that the grooves become perpendicular to the floor (and there are particular contrivances to prevent it from sliding down too far); and by these two motions combined, the circular one of the large plate, and the straight one of the small, the circumference of the piece of wood to be turned necessarily describes an oval; and gouges or other tools being applied in the usual manner supported on the *rest*, it is cut into an oval accordingly. The small plate may be made to slide either more or less in the grooves; and by this contrivance the transverse diameter of the oval, or rather ellipse, may be made longer or shorter at pleasure. Another, and

still simpler method, if possible, of turning *ovals* is this: Take two ovals of metal, exactly of the size of the oval which you intend to make; fix them firmly on the spindle of the lathe so as to turn round with it: fix between them the wood to be turned; and then it is easy, by the help of chisels and other tools, to cut it, as the lathe goes into exactly the figure of the external ovals. Or an oval may be formed by placing the wood, or whatever is to receive that shape, obliquely on the lathe. There are several other ingenious methods of turning; but our bounds do not permit us to enter upon them. We shall therefore conclude this article with a number of receipts which every turner ought to know. 1. *The method of moulding boxes both of shell and horn.*—In the first place, form a proper mould, which must consist of two pieces, viz. of a circle about half an inch thick, which should slope a little in order to draw out the moulded shell the more easily; and a ring fitted to the outside of the circle, so that both together make the shape of a box. These two pieces being adjusted, it is necessary to round the shell to be moulded of such a size that, when moulded, it will be a little higher than the ring of the mould, that there may be no deficiency. The mould is then to be put into a press on a plate of iron, exactly under the screw of the press; put then the shell upon the circle of the mould, so that its centre also is exactly opposite to the screw of the press: then take a piece of wood formed into a truncated cone, and not so thick as the diameter of the circle of the mould, nor so deep as the ring: then put a plate of iron above the cone, and screw down the press gently and cautiously till the whole is well fixed: then plunge the whole into a cauldron of boiling water placed above a fire. In 8 or 10 minutes the shell or horn will begin to soften; screw the press a little firmer, that the wooden cone may sink into the softened shell: repeat this from time to time till the cone is quite sunk in the mould; then take out the press and plunge it into cold water. When it is cold, take the box now formed out of the mould, and put into the inside of it a new mould of tin exactly of the form you wish the inside of the box to be: do the same with the outside, put it again into the press and plunge it into boiling water: screw the press gradually till the box be fashioned as you desire. 2. *Method of preparing green wood so that it will not split in the turning.*—Having cut your wood into pieces of a proper size, put it into a vessel full of a ley made with wood ashes. Boil it there about an hour; then, taking the cauldron off the fire, allow the ley to cool; then take out the wood and dry it in the shade. 3. *Method of giving an ebony-black to hard and fine woods.*—After forming the wood into the destined figure, rub it with aquafortis a little diluted. Small threads of wood will rise in the drying, which you will rub off with putnice-stone. Repeat this process again, and then rub the wood with the following composition: Put into a glazed earthen vessel a point of strong vinegar, two ounces of fine iron-slings, and half a pound of pounded galls, and allow them to infuse for three or four hours on hot cinders. At the end of this time augment the fire, and pour into the vessel

four ounces of copperas (sulphat of iron), and a chopin of water, having half an ounce of borax and as much indigo dissolved in it; and make the whole boil till a froth rises. Rub several layers of this upon your wood; and when it is dry, polish it with leather, on which you have put a little tripoli. 4. *Method of giving to plum tree the colour of brazil wood.*—Slack lime with urine, and bedaub the wood over with it while it is hot: allow it to dry; then take off the coat of lime and rub it with shamoy skin well oiled. Or, steep your wood in water, having a quantity of alum dissolved in it: then, having allowed brazil wood to dissolve in water five or six hours, steep your wood in it, kept lukewarm during a night; and when is dry, rub it, as before directed, with shamoy skin well oiled. 5. *Method of giving a fine black colour to wood.* Steep your wood for two or three days in lukewarm water in which a little alum has been dissolved; then put a handful of logwood, cut small, into a pint of water, and boil it down to less than half a pint. If you then add a little indigo, the colour will be more beautiful. Spread a layer of this liquor quite hot on your wood with a pencil, which will give it a violet colour. When it is dry, spread on another layer; dry it again and give it a third: then boil verdegreis at discretion in its own vinegar, and spread a layer of it on your wood: when it is dry, rub it with a brush, and then with oiled shamoy skin. This gives a fine black, and imitates perfectly the colour of ebony. 6. *Method of cleaning and whitening bones before using them.*—Having taken off with a saw the useless ends of the bones, make a strong ley of ashes and quick lime, and in a paul of this ley put four ounces of alum, and boil the bones in it for an hour; then take the vessel containing the ley off the fire and let it cool; then take out the bones and dry them in the shade. 7. *Method of folding shells.*—Clean the two sides of the shells which you wish to join together; then, having joined them, wrap them up in linen folded double and well moistened; then heat two plates of iron pretty hot that they may keep their heat for some time; and putting your shells rolled up between them under a press, which you must screw very tight, leave them there till the whole is cold, and they will be soldered. If you do not succeed the first time, repeat the process. 8. *Method of moulding shells.*—Put six pints of water into a kettle; add to it an ounce of olive or other oil; make the water boil; then put in your shell, and it will grow soft. Take it out and put it into a mould under a press, and it will take the figure you want. This must be done quickly; for if the shell cool ever so little, the process will fail. It will not require much pressure. 9. *Method of tinging bones and ivory red.*—Boil shavings of scarlet in water. When it begins to boil, throw in a quarter of a pound of ashes made from the dregs of wine, which will extract the colour: then throw in a little rock alum to clear it, and pass the water through a linen cloth. Steep your ivory or bone in aquafortis, and put it into the water. If you wish to leave white spots, cover the places destined for them with wax. 10. *To tinge ivory black.*—Steep the ivory five or six days in water of galls with

ashes made with dried dregs of wine and arsenic; then give it two or three layers of the same black with which plum-tree is blackened, in order to imitate ebony. Or, dissolve silver in aquafortis, and put into it a little rose water. Rub the ivory with this, and allow it to dry in the sun. 11. *Method of hardening wood to make pulleys.*—After finishing the pulley, boil it seven or eight minutes in olive oil, and it will become as hard as copper. 12. *To make Chinese varnish.*—Take of gum lac in grains four ounces; put it into a strong bottle with a pound of good spirit of wine, and add about the bulk of a hazel nut of camphor. Allow them to mix in summer in the sun, or in winter on hot embers for 24 hours, shaking the bottle from time to time. Pass the whole through a fine cloth, and throw away what remains upon it. Then let it settle for 24 hours, and you will find a clear part in the upper part of the bottle, which you must separate gently and put into another vial, and the remains will serve for the first layers.

* TURNINGNESS. *n. f.* [from turning.] Quality of turning; tergiversation; subterfuge.—So nature formed him, to all turningness of sleights. Sidney.

(1.) * TURNIP. *n. f.* A white esculent root. —Parships and turnips in his right-hand. *Peacham*. —With wither'd turnip-tops her temples crown'd. *Gay*. —Turnips hide their swelling heads below. *Gay*.

(2.) TURNIP, for turnips, a barbarous plural used by some slovenly writers on agriculture.

(3.) TURNIP. See BRASSICA, &c.

(4.) TURNIPS, SOWING OF. See RURAL ECONOMY, Part II. Sect. VIII. page 461, col. 2.

TURNIP DRILL. *n. f.* [turnip and drill.] an useful instrument in rural economy, invented by Mr Munning's for sowing turnips, at equal distances of 9, 18, 27, or 36 inches, or at any given distance of inches, of which nine are an aliquot part; and by which he enlarges the increase of the crop. Mr Munning's turnip-drill is represented in Plate CCCXLI. fig. 1, and 2. Fig. 1. A is the wheel, with an iron rim. B, the tin barrel, or seed-box, fixed to the axis of the above wheel. C, the aperture by which the seed is introduced into the box:—this aperture is afterwards closed by a cover. D, a semicircular plate of tin, to prevent any dirt falling upon the seed-box. E E, the two handles of the machine. Fig. 2. F represents the seed-box on a larger scale. G, the holes in the tin box, through which the seed falls upon the land. H, part of the axis of the wheel, to which the seed-box is fixed. A drill machine for sowing turnip-feed has also been invented by T. A. Knight, Esq. of Elton, near Ludlow. In Plate 341. fig. 3. A is the iron wheel, which, running on its edge, formed by two concave sides, makes the groove into which the seeds fall. B is a wheel, moving on the same axis with A, and turning the wheel C (which gives out the seed) by means of a strap. D, the tube through which the seed passes, and falls into the channel made by the iron wheel. E, the feet of the instrument. F, six lengths of jack-chain; which cover the seed remarkably well. The chain is perhaps preferable to any kind of harrow, because it can never become incumbered with loose straw, which is almost always found

on, or close to, the surface, when the ground has been manured; and the iron cutting-wheel has a similar advantage over any kind of share. G, the feed-box. H H, the handles of the machine. Fig. 4. is a section, on a larger scale, of the feed-box G, in fig. 2. The wheel, marked C, is also the same as in that figure; it is fixed upon the axis of the cylinder I, which is pierced upon the surface with holes at K, for the feed. This cylinder turns round within a groove at the bottom of the box, and is so well fitted therein, that no seed falls from the box but what is delivered by the holes K. A small brush, marked L, rubs against the cylinder, to clear out any seeds which may remain in the holes. M is a front-view of the wheel, exhibiting its edge.

TURNIP-ROOTED CABBAGE, *n. f.* a valuable plant recommended by Sir Thomas Bevor, in the Bath Society's *Papers*, for rearing and fattening young bullocks and widders. See his method of cultivating them, under **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part II. *Sec.* III. § 2.

(1.) * **TURNPIKE**. *n. f.* [*turn* and *pique*, or *pique*.] 1. A cross of two bars armed with pikes at the end, and turning on a pin, fixed to hinder horses from entering. 2. Any gate by which the way is obstructed.—The gates are shut and the turnpikes locked. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **TURNPIKE ROADS**. Nothing has contributed more to the rapid improvement of Scotland, than turnpike roads. The tax they occasion is trifling compared with the benefits they produce. See Sir John Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* vol. vi. p. 458. 520. ix. 530.

* **URNSICK**. *adj.* [*turn* and *sick*.] Vertiginous; giddy.—If a man fee another turn swiftly and long, himself waxeth *turnsick*. *Bacon*.

(1.) * **URNSOL**. *n. f.* [*Heliotropium*, Latin.] A plant. *Miller*.

(2.) **URNSOL**, in Botany. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*: **CROTON**, § III, N° 4; and **HELIOTROPISM**.

(3.) **URNSOL**, *n. f.* a dye-stuff manufactured in Holland, as follows:—That kind of lichen called *orchil*, or **LICHEN ROCELLA**, see that article, or, when that cannot be procured, the large oak moss, after being dried and cleaned, is reduced to powder, and by a kind of oil-press the powder is forced through a brass sieve, the holes of which are small. The sifted powder is then thrown into a trough and mixed with an alkali called *vetas*, which is nothing else than the ashes of wine lees in the proportion of half a pound of ashes to one pound of powder. This mixture is moistened with a little human urine. As soon as the mixture assumes a red colour, it is poured into another trough; it is again moistened with urine, and then stirred round, that the fermentation may be renewed. In the course of a few days it acquires a bluish colour, and is then carefully mixed with a 3d part of very pure pulverised potash; after which the mixture is put into wooden pails 3 feet in height, and 6 inches broad. When the third fermentation takes place, and the paste has acquired a considerably dark blue colour, it is mixed with chalk or pulverised marble, and stirred well round, that the

whole may be completely united. This last substance gives the colour no higher quality, and is intended merely to add to the weight. The blue, prepared in this manner, is poured into oblong square iron moulds; and the cakes, when formed, are placed upon fir boards on an airy floor in order to dry, after which they are packed up for sale.

(1.) * **TURNSPIT**. *n. f.* [*turn* and *spit*.] He that anciently turned a spit, instead of which jacks are now generally used. It is now used of a dog that turns the spit.—A *turnspit* in the royal kitchen. *Sauv.*

(2.) **TURNSPIT**, in zoology. See **CANIS**, § I, vi, No. 13.

TURNSTILE. *n. f.* [*turn* and *stile*.] A turnpike in a footpath. A *turnstile* is more certain *Hudibras*.—Twirling *turnstiles* interrupt the way. *Gay*.

TURNSTONE, in ornithology. See **TRINGA**.
TURO, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Bari; 22 miles SSW. of Conversano.

TUROE, an island of Denmark, in the Little Belt; 12 m. SW. of Assens, in the isle of Funen.

TURON, a town of Cochinchina, situated at the bottom of a bay so named. Lon. 107. 30. E. Lat. 15. 15. N.

TURPE, a town of Germany, in the ci-devant bishopric of Paderborn, allotted, in 1801-2, to the K. of Prussia.

(1.) * **TURPENTINE**. *n. f.* [*turpentina*, Ital. *terebinthina*, Lat.] The gum exuded by the pine, the juniper, and other trees of that kind.—As the *turpentine* tree I stretched out my branches. *Ecclesi.*—Vertgrease grinded with *turpentine*. *Peacham*.

(2.) **TURPENTINE** is a transparent viscous substance, flowing either naturally or by incision from several unctuous or resinous trees; as the terebinthus, pine, larch, fir, &c. See **PINUS**, N° 9; **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*; and **MATERIA MEDICA**.

TURPENTINE TREES. See **PISTACIA**.

(1.) **TURPETH**, *n. f.* the cortical part of the root of a species of convolvulus, brought from the East Indies. It is accounted a pretty strong cathartic; but it is very uncertain in its strength, for sometimes a dose from a scruple to a dram purges violently, while at other times a much greater dose produces very little effect. See **CONVOLVULUS**, N° 12.

(3.) **TURPETH**, or **TURBITH MINERAL**. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

(3.) **TURPETH**, or **TURBITH MINERAL**, in the old system of chemistry, was the name formerly given to the *yellow oxide of Mercury*. This oxide may be obtained by boiling 1 part of mercury in 1½ parts of sulphuric acid almost to dryness and then pouring hot water upon the mass. A yellow powder is obtained, formerly called *turbith-mineral*. This is the yellow oxide, but it is never pure, containing always one 10th of its weight of sulphuric acid. Nor is any process known by which it can be obtained pure. Its properties are therefore unknown. Bergman says it is composed of 96.8 parts mercury, and 3.2 oxygen. Fourcroy makes it 87 parts mercury, and 13 of oxygen.

* **TURPITUDE**. *n. f.* [*turpitude*, Fr. *turpitude*, from *turpis*, Latin.] Essential deformity of words, thought, or actions; inherent vileness; badness.

My

My turpitude

Thou thus dost crown with gold?

Shak.

—*Turpitude* or indecency. *South.*

TURPNI, a mountain of Silesia, in Tefche; 4 miles E. of Jablonskau.

(1.) * TURQUOISE. *n. f.* See TURKOIS. — It was my *turquoise*. *Shak.*

(2.) TURQUOISE is the tooth of an animal penetrated with the blue calx of copper: it loses its colour when heated; it is opaque, and of a lamellar texture, and susceptible of a fine polish; its specific gravity is from 2.5 to 2.908; some are of a deep blue, some are of a whitish blue, but become of a deeper when heated. This substance is found in Persia and Languedoc. The copper may be extracted from it by distilled vinegar. According to Reamur (*Mém. Par.* 1715.) nitrous acid will not dissolve that of Persia, though it will that of France.

TURRÆA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class of *decandria* and order of *monogynia*; ranking, in the natural method, under the 49th order, *Compositæ*.

(1.) TURREFF, a parish of Aberdeenshire, of an irregular figure, extending $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles in every direction around the town (N^o 2.), except on the NW. where it is bounded by the DEVERON. It contains 16,896 Scots acres, of which only one 3d is cultivated; the remainder being covered with heath. The soil is light and fertile, and of late much improved by lime. The population, in 1794, was 1041; the increase 44, since 1755. There are relics of a druidical temple, and several considerable plantations.

(2.) TURREFF, a burgh of barony, in the above parish, on the banks of the Deveron, with a market and 2 fairs. It contains 700 inhabitants.

(1.) * TURRET. *n. f.* [*turris*, Lat.] A small eminence raised above the rest of the building; a little tower. — Discourse, I prythee, on this *turret's* top. *Shak.* — Up to a *turret* high. *Fairfax.* — And lift her *turrets* nearer to the skies. *Pope.*

(2.) TURRET, LOCH, a lake of Perthshire, in the parish of Monivaird and Strowan, about a mile and a quarter broad. It runs into the Earn, by a rivulet which gives the name of Glenturret to a romantic valley.

* TURRETED. *adj.* [from *turret*.] Formed like a tower; rising like a tower. — Take a *turreted* lamp of tin. *Bac.*

(1.) TURRETIN, Francis, minister and professor of divinity at Geneva, his native place, was born in 1623. Having studied at Geneva, Leyden, Saumur, Montauban, and Nîmes, with great success, he was admitted into the ministry in 1648, and served at the same time the French and Italian churches at Geneva. Two years after, he was offered the professorship of philosophy, which he refused; but accepted the invitation of the church of Lyons. He was recalled to Geneva a year after, being wanted to give lectures in divinity; which he began in 1653. He was sent to Holland in 1661, to procure money for the city of Geneva. He had in that journey all the success he could wish; and gained such a character, that he was strongly importuned by the Walloon churches at the Hague and at Leyden to enter in-

to their service. On his return he resumed the functions of his place, and continued there till his death. He died in 1687, with the character of a man of great merit; eloquent, judicious, laborious, learned, and zealous for orthodoxy. His works were published by his son, in 3 and in 4 vols. 4to.

(2.) TURRETIN, John Alphonfus, son of the above, was born at Geneva, in 1671; and became the first professor of ecclesiastical history, in that republic. He wrote an Abridgment of Ecclesiastical History; Sermons, and other works. He died at Geneva, 1737.

TURRITIS, TOWER MUSTARD, or WALL CRESS, in botany: a genus of plants belonging to the class of *tetradynamia*, and to the order of *siliquosa*; and in the natural system ranging under the 39th order, *Siliquosæ*. The siliqua is very long and angulated; the calyx connivent and erect; the corolla is also erect. There are 3 species; 2 of which are natives of Great Britain; viz.

1. TURRITIS GLABRA, and,

2. TURRITIS HIRSUTA.

TURRUNG, a river of Asia, in Candahar, which runs into a lake, 18 miles S. of Candahar.

TURSI, a town of Naples, in Basilicata, seated on the Sino, 8 miles from the gulf of Tarento, and 50 SW. of Bari. Lon. 16. 60. E. Lat. 40. 36. N.

TURSOSKA, a town of Hungary, 16 miles N. of Bolefko.

TURTEREBES, a town of Hungary, 14 miles NNE. of Zatmar.

(1.) * TURTLE. TURTLEDOVE. *n. f.* [*turtle*, Saxon; *tortorella*, Fr. *tortorella*, Ital. *turtur*, Lat.] 1. A species of dove. — When *turtles* tread. *Shak.* — We'll teach him to know *turtles* from jays. *Shak.* — Take me an heifer and a *turtledove*. *Gen.* — The blood of *turtles*. *Wifeman.* 2. It is used among sailors and gluttons for a tortoise.

(2.) TURTLE, in ichthyology. See TESTUDO.

(3.) * TURTLE-DOVE. See § 1.

(4.) TURTLE-DOVE, in ornithology. See COLUMBA.

(5.) TURTLE ISLANDS, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, abounding with turtles.

(6.) TURTLE POINT, a cape on the coast of W. Florida, on the Gulf of Mexico. Lon. 89. 4. W. Lat. 29. 54. N.

(7.) TURTLE RIVERS, a river of the United States, in Georgia, which runs into the Atlantic, in Lon. 81. 40. E. Lat. 29. 54. N.

TURUCAIA, or } a town of European Tur-
TURUKEY, } key, in Bulgaria, the first town that was taken by Gen. Suworow. (See Suworow).

TURUCHAN, a river of Russia, which rises from a lake, in Lon. 101. 0. Lat. 69. 42.; and runs into the Enisei, a little S. of Turuchansk.

TURUCHANSK, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Enisei, formerly called *Mangas*; 1800 miles ENE. of Petersburg. Lon. 106. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 65. 40. N.

TURY, a river of Brazil, which runs into the Sea, 120 miles ESE. of Cayta.

TURZEK, a town of Lithuania, in Novogrodeckskoi, 24 miles E. of Novogrodeck.

Y y y 2

TUS,

TUS, a town of Persia. See **SARACENS**, § 15.

TUSA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Demona: 6 miles WNW. of Miltrretta.

(1.) **TUSCAN**, *adj.* Of or belonging to, or from **TUSCANY**.

(2.) **TUSCAN EARTH**, a yellowish kind of bole dug in many parts of Italy, particularly about Florence, where there is a stratum of it 8 or 10 feet thick, at the depth of 3 or 6 feet from the surface. It is supposed to have an astringent property.

(3.) **TUSCAN ORDER**, in architecture. See **ARCHITECTURE**, *Index*.

(4.) **TUSCAN SEA**, that part of the Mediterranean, which washes the coast of **ETRURIA**, or **TUSCANY**, in Italy.

TUSCANY, a ci-devant *duchy* afterwards the kingdom of Etruria. It makes part of the ancient Heturia; excepting some small detached parts, is encompassed by a part of the Mediterranean, called here the **TUSCAN SEA**; the ecclesiastical state; the dept. of Panaro, in the Italian kingdom, or ci-devant *duchy* of Modena, and the republic Lucca; its extent from N. to S. being about 116 English miles, and about 80 from E. to W. Though some parts of it are mountainous, yet both the hills and dales are covered with vines, olives, citron, lemon, and orange trees, &c. The mountains yield also copper, iron, alums, &c. and some quarries of the finest marble, and porphyry. Here are also plenty of corn, rice, saffron, honey, wax, wool, flax, hemp, with mineral waters, rich pasture, salt pits, sulphur, alabaster, chalcidony, lapis lazuli, borax, amethysts, cornelians, jaspers, quicksilver, crystals, and black slate. In some places the elms and ashes yield manna. The principal river is the **ARNO**. This country fell under the dominion of the Romans about 455 B. C. The Ostrogoths possessed themselves of it in the 5th century, and after them the Lombards, who were expelled by Charlemagne, A. D. 800; in consequence of which it became subject to the Grecian emperors, who appointed governors over it. At last the cities of Florence, Pisa, Sienna, and some others, during the contentions between the pope and the emperor, and their respective adherents, the Guelphs and the Gibbelines, erected themselves into separate commonwealths. In that of Florence, John de Medici, a popular nobleman, so insinuated himself into the favour of his countrymen, that they invested him with sovereign power. Pope Pius V. conferred the title of *grand duke* on Cosmo de Medici in 1570, in whose family the *duchy* continued until the death of Gaston de Medici in 1737. The *duchy* was then transferred to the duke of Lorraine, afterwards the emperor Francis I. in lieu of the *duchy* of Lorraine, which, by the peace of 1736, was given to king Stanislaus during his life, and then was to be annexed to France. Leopold II. son of Francis I. emperor of Germany, succeeded to this *duchy*. It was next enjoyed by Leopold's ad. son, the archduke Ferdinand, who was shamefully deprived of his sovereignty by the French, in a time of profound peace. The empty title of king, was conferred by Napoleon on the son of the duke of Parma, an infant of Spain, whose widow and son were deprived and imprisoned, in

1808. See **REVOLUTION**, VI. 51. The principal towns are Florence, Pisa, Leghorn, Sienna, Orbicello, Piombino, and Arezzo. It now forms a part of the new erected kingdom of Italy, which includes the whole peninsula, with the exception of Naples; Bonaparte is himself the king, and his son in law, Eugene Beauharnois, bears the title of viceroy.

TUSCARORAS, a nation of N. American Indians, in New York, associated with the **ONEIDAS**.

TUSCHAMA, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi, 28 miles NW. of Ilmsk.

TUSCHAMSKA, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi: 100 miles NW. of Ilmsk.

TUSCHGER SEA, a lake of Carinthia.

(1.) **TUSCULANUM**, a villa belonging to Cicero, near Tusculum, where he wrote his *Quæstiones Tusculanæ*. Formerly the villa of Sylla; now called *Grotta Ferrata*.

(2.) **TUSCULANUM**, a town of Gallia Transpadana, situated on the W. side of lake Benacus; now called *Toscolano*. Many monuments of antiquity are dug up near it.

TUSCULUM. See **FÆSCATI**.

TUSGEL, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Carmania: 42 miles NW. of Cogni.

* **TUSH**. *interj.* [Of this word I can find no credible etymology.] An expression of contempt. — *Tush*, say they, how should God perceive it. *Pj.* — *Tush*, *Tush*, my lord. *Camden*. — *Tush* never tell me. *Shak.*

TUSIO, a town of Italy, in the country of the Grisons; between Chiavenna and Coire, 15 miles S. of Coire, and 20 N. of Chiavenna.

TUSIS, a town and community of Switzerland, in the country of the Grisons, seated near the Nolla, at the beginning of the valley of Tomliasca, 16 miles S. by W. of Coire.

(1.) * **TUSK**. *n. f.* [*tyxas*, Saxon; *tosken*, old Frisick.] The long teeth of a pugnacious animal; the fang; the holding tooth. — Out-growing teeth, called fangs, or *tusks*. *Bacon*. — The boar depended upon his *tusks*. *L'Estr.* — Their adverse breaths with *tusks* oblique they wound. *Dryd.* — Whetting his *tusks*, and churning hideous foam. *Smith.*

(2.) **TUSK**, or **TORSK**, in ichthyology. See **GADUS**, N° 12.

TUSKAR, an island in St George's Channel, 5 miles from the SW. coast of Wexford county, Ireland. Lon. 6. 10. W. Lat. 52. 13. N.

* **TUSKED**. } *adj.* [from *tusk*.] Furnished with
* **TUSKY**. } *tusks*. — And seeks the *tusky* boar to rear. *Dryden*. — Of those beasts no one was horned and *tusked* too. *Grew*.

TUSPA, a town and river of Mexico, in Guasteca.

TUSSER, Thomas, author of a curious poetical work on Agriculture, born at Ravenhall, in Essex, and educated at Eton and Cambridge. He died in 1580.

TUSSILAGO, **COLT'S FOOT**, in botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class of *syngeneses*, and order of *polygamia superflua*; and in the natural system, ranging under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is naked; the pappus simple; the scales of the calyx equal, of the same height as the disk, and somewhat membranaceous. There are 12 species; 3 of which are indigenous in Britain, viz.

1. **TUSSILAGO**

1. **TUSSILAGO FARFARA**, or common colt's foot, grows plentifully on the banks of rivulets, or in moist and clayey soils, in England and Scotland.—The leaves are smoked in the manner of tobacco, or a syrup or decoction of them and the flowers stand recommended in coughs and other disorders of the breast and lungs.

2. **TUSSILAGO HYBRIDA**, the HYBRID or MULE TUSSILAGO.

3. **TUSSILAGO PETASITES**, or common butterbur, is frequent in wet meadows and by the sides of rivers. Its leaves are the largest of any plant in Great Britain, and in heavy rains afford a seasonable shelter to poultry and other small animals. The root dug up in the spring is refinous and aromatic. A drachm of it in a dose has been sometimes given as a sudorific and alexipharmic.

* **TUSSICK**. *n. f.* [diminutive of *tussz*.] A tuft of grass or twigs.—*Tussicks* or bunches of thorns. *Greav.*

* **TUT**. *interj.* [This seems to be the same with *tush*.] A particle noting contempt.—*Tut, tut!* grace me no grace. *Shak.*

TUTACORIN, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic, opposite Ceylon. It is 60 miles NE. of Cape Comorin. Lon. 76. 40. W. Lat. 8. 15. N.

* **TUTANAG**. *n. f.*—*Tutanage* is the Chinese name for spelter. *Woodward.*

TUTAPAN, a large town of New Mexico, on the W. coast of the N. Pacific Ocean.

TUTARY, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

TUTBURY, a town in Staffordshire, with a market on Tuesday. It had a large castle; and is 15 miles E. of Stafford, and 134 NE. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 53. 0. N.

* **TUTELAGE**. *n. f.* [*tutelle*, *tutelage*, Fr. *tutela*, Lat.] Guardianship; state of being under guardians.—The *tutelage* whereof, as those [past] worlds did please. *Drayton*.—The *tutelage* of a minor belonging to the king. *Drummond*.—The French king's right of seignory or *tutelage*. *Bacon*.

* **TUTELAR**. } *adj.* [*tutela*, Lat.] Having the
* **TUTELARY**. } charge or guardianship of
any person or thing; protecting; defensive; guardian.—*Tutelary* spirits. *Brown*.—The *tutelary* goddesses of health. *Temple*.—*Tutelary* genii. *Dryden*.—The *tutelary* fates. *Dryden*.—Ye *tutelary* gods who guard this royal fabric. *Rowe*.

TUTENAGO, an ore of zinc, containing commonly from 60 to 90 per cent. of zinc, the remainder iron, and a small proportion of clay. See MINERALOGY, Chap. VII. Ord. X. Gen. II. Var. I.

TUTLINGEN, a town of Wirtemberg.

(1.) * **TUTOR**. *n. f.* [*tutor*, Latin; *tuteur*, Fr.] One who has the care of another's learning and morals; a teacher or instructor.—The *tutor* and the feeder of my riots. *Shak.*—When nobles are the tailor's *tutors*. *Shak.*—Upon which he stopt his *tutor*, saying, this is enough if I learn it. *Gov. of the tongue*.—He sought a *tutor* of his own accord. *Dryd.*—No science is so speedily learned without a *tutor*. *Watts*.

(1.) **TUTOR**, in the civil law, is one chosen to look to the persons and estate of children, left by their fathers and mothers in their minority. The different kinds of *tutary* established among the Romans, and the powers and duties of tutors, are described in *Infl. Leg.* 1. T. XIII. sect. 1. and 2.

to which the reader is referred. See also the article **GUARDIAN**.

(3.) **TUTOR**, in Scots law. See **LAW**, Part III. Chap. I. Sect. VI.

(4.) **TUTOR** is also used in the English universities for a member of some college or hall, who takes on him the instructing of young students in the arts and faculties.

* **To TUTOR**. *v. a* [from the noun.] 1. To instruct; to teach; to document.—He hath been *tutor'd* in the rudiments. *Shak.*—Not being tried and *tutor'd* in the world. *Shakespeare*.—The cock is *tutored* by instinct. *Hale*. 2. To treat with superiority or severity.—Give sorrow leave a while to *tutor* me. *Shak.*—Little girls *tutoring* their babies. *Addison*.

* **TUTORAGE**. *n. f.* [from *tutor*.] The authority or solemnity of a tutor.—They would make them children by usurping a *tutorage*. *Gov. Tong.*

* **TUTORESS**. *n. f.* [from *tutor*.] Directress; instructress; governess.—Fidelia shall be your *tutorefs*. *Moore*.—His mother, *tut'refs* of thy virtue, dy'd. *Harte*.

TUTORY, *n. f.* the power or office of a tutor or guardian. See **LAW**, Part III. Chap. I. Sect. VI. § 25.

(1.) * **TUTSAN**, or *parkleaves*. *n. f.* [*andro-gamum*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) **TUTSAN**. See **HYPERICUM**, N° 1.

(1.) * **TUTTY**. *n. f.* [*tutia*, low Latin; *tutbie*, Fr.] A sublimate of zinc or calamine collected in the furnace.

(2.) **TUTTY**, an argillaceous ore of zinc, found in Persia, formed on cylindrical moulds into tubulous pieces, like the bark of a tree, and baked to a moderate hardness; generally of a brownish colour, and full of small protuberances on the outside, smooth and yellowish within, sometimes whitish, and sometimes with a bluish cast. Like other argillaceous bodies, it becomes harder in a strong fire; and after the zinc has been revived and dissipated by inflammable additions, or extracted by acids, the remaining earthy matter affords an aluminous salt, with sulphuric acids. Tutty is celebrated as an ophthalmic, and frequently employed as such in unguents and collyria. See **PHARMACY**, *Index*.

TUTUCORIN, or } the capital of the king-
TUTUKURIN, } dom of MADURA, on the E. coast of Malabar, famous for its pearl fishery, which employs about 60,000 people.

TUTURA, a town of Russia, in the gov. of Irkutskoi, situated on the Lena, 160 miles N. of Irkutsk. Lon. 105. 40. E. Lat. 54. 40. N.

TUTORANO, a town of Naples, in Otantro; 6 miles SSE. of Brindisi.

TUUE, a lake of Norway, in Christianland, 20 miles in compass.

TUXFORD, a town in Nottinghamshire, with a market on Monday; 13 miles NNW. of Newark, and 137 N. by W. of London. Lon. 0. 50. W. Lat. 53. 16. N.

TUY, a city of Spain, in Galicia; 254 miles W. of Madrid. Lon. 8. 12. W. Lat. 42. 4. N.

TUYERE, *n. f.* See **METALLURGY**, Part III. Sect. V.

TUYU, a country of S. America, in Patagonia.

* **TUZ**. *n. f.* [I know not whether it is not a word

word merely of cant.] A lock or tuft of hair.—And then thou kempst the *tuzzes* on thy cheek. *Dryden*.

TUZ-KURMA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Kurdistan.

TUZLA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Carmania, on a lake so named, 36 miles long.

TWAGER, a town of Sweden, in Halland, 28 miles NW. of Halmstad.

* **TWAIN**, *adj.* [*twegen*, *batewa*, both, twain, Saxon.] Two. An old word, not now used but ludicrously.—Can arbitrate this cause, betwixt us *twain*. *Shak*.—Like rats, oft bite the holy cords in *twain*. *Shak*.—Thou and I long since are *twain*. *Milt*.—When old winter split the rocks in *twain*. *Dryd*.—The trembling widow, and her daughters *twain*. *Dryden*.

(1.) * **TWANG**, *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A sharp quick sound.—They by the found and *twang* of nose. *Butler*.—Harmonic *twang* of leather, horn, and brass. *Pope*. 2. An affected modulation of the voice.—Seasoned with *twang* and tautology. *South*.—He has such a *twang* in his discourse. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) * **TWANG**, *interj.* A word making a quick action, accompanied with a sharp sound. Little used, and little deserving to be used.—

There's one, the best in all my quiver,
Twang! thro' his very heart and liver. *Prior*.

(1.) * **To TWANG**, *v. v.* To make to sound sharply. —A swaggering accent sharply *twang'd* off. *Shak*.

(2.) * **To TWANG**, *v. n.* [A word formed from the found.] To found with a quick sharp noise.—A thousand *twanging* instruments. *Shak*.—His bow *twang'd*. *Dryd*.—And every accent *twang'd* with smarting sorrow. *Dryden*.—The *twanging* bows. *Phil*.—Sounds the tough horn and *twangs* the quiv'ring string. *Pope*.

TWARSIMIRKA, a town of Silesia, in Oels, 6 miles NE. of Militsch.

* **TWANGLING**, *adj.* [from *twang*.] Contemptibly noisy.—She did call me raical, fidler, *twangling* jack. *Shak*.

* **To TWANK**, *v. n.* [Corrupted from *twang*.] To make to found.—*Twanking* of a brass kettle. *Addison*.

* **TWAS**, Contracted from *it was*.—Say 'twas I. *Dryden*.

* **To TWATTLE**, *v. n.* [*schwätzen*, German.] To prate; to gabble; to chatter.—*Twattling* gossip. *L'Estrange*.

* **TWAY**, For **TWAIN**.—That quite it clove his plumed crest in *tway*. *Spenser*.

(1.) * **TWAYBLADE**, *n. f.* [*Orphris*, Lat.] A polypetalous flower, consisting of six dissimilar leaves, of which the five upper ones are so disposed, as to represent in some measure an helmet, the under one being headed and shaped like a man. *Miller*.

(2.) **TWAY-BLADE**. See **OPHRYS**, N° 5.

* **To TWEAK**, *v. a.* [It is written *twæg* by Skinner, but *tweak* by other writers; *twacken*, German.] To pinch; to squeeze betwixt the fingers.—*Tweaks* me by the nose. *Shak*.—He *tweak'd* his nose. *Butler*.—Look in their face, they *tweak'd* your nose. *Swift*.

* **TWEAGUE**, *n. f.* [from the verb.] Per-

plexity; ludicrous distress. A low word.—This put the old fellow in a rare *tweague*. *Arbutnot*.

* **TWEAK**. See last article.

* **To TWEAK**. See **To TWEAG**.

TWEDA, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

TWEDS, a town of Norway, in Christiansand.

TWEED, a large river of Scotland, which rises in the parish of Tweedsmuir, near the point where the counties of PEEBLES, DUMFRIES, and LANARK meet, and near the sources of the CLYDE, NITH, and ANNAN. It runs nearly NE. receiving many rivulets, till it reaches Peebles, when running nearly E. its stream is augmented by those of the ETTERIC near SELKIRK, the GALA at GALASHIELS, the LEADER near MELROSE, and the TERNOT at KELSO. A few miles below which, it leaves Roxburghshire, and for many miles forms the boundary between England and Scotland, until it falls into the German ocean, by a wide mouth at Berwick upon Tweed. In this last part of its course, it receives the WHITTAKER about 5 miles above its mouth. It abounds with salmon and trouts of various kinds; and its banks being beautifully picturesque, it has been much celebrated in Scottish poetry.

TWEEDDALE, or PEEBLES, a county in the south of Scotland. See PEEBLES.

TWEEDEN, a rivulet of Roxburghshire, which runs into the LIDDAL near its æstuary on the Solway Frith.

* **To TWEEDLE**, *v. a.* [I know not whence deriv'd] To handle lightly. Used of awkward fiddling.—A fidler brought in with him a body of lusty young fellows, whom he had *tweeded* into the service. *Addison*.

TWEEDMOUTH, a village and small sea port town of Northumberland, at the mouth of the Tweed, on the S. side of the river.

TWEEDSMUIR, a parish of Scotland, in Peeblesshire, 9 miles long, and nearly as broad. The surface is hilly, interperfed with flats and marshes. The soil is chiefly allotted to pasturing sheep, of which about 15,000 are reared annually. There are several ancient castles. The population, in 1791, was 227, decrease 170, since 1755.

* **TWEEZERS**, *n. f.* [*ctuy*, French.] Nippers, or small pincers, to pluck off hairs.—And beans in snuff-boxes and *tweezer* cases. *Pope*.

(1.) * **TWELFTH**, *adj.* [*twelfta*, Saxon.] Second after the tenth; the ordinal of twelve. He found Elifha plowing with twelve yoke of oxen, and he with the *twelfth*. 1 Kings, xix. 9.—Supposing one *twelfth* were copper. *Locke*.

(2.) **TWELFTH**, in music. See **MUSIC**, Df. § 14.

(3.) **TWELFTH DAY**, the festival of the Epiphany, or the manifestation of Christ to the Gentiles; so called, as being the twelfth day, exclusive, from the nativity or Christmas day.

(4.) * **TWELFTH TIDE**, *n. f.* The twelfth day after Christmas.—Plough-monday, next after that *twelfth tide*. *Tusser*.

* **TWELVE**, *adj.* [*twelf*, Saxon.] Two and ten; twice six.—Thou hast beat me out *twelve* several times. *Shak*.—From *twelve* to twenty. *Shak*.—Out at your window betwixt *twelve* and one. *Shak*.—On his left hand *twelve* reverend owls did fly. *Dryden*.

* **TWELFMONTH**.

* **TWELVEMONTH.** *n. f.* [*twelve* and *month*.] A year, as consisting of twelve months.—I shall laugh at this a *twelvemonth* hence. *Shak.*—This ear or *twelvemonth*. *Hold.*—By this time *twelvemonth*. *Evelyn.*—In the space of about a *twelvemonth*. *Addis.*—Not twice a *twelvemonth* you appear in print. *Pope.*

* **TWELVEPENNY.** *n. f.* [*twelve* and *pence*.] A shilling.

* **TWELVEPENNY.** *adj.* [*twelve* and *penny*.] old for a shilling.—The *twelvepenny* gallery. *Dryden.*

* **TWELVESCORE.** *adj.* [*twelve* and *score*.] twelve times twenty; two hundred and forty.—*Twelvescore* viragos of the Spartan race. *Dryd.*

TWENTE, a district of Holland, in the adjacent state of Overysel, now in the department of the Yssel.

* **TWENTIETH.** *adj.* [*twentecogotha*, Saxon.] twelfth; ordinal of twenty.—This year the *twentieth*. *Ben Jonson.*—The *twentieth* by descent. *Dryd.*—This must be coined one *twentieth* lighter. *Locke.*

* **TWENTY.** *adj.* [*twentig*, Saxon.] 1. Twice en.—Once in twenty-four hours. *Fell.*—Nineteen in twenty. *Swift.* 2. A proverbial or indefinite number.—Maximilian, upon *twenty* respects could not have been the man. *Bacon.*

* **TWIBIL.** *n. f.* [*twy* for *two* and *bill*, *bipennis*, Latin.] A halbert. *Ainsworth.*

* **TWICE.** *adv.* [*twigith*, Sax. *twées*, Dutch.] 1. Two times.—That *twice* he reeled, ready *twice* to fall. *Spens.*—He *twice* essay'd to cast his son in gold. *Dryd.* 2. Doubly.—With *twice* the loss, and by as vile a cheat. *Dryd.* 3. It is often used in composition.—Life is tedious as a *twice*-told tale. *Shak.*—*Twice*-born Bacchus burst the thunderer's thigh. *Creech.*—Extol the strength of a *twice*-conquer'd race. *Dryden.*

TWICKENHAM, a village of Middlesex, on the Thames, near its junction with the Coln; and adorned with many handsome villas, of which two are particularly celebrated; viz. that of Mr POPE, and *Strawberry Hill*, the seat of HORACE WALPOLE, E. of Oxford. In the church Mr Pope and his parents lie interred, and there is an elegant monument erected to his memory by the late Bp. Warburton of Gloucester. Twickenham is 11 miles SW. of London.

* **To TWIDLE.** *v. a.* [This is commonly written *tweddle*.] To touch lightly. A low word.—With my fingers upon the flute, I pressed close upon it, and *twiddled* it in, first one side, then the other. *Wifeman.*

* **TWIG.** *n. f.* [*twig*, *twigga*, Sax. *twygy*, Dut.] A small shoot of a branch; a switch tough and long.—Boats made of willow *twigs*. *Raleigh.*—The bended *twigs* take root. *Milton.*—His huge aw with a *twig* of bulrush bore? *Sandys.*—Cut her *twigs* at evening. *More.*—Inclose the softer *twigs*. *Philips.*

* **TWIGGEN.** *adj.* [from *twig*.] Made of twigs; wicker.—I'll beat the knave into a *twiggen* bottle. *Shak.*—After the manner of *twiggen* work. *Grew.*

* **TWIGGY.** *adj.* [from *twig*.] Full of twigs.

TWIGHTWEES, a tribe of N. American Indians, who reside in the North-Western Territory,

upon the banks of the Great Miami. They consist of 200 warriors.

(1.) * **TWILIGHT.** *n. f.* [*twaelicht*, Dutch; *twenlicht*, Saxon.] 1. The dubious or faint light before sunrise, and after sunset; obscure light.—Her *twilights* were more clear than our mid-day. *Donne.*—Suspicious ever fly by *twilight*. *Bacon.* 2. Uncertain view.—The *twilight* of her memory. *Donne.*—And in the *twilight* of his phancy's theme. *Cleavel.*—To grateful *twilight*. *Milt.*—They just arriv'd by *twilight* at a town. *Dryden.*—Only the *twilight* of probability. *Locke.*

(2.) * **TWILIGHT.** *adj.* 1. Not clearly or brightly illuminated; obscure; deeply shaded.—To arched walks of *twilight* groves. *Milt.*—O'er the *twilight* groves, and dusky caves. *Pope.* 2. Seen or done by twilight.—Trip no more in *twilights* ranks. *Milton.*

(3.) **TWILIGHT** is that light, whether in the morning before sun-rise, or in the evening after sun-set, supposed to begin and end when the least stars that can be seen by the naked eye cease or begin to appear. See **ASTRONOMY**, *Index*.

(1.) * **TWIN.** *n. f.* [*twinn*, Saxon; *twelingen*, Dutch.] 1. Children born at a birth. It is therefore seldom used in the singular; though sometimes it is used for one of twins.—Here's the *twin* brother of thy letter. *Shak.*—Those *twins* of learning Ipswich and Oxford. *Shak.*—Whence proceedeth the great difference of the constitutions of *twins*. *Drummond.*—Two *twins* less even lie in Nature's scale. *Cowley.*—They came *twins* from the womb. *Ottaway.*—Fair Leda's *twins*. *Dryden.* 2. Gemini, the sign of the zodiac.—Then parts the *twins* and crab. *Creech.*—When now no more, th' alternate *twins* are fir'd. *Thomson.*

(2.) **TWINS** are two young ones delivered at a birth, by an animal which ordinarily brings forth but one.

* **To TWIN.** *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To be born at the same birth.—Though he had *twinn'd* with me both at a birth. *Shak.* 2. To bring two at once.—Ewes yearly by *twinning* rich masters do make. *Tupper.* 3. To be paired; to be suited.

The fiery orbs above and the *twinned* stones
Upon the humble beach? *Shak.*

* **TWINBORN.** *adj.* [*twin* and *born*.] Born at the same birth.—O hard condition, and *twinborn* with greatness! *Shak.*

* **TWINE.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A twisted thread.—In skilful knitting of soft silken *twine*. *Spens.*—Sustain'd but by a slender *twine* of thread. *Dryden.* 2. Twist; convolution.—Not Typhon huge ending in snaky *twine*. *Milton.*—Braid your locks with rosy *twine*. *Milton.* 3. Embrace; act of convolving itself round.—With am'rous *twine* clasps the tall elm. *Philips.*

(1.) * **To TWINE.** *v. a.* [*twinan*, Sax. *twynan*, Dutch.] 1. To twist or complicate so as to unite, or form one body or substance out of two or more.—Fine *twined* linen. *Exod.* 2. I know not whether this is from *twine* or *twinn*.—

By original lapse, true liberty
Is lost, which always with right reason dwells,
Twin'd, and from her hath no dividual being.

Milton.

3. To unite itself.—

Lumps

Lumps of sugar lose themselves, and *twine* their subtle essence with the soul of wine.

Craft.

(2.) * *To TWINE*. *v. n.* 1. To convolve itself; to wrap itself closely about.—Let wreaths of triumph now my temples *twine*. *Pope*. 2. To unite by interposition of parts.—Friends now fast sworn, who *twine* in love. *Shak*. 3. To wind; to make flexures.—As rivers, though they bend and *twine*. *Swift*.—The deer rustles thro' the *twining* brake. *Thomson*. 4. To turn round.—As she some web wrought, or her spindles *twine*. *Chapm*.

* *TWINGE*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Short sudden sharp pain.—This gives me a *twinge* for my own sin. *Dryd*. 2. A tweak; a pinch.—Blows and *twinges* by the ears? *L'Estrange*.

* *To TWINGE*. *v. a.* [*twingen*, German; *twinge*, Danish.] 1. To torment with sudden and short pain.—The gnat *twing'd* him till he made him tear himself. *L'Estr*. 2. To pinch; to tweak.—But *twinging* him by th' ears and nose. *Hudibras*.

* *TWINK*. *n. f.* [See *TWINKLE*.] The motion of an eye; a moment. Not in use.—That in a *twink* the won me to her love. *Shak*.

* *To TWINKLE*. *v. n.* [*twincian*, Sax.] 1. To sparkle; to flash irregularly; to shine with intermitted light; to shine faintly; to quiver.—

At first I did adore a *twinkling* star. *Shak*.

As plays the fun upon the glassy streams,

Twinkling another counterfeited beam. *Shak*.

—And tear the *twinkling* stars from trembling sky.

Fairf.—The light that *twinkles* in the stars. *Boyle*.

The star of love,

That *twinkles* you to fair Almeyda's bed. *Dryd*.

—Your benefices *twinkl'd* from afar. *Dryden*.

Twinkling with stars, they freeze me while they light. *Dryden*.—These stars do not *twinkle* when

viewed through telescopes which have large apertures. *Newton*. 2. To open and shut the eye by turns.—The owl fell a moping and *twinkling*.

L'Estrange. 3. To play irregularly.—His eyes will *twinkle*, and his tongue will roll. *Donne*.

* *TWINKLE*. } *n. f.* [from the verb.]

(1.) * *TWINKLING*. } 1. A sparkling intermitting light. 2. A motion of the eye.—Suddenly, with *twinkle* of her eye. *Spenser*.—I come, I come; the least *twinkle* had brought me to thee. *Dryden*. 3. A short space, such as is taken up by a motion of the eye.—It can pourvey in *twinkling* of an eye. *Spenser*.—They vanish in a *twinkling*. *Dryd*.—In the *twinkling* of an eye. *Dryden*.

(2.) *TWINKLING OF THE STARS*. See *OPTICS*, *Index*.

* *TWINLING*. *n. f.* [diminutive of *twain*.] A twin lamb; a lamb of two brought at a birth.—

Twinlings increase bring. *Tupper's Husb*.

* *TWINNER*. *n. f.* [from *twain*.] A breeder of twins.—The lambs of such *twinnings* for breeders go take. *Tupper*.

* *TWIRL*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Rotation; circular motion. 2. Twist; convolution.—The *twirls* turning from the right hand to the left. *Woodward*.

(1.) * *To TWIRL*. *v. a.* [from *whirl*.] To turn round; to move by a quick rotation.—The *twirling* and *twirling* about of spindles. *Bacon*.—Dexterous damfels *twirl* the sprinkling mop. *Gay*.—

Some taught with dextrous hand to *twirl* the wheel. *Dodley*.

(2.) * *To TWIRL*. *v. n.* To revolve with a quick motion.

TWISS, William, a presbyterian divine, born at Newbury, in Berks, and educated at New College, Oxford. He was a member of the Assembly of divines at Westminster, and was made rector of St Andrews, Holborn. He was a zealous Calvinist, and wrote, 1. *Vindicie Potestatis & Providentie Dei*; folio: 2. *Quatuor Dissertationes de Scientia Medica*; fol. *Riches of God's Love*, and other works in defence of *Predestination*, &c.

* *TWIST*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Any thing made by convolution, or winding two bodies together.—Within a *twist* of twining others laid. *Add*. 2. A single string of a cord.—Winding a thin string about the work hazards its breaking, by the fretting of the several *twists* against one another. *Mox*. 3. A cord; string.—Thy silk *twist*. *Herbert*.—About his chin the *twist* he ty'd *Dryd*. 4. Contortion; writhe.—Turn or *twist* in the fibres. *Add*. 5. The manner of twisting.—He found fault with the length, the thickness, and the *twist*. *Arbuth*.

(1.) * *To TWIST*. *v. a.* [*getwisan*, Sax. *twiſſen*, Dutch.] 1. To form by complication; to form by convolution.—The smallest thread—that ever spider *twisted* from her womb. *Shak*.—*Twisting* a rope of hay. *Taylor*.—And *twist* our thread with gold and silk. *Prior*.—For well you *twist* the secret chains that bind. *Lyttleton*. 2. To contort; to writhe.—*Twist* it into a serpentine form. *Pope*. 3. To wreath; to wind; to encircle by something round about.—Pillars of smoke *twisted* about with wreaths of flame. *Burnet*. 4. To form; to weave.—That thou began'st to *twist* to fine a story? *Shak*. 5. To unite by intertexture of parts.—*Twist*—bays with ivy. *Waller*. 6. To unite; to inſinuate.—When avarice *twists* itself with the doctrine of the church. *Decay of Piety*.

(2.) * *To TWIST*. *v. n.* To be contorted; to be convolved.—An ileus, commonly called the *twisting* of the guts. *Arbuthnot*.—

Deep in her breast he plung'd the shining sword;

Th' Iuachans view the slain with vast surprise,

Her *twisting* volumes, and her rolling eyes. *Pope*.

TWISTE, a river of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, running into the Erpe, near Volckmarſan.

* *TWISTER*. *n. f.* [from *twist*.] 1. One who twists; a ropemaker. 2. The instrument of twisting. To this word I have annexed some remarkable lines, which explain *twist* in all its senses.—

When a *twister* a twitting will twist him a twist,

For the twisting of his twist he three twines doth intwist;

But if one of the twines of the twist do untwist,

The twine that untwisteth untwisteth the twist.

Untwirling the twine that untwisteth between,

He twirls with his *twister* the two in a twine;

Then twice having twisted the twines of the twine,

He twitcheth the twine he had twined in twain,

The twain that in twining before in the twine,

As twins were intwilted, he now doth untwine.

'Twist

Twixt the twain intertwisting a twine more between,
He, twirling his *twissler*, makes a twist of the twine. *Wallis*.

* To *TWIT*. *v. a.* [*edwitan*, Saxon.] To sneer; to flout; to reproach.—That shepherds do *twiten* each other's life. *Spenser*.—She *twits* me with my falsehood to my friend. *Shak*.—*Twitting* them for what's amiss. *L'Estrange*.—This these scoffers *twitted* the Christians with. *Tillotson*.—Gallen was *twitted* in his own time. *Baker*.

* *TWITCH*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A quick pull; a sudden vindication.—But *Hudibras* gave him a *twitch*. *Milton*.—The lion gave one hearty *twitch*. *L'Estrange*. 2. A contraction of the fibres.—

Contract the fibres, and the *twitch* produce,
Which gently pushes on the grateful food.

Blackmore.

Must give their stomachs cruel *twitches*. *Prior*.
Convulsive *twitches*. *Sharp*.

* To *TWITCH*. *v. a.* [*twician*, Saxon.] To vellicate; to pluck with a quick motion; to snatch.—He rose, and *twitch'd* his mantle blue. *Milton*.—*Twitch'd* by the sleeve. *Dryden*.—And fear'd at ev'ry step a *twitching* spright behind. *Dryden*.—Thrice they *twitch'd* the diamond in her ear. *Pope*.

* *TWITCHGRASS*. *n. f.* *Twitchgrass* is a weed that keeps some land loose, hollow, and draws away the virtue of the ground. *Mortimer*.

TWITE. See *FRINGILLA*, N° 10.

* *TWITTER*. *n. f.* 1. Any motion or disorder of passion; such as a violent fit of laughing, or fit of fretting.—To put them into amorous *twitters*. *Hudibras*.—The moon was in a heavy *twitter*. *L'Estrange*. 2. An upbraider.

* To *TWITTER*. *v. n.* 1. To make a sharp tremulous intermitted noise.—Swallows *twitter* on the chimney-tops.—They *twitter* cheerful. *Thomf*. 2. To be suddenly moved with any inclination. A low word.—A widow which had a *twittering* toward a second husband. *L'Estrange*.

* *TWITLETWATTLE*, *n. f.* [A ludicrous reduplication of *twattle*.] Tattle; gabble. A vile word.—Insipid *twitletwattles*, and frothy jests. *L'Estrange*.

* *TWIXT*. A contraction of *betwixt*.—Twilight, short arbiter *'twixt* day and night. *Milton*.
TWIZEL CASTLE, a village of England, in Northumberland, near Grindon, S. of Norham, near the junction of the Till and the Tweed.

* *TWO*. *adj.* [*twai*, Gothick; *two*, Saxon.] 1. One and one.—Between two girls, which hath the merriest eye. *Shak*.—The two latter. *Bacon*.—Lodge us two and two together. *Bacon*.—By two and two across the common way. *Dryden*.—2. It is used in composition.—Was longest liv'd of any two-legg'd thing. *Dryden*.—A two-legged animal. *Locke*.—The two-thap'd *Erichonius*. *Adisson*.—A two-leaved book of record. *Ayliffe*.

* *TWOEDGED*. *adj.* [*two* and *edge*.] Having an edge on either side.—A *twoedg'd* weapon. *Pope*.

(1.) * *TWOFOLD*. *adj.* [*two* and *fold*.] Double; two of the same kind; or two different things co-existing.—A *twofold* desire. *Hooker*.—Her *twofold* team. *Fairy Queen*.—Doth now with *twofold* vigorous lift me up. *Shak*.—Our *twofold* seas wash

either side. *Dryden*.—Time and place have each of them a *twofold* acceptation. *Locke*.—Ewes,—Dropp'd their *twofold* burdens. *Prior*.—Holiness may be taken in a *twofold* sense. *Atterbury*.

(2.) * *TWOFOLD*. *adv.* Doubly.—*Twofold* more the child of hell. *Matt. xxiii. 15*.

* *TWOHANDED*. *adj.* [*two* and *hand*.] Large; bulky; enormous of magnitude.—With huge *twohanded* sway. *Milton*.—The large *twohanded* whore. *Dryden*.

(1.) * *TWOPENCE*. *n. f.* A small coin, valued at twice a penny.—You all shew like gilt *twopences* to me. *Shak*.

(2.) *TWOPENCE HERB*, a species of *LYSIMACHIA*.

TWOPENNY, *n. f.* Small beer.

TWY, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganshire.

TWYFORD, a town of England, in Hampshire, 2 miles from Winchester.

TWYNEHOLM, a parish of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightshire, united with that of *Kirkcrist*. The 2 are of an oblong form, 9 miles long and a broad, seated on the W. banks of the *Dee* and the *Tarff*, and surrounded by the sea on the S. and W. The surface is mostly hilly, yet arable, with many fertile valleys interspersed. The only remnant of the ancient woods is around the old castle of Campstone, belonging to the E. of Selkirk. The population, in 1793, was 620; increase 102, since 1755.

TWYNT, a town and fort of Algiers, on the Mediterranean, 30 miles NW. of Tremesen.

TYACUL, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore, 10 miles S. of Colar.

TYANA, a town of Cappadocia, at the foot of Mount Taurus.

TYANÆUS. See *APOLLONIUS*, N° 3.

TYANITIS, a province of Cappadocia.

TYBEE, an island of Georgia in the Savannah.

TYBER. See *TIBER*.

TYBUR. See *TIBUR*.

TYCOKZYN, a town of the late Poland, in Polachia, with a strong castle and a mint; seated on the *Narew*, 22 miles NW. of Biełsk; now annexed to Prussia. Lon. 23. 40. E. Lat. 53. 0. N.

TYCHIOS, an artist of Hyle in Boeotia, who made Hector's seven-fold shield. *Hom. Il. 7*.

TYDE, a town of HISPANIA TARRACONENSIS. *Sil. It. 3*.

TYDEUS, a celebrated hero, the son of *ORNEUS*, king of Calydon. Having killed a friend by accident, he fled to *ADRASTUS* K. of Argos, and married his daughter *DEITHYLE*, by whom he had the famous *DIOMEDES*. *Adrastus*, wishing to restore his son-in-law *POLYNICES* to the throne of Thebes, sent *Tydeus* against *Eteocles*, whom he challenged to single combat and defeated. He again went against Thebes in the war of the *EPIGONI*, and was mortally wounded by *Melanippus*; but would have been cured by *Minerva*, who came on purpose, had he not offended the goddess by using the body of *Menalippus* barbarously. *Hom. Il. 4*.

TYDORE, one of the *MOLUCCA* Islands, 9 miles from *TERNATÉ*.

(1.) * *TYE*. *n. f.* See *TIE*. A knot; a bond or obligation.—A most indissoluble *tye*. *Shak*.—I have no *tye* upon you to be true. *Dryden*.—Ho-

Z z z

nour's

nour's a second *tye*, the law of kings. *Addison*.—By the soft *tye* and sacred name of friend. *Pope*.

(2.) *TYE*, Christopher, Mus. D. a celebrated English musician, born in Westminster, in the reign of Henry VIII. He was admitted Dr in Music at Cambridge, in 1545. Dr Tye became instructor in that science to K. Edward VI. and organist of the Chapel Royal, under Q. Elizabeth. He composed a great number of *Anthems*.

* To *TYE*. *v. a.* To bind. See *TIE*.

(1.) * *TYGER*. *n. f.* See *TIGER*.

(2.) *TYGER*, in zoology. See *FELIS*, N° VI, XXI, XXII, and XXVII.

(3.) *TYGER-CAT*. See *FELIS*, N° I, II, and XXI.

(4.) *TYGER*, in geography, a river of S. Carolina, which runs into the Saluda, 5 miles NW. of Columbia, and by their united waters form the CANGAREE.

(5.) *TYGER-WOLF*. See *CANIS*, § I. N° vii. 2.

TYGERS POINT, a cape of Asia, on the SW. coast of Ava, at the mouth of the Persian Gulf. Lon. 94. 45. E. Lat. 15. 50. N.

(1.) * *TYKE*. *n. f.* [See *TYKE*.] Tyke in Scottish still denotes a dog, or one as contemptible and vile as a dog, and from thence perhaps comes *teague*.—Bale *tyke*, call'st thou me host? *Shak*.

(2.) *TYKE*, in zoology. See *CANIS*, § I, N° vi.

TYKOKZYN. See *TYCOKZYN*.

(1.) *TYLE*, or *TILE*, in building, a sort of thin laminated brick, used on the roofs of houses; or, more properly, a kind of fat clayey earth kneaded and moulded of a just thickness, dried and burnt in a kiln like brick, and used in the covering and paving of houses.

(2.) *TYLE*, in geography, a river of Northumberland, that runs into the Tweed, at

TYLEMOUTH, a village of Northumberland, on the S. bank of the Tweed, S. of Norham.

TYLEN, a town of England, in Yorkshire, N. of Doncaster.

TYLSEN, a town of Brandenburg, on the Dichme, 4 miles SSW. of Saltzwedel.

TYLOS, an ancient town of Peloponnesus, near Tænarus; now called *Bahrain*.

TYLWIN, a town of S. Wales, in Caermarthenshire, 5 miles W. of St. Clare.

* *TYMBAL*. *n. f.* [*tymbal*, French.] A kind of kettle drum.—A *tymbal's* sound were better than my voice. *Prior*.

TYMPAN, among printers, a double frame belonging to the press, covered with parchment, on which the blank sheets are laid in order to be printed of. See *PRINTING*, § 7.

TYMPANIA, an inland town of Elis.

(1.) * *TYMPANITES*. *n. f.* [*tympanites*.] That particular sort of dropsy that swells the belly up like a drum, and is often cured by tapping.

(2.) *TYMPANITES*. See *MEDICINE*, *Index*.

(1.) * *TYMPANUM*. *n. f.* A drum; a part of the ear, so called from its resemblance to a drum.—The three little bones in meatu auditorio, by firming the *tympanum*, are a great help to the hearing. *Wifeman*.

(2.) *TYMPANUM*, in mechanics, a kind of wheel placed round an axis or cylindrical beam, on the top of which are two levers or fixed flaves for the more easily turning the axis in order to

raise a weight required. The *tympanum* is much the same with the peritrochium; but that the cylinder of the axis of the peritrochium is much shorter and less than the cylinder of the *tympanum*.

(3.) *TYMPANUM*, in anatomy. See *ANATOMY*, *Index*.

(1.) * *TYMPANY*. *n. f.* [from *tympanum*, Lat.] A kind of obstructed flatulence that swells the body like a drum; the wind dropsy.—A tumour and *tympany*. *Hamm*.—As if the empire were a *tympany*. *Suckling*.—A lofty stile, swell to a *tympany*. *Roscommon*.—Pride is an unnatural *tympany*. *L'Estrange*.—Thine's a *tympany* of sense. *Dryden*.—The air is so rarified in this kind of dropical tumour, as makes it hard and tight like a drum, and from thence it is called a *tympany*. *Arbutn*.

(2.) *TYMPANY*. See *MEDICINE*, *Index*.

TYMPHÆI, an ancient people who dwelt between Epirus and Thessaly.

TYNAGH, a town of Ireland, in the county of Galway, and province of Connaught.

TYNAN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Armagh, and province of Ulster.

TYNDALE, William, a zealous English reformer, and memorable for having made the first English version of the BIBLE, was born on the borders of Wales before 1500. He was first of Magdalene-hall in Oxford. Afterwards he removed to Cambridge, and thence went to live with a gentleman in Gloucestershire as tutor to his children. There he showed himself so furious for Luther, that he was forced to leave the place. He then went to Germany, where he translated the New Testament and the Pentateuch. These being sent to England, made a great noise there; and the clergy procured a royal proclamation, prohibiting the buying or reading such translation or translations. But the clergy, not satisfied with this, sent one Philips to insinuate himself into his company, and under the pretext of friendship betray him into custody. He was sent to the castle of Filford, about 18 miles from Antwerp; and though the English merchants at Antwerp did what they could to procure his release, and letters were also sent from Lord Cromwell and others out of England, yet Philips bestirred himself so heartily, that he was tried and condemned to die. He was first strangled by the hangman, and then burned near Filford castle, in 1536. While he was tying to the stake, he cried with a fervent and loud voice, "Lord, open the king of England's eyes."

TYNDARIDÆ, an ancient people of Colchis.

TYNDARIS, a town of Colchis, on the Phasis.

TYNDARUS, king of Sparta, the husband of LEDA, and father of CASTOR and CLYTEMNESTRA. See these articles; and HELENA, N° 1.

TYNDRUM, a village of Perthshire in Braidalbin, on the W. military road, 12 m. from Dalnally, and 21 from Killin, chiefly inhabited by miners.

(1.) *TYNE*, a large river of England, in Northumberland, formed by the junction of two rivers called N. and S. Tyne, the one rising on the borders of Cumberland near Glaston muir, or rather in the hills of Roxburgh, in the S. and the other from the Cheviot hills in the N. These rivers meet and join their waters above Hexham, and form

in a large navigable river, which runs into the German ocean at **TYNEMOUTH**.

(2.) **TYNE**, a rapid river of E. Lothian, which rises in the hills, in the S. of that county, runs E. through the town of Haddington, where it sometimes overflows its banks, and after a course of 30 miles falls into the Frith of Forth a little W. of Dunbar. On Oct. 4th, 1755, it rose 17 feet above its level and overflowed great part of Haddington.

TYNEMOUTH. See **TINEMOUTH**.

TYNG, a river of England, in Devonshire.

TYNNINGHAME, a parish of Scotland in E. Lothian, united, in 1761, to that of **WHITEKIRK**. See **WHITEKIRK**.

(1.) **TYNRON**, a parish of Scotland, in Dumfriesshire, in the S. corner of the county, 15 miles long, and 4 broad, in a valley. The soil is surface is only fit for feeding sheep, of which there are 8000 reared. It is watered by the *Scarr* and the *Shinnel*. The population, in 1793, was 55; the increase 36 since 1755.

(2.) **TYNRON**, **DUN OR**, a beautiful pyramidal hill in the above parish, with an ancient castle on its top, which commands a very extensive prospect.

* **TYNY**. *adj.* Small.—He that has a little *tyny* *Shak.*

(2.) **TYOGA**, a county of New York, bounded the N. by that of Onondago; E. by Otsego, by Pennsylvania, and W. by Ontario. It consists of 5 townships, and 7500 citizens. **UNION** and **EMUNG** are the chief towns.

(2.) **TYOGA**, a navigable river of New York in Pennsylvania, which rises in Savage Mountain, Lycoming county, and falls into the **SUSQUEHANNA**, 13 miles below Lockhartsburg. It is navigable by batteaux above 50 miles.

TYONE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, and province of Munster.

(1.) * **TYPE**. *n. f.* [*type*, Fr. *typus*, Lat. *typus*.] Emblem; mark of something.—Short bolster'd heels, and those *types* of travel. *Shak.*—*Type* sweet rule, and gentle majesty. *Prior*. 2. That which something future is prefigured.—Inform them by *types*. *Milton*.—In *type* and shadow. *Johnson*. 3. A stamp; a mark. Not in use.—My father bears the *type* of king of Naples. *Shak.*

Unto the dignity and height of fortune,
The high imperial *type* of this earth's glory.

Shak.

Which, though in their mean *types* small matter appears. *Drayton*. 4. A printing letter.

(1.) **TYPE**, (*typus*) in theology, an impression, or representation of some model, which is called the *antitype*. In this sense the word occurs often in the writings of divines, who employ it to denote that prefiguration of the great events of man's redemption, which they consider the principal transactions recorded in the Old Testament to have been.

(1.) **TYPE**, in medicine, is used to denote the observed in the intention and remission of the pulse, &c.

To **TYPE**. *v. n.* To prefigure.—Things *typed* prefigured. *White*.

TYPHA, CAT'S TAIL, or REED MACE, in

botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *monocia*, and order of *triandria*; and in the natural system ranging under the 3d order, *Calamaria*. The amentum of the male flower is cylindrical; the calyx is tripetalous, but scarcely distinguishable; there is no corolla. The female has a cylindrical amentum below the male; the calyx is composed of villous hair; there is no corolla, and only one seed fixed in the capillary papus. There are two species, both natives of Britain, viz.

1. **TYPHA ANGUSTIFOLIA**, narrow leaved cat's tail, is found in pools and ditches. The leaves are semi-cylindrical, and the male and female spike are remote and slender.

2. **TYPHA LATIFOLIA**, great cat's tail, or reed mace, is frequent in ponds and lakes. The stalk is six feet high; the leaves a yard long, hardly an inch wide, convex on one side; the amentum, or cylindrical club, which terminates the stalk, is about six inches long, of a dark brown or fuscous colour. Cattle will sometimes eat the leaves, but Schreber thinks them noxious: the roots have sometimes been eaten in salads, and the down of the amentum used to stuff cushions and mattresses. Linnæus says, that the leaves are used by the coopers in Sweden to bind the hoops of their casks.

TYPHÆUS, in the Grecian mythology, a monstrous giant, the son of Tartarus and Terra; who had 100 heads like those of a dragon; flames of fire came from his mouth, and he uttered the most infernal yells. As soon as he was born, he began to avenge the deaths of his brethren, the giants, upon the gods, which so frightened all the deities, that they all fled and hid themselves under the forms of various animals. But of all the deities, **MINERVA** alone stood undaunted; she trusted in her arms, and still more in her wisdom, for sufficient defence against all the fiery darts of **Typhæus**. At last she whispered Jupiter to use his thunder. Jupiter assumed the form of a ram, Apollo that of a crow, Mercury became an ibis, Bacchus a goat, Juno a cow, Venus a fish, Diana a cat, &c. At last Jupiter resumed his courage, and seizing his thunder-bolts, struck the monster down, and crushed him under Mount **Ætna**, where he still breathes out fire and flames. **Typhæus** before this had married **ECHIDNA** and became the father of the three-headed dog **CERBERUS**, the three-bodied monarch **GERYON**, **ORTHOS**, and other monsters. *Ovid. Met. v. Hyg. Fab.*

(1.) **TYPHON**. See **WHIRLWIND**.

(2.) **TYPHON**, the devil of the ancient Egyptians. See **DELUGE**, § 5; **MYSTERIES**, § 21; and **MYTHOLOGY**, § 29, and **POLYTHEISM**.

* **TYPICAL**. **TYPICK**, *adj.* [*typique*, Fr. *typicus*, Lat.] Emblematical; figurative of something else.—The Levitical priesthood was only *typical* of the Christian. *Atterbury*.—And in the *typical* glory shew. *Prior*.

* **TYPICALLY**. *adv.* from *typical*.] In a typical manner.—Typically represented and mysteriously exemplified. *Norris*.

* **TYPICALNESS**. *n. f.* [from *typical*.] The state of being typical.

* **TYPICK**, See **TYPICAL**.

Z z z z

* To

* To **TYPIFY**. *v. a.* [from *type*.] To figure; to shew in emblem.—*Typified* in baptism. *Hamm.*
Our Saviour was *typified* by the goat. *Brown.*

* **TYPOGRAPHER**. *n. f.* [*τυπος* and *γραφω*.]
A printer.

* **TYPOGRAPHICAL**. *adj.* [from *typography*.]
1. Emblematical; figurative. 2. Belonging to the printer's art.

* **TYPOGRAPHICALLY**. *adv.* [from *typographical*.] 1. Emblematically; figuratively. 2. After the manner of printers.

* **TYPOGRAPHY**. *n. f.* [*typographie*, French; *typographia*, Latin.] 1. Emblematical, figurative, or hieroglyphical representation.—Containing rather *typography* than verity. *Brown.* 2. The art of printing.

(1.) **TYRA**, or **TYRAS**, a river of European Sarmatia, which runs into the Euxine Sea, between the Danube and the Borysthenes; now called **DNIESTER**. *Ovid.*

(2.) **TYRA**, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Kelm, a mile W. of Kelbra, in Schwartzberg.

* **TYRANNESS**. *n. f.* [from *tyrant*.]—They were by law of that proud *tyranness*. *Spenser*.—The *tyranness* doth joy to see. *Spenser*.

* **TYRANNICAL**. **TYRANNICK**. *adj.* [*tyrannus*, Lat. *tyrannique*, French; *tyrannicus*, Gr.] Suiting a tyrant; acting like a tyrant; cruel; despotic; imperious.—*Tyrannick* power. *Shak.*—A power *tyrannical*. *Shak.*—Domitian had been *tyrannical*. *Bacon.*—Proud *tyrannick* pow'r. *Milton.*—*Tyrannical* and intolerable. *Taylor.*—Of a fresh wound from the *tyrannick* dart. *Denham.*—Our sects a more *tyrannick* power assume. *Roscommon.*—Th' oppressor rul'd *tyrannick* where he durst. *Pope.*

* **TYRANNICALLY**. *adv.* [from *tyrannical*.]
In manner of a tyrant.

* **TYRANNICIDE**. *n. f.* [*tyrannus* and *cedo*, Lat.] The act of killing a tyrant.

* **TYRANNICK**. See **TYRANNICAL**.

TYRANNION, a celebrated grammarian in Pompey's time, was a native of Amisus in Pontus. He was the scholar of Dionysius of Thrace at Rhodes. He fell into the hands of Lucullus, when that general defeated MITHRIDATES VII. and seized his dominions. This captivity of Tyrannion was no disadvantage to him, as it procured him an opportunity of being illustrious at Rome, and raising a fortune. He spent it, among other things, in making a library of above 30,000 volumes. He died very old, being worn out with the gout. His care in collecting books contributed very much to the preservation of Aristotle's works.

* To **TYRANNISE**. *v. n.* [*tyraniser*, Fr. from *tyrant*.] To play the tyrant; to act with rigour and imperiousness.—Fear will not be able to *tyrannise* over us. *Hooker.*—Then 'gan Carausius *tyrannise* anew. *Spenser.*—On him, that thus doth *tyrannise* o'er me. *Shak.*—With him, or under him to *tyrannise*. *Milt.*—Or kill'd and *tyrannis'd* without a guard. *Waller.*—He *tyrannises* over his own mind. *Locke.*

* **TYRANNOUS**. *adj.* [from *tyrant*.] Tyrannical; despotic; arbitrary; severe; cruel; imperious. Not in use.—*Tyrannous* ambition. *Sidney.*

—The unjust and *tyrannous* rule of Harold. *Spens.*
—And, like the *tyrannous* breathing of the north. *Shak.*—Fear you his *tyrannous* passion. *Shak.*—Subjection to his empire *tyrannous*. *Milton.*—This *tyrannous* and ambitious king. *Temple.*

* **TYRANNY**. *n. f.* [*tyrannis*, Latin; *τυραννίς*, Gr.] 1. Absolute monarchy imperiously administered.—Sole reigning holds the *tyranny* of heav'n. *Milton.*—The cities fell, often under *tyrannies*. *Temple.* 2. Unrefracted and cruel power.—

Boundless intemperance

In nature is a *tyranny*. *Shak.*
3. Cruel government; rigorous command.—Great *tyranny*, lay thou thy basis sure. *Shak.*—Suspensions dispose kings to *tyranny*. *Bacon.*—*Tyranny* must be. *Milton.* 4. Severity; rigour; inclemency.—The *tyranny* o' the open night's too rough. *Shak.*

(1.) * **TYRANT**. *n. f.* [*tyrannus*, Lat.] Rowland contends that this word, with the correspondent Greek and Latin, is derived from *tir*, Welsh and Erse, land, and *rhaner*, Welsh, to share; *q. d.* *tirhanner*, a sharer, or divider of land among his vassals. 1. An absolute monarch governing imperiously. 2. A cruel despotic and severe master; an oppressor.—Love to a resisting heart is a *tyrant*. *Sidney.*—For the whole space that's in the tyrant's grasp. *Shak.*

How fine this *tyrant*

Can tickle where she wounds! *Shak.*
—The house of woe, and dungeon of our *tyrant*. *Milton.*—Those scourges and plagues of the world, *tyrants*. *South.*—Thou mean'st to kill a *tyrant*, not a king. *Dryden.*—When *tyrant* custom had not shackl'd man. *Thomson.*

(2.) **TYRANT**, among the ancients, denoted simply a king or monarch; but the ill use which many invested with that character made of it, has altered the import of the word; and tyrant now carries with it the idea of an unjust or cruel prince, who invades the people's liberty, and rules in a more despotic manner than the laws of nature or of the country allow.

TYRAS. See **TYRA**, N° 1.

TYRAWLEY, a burgh of barony of Ireland, in the county of Mayo and prov. of Connaught.

TYRCONNEL, the ancient name of **DONEGAL**, in Ulster.

(1.) **TYRE**, a celebrated ancient city of Asia, on the coast of Syria. It was built, according to some writers, 2760 years before the Christian era. There were two cities of that name; the one called **PALÆTYRUS**, situated on the continent; and the other the city of **Tyre**, built on an island about half a mile from the shore. It was about 19 miles in circumference, including **Palætyrus**; the town on the island was about 4 miles round. The buildings of Tyre were very magnificent; the walls were 150 feet high, and broad in proportion. This city was at one period the most famous commercial city in the world. It resisted Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon for 13 years; at the end of which, wearied with endless efforts, the inhabitants resolved to place the sea between them and their enemy, and passed accordingly into the island. The new city stood out against Alexander the Great for 7 months; and before he could take it, he was obliged to fill up the strait

strait which separated the island from the continent. (See MACEDON, § 11.) It was repaired afterwards by ADRIAN, and became the metropolis of the province. It afterwards fell into the hands of the Arabs; and after being taken by BALDWIN II. king of Jerusalem, it was destroyed by the sultan of Egypt in 1289, and abandoned, never more to rise from its ruins. An excellent account of its situation and modern state may be found in *Foley's Travels*, vol. ii. It now consists of a small village, composed of wretched huts, containing about 50 or 60 poor families. Its harbour is now almost choked up. It is called SOUR or TSOUR by the Orientals. See SUR, N° 3.

(1.) * TYRE. *n. f.* [properly *tyrē*.] See TIRE.—The *tyre* of her head. *Hakewill*.

TYREFIO, a seaport town of Sweden in Sudermania, 9 miles SE. of Stockholm.

TYRESIOD, a river of Norway. See NORWAY, § 15.

TYRI, a lake of Norway, in Aggerhuys; 15 miles NW. of Christiania.

(1.) TYRIAN, *adj.* [from *Tyre*.] Of, or belonging to, or invented in Tyre.

(2.) TYRIAN DYE. See MUREX, N° 1. and PURPURA.

TYRIANS, *n. f. plur.* the people of TYRE.

(1.) TYRIE, a parish of Aberdeenshire, 10 miles long and $4\frac{1}{2}$ broad. The surface is agreeably diversified. The soil, when not near moor, is generally a fertile red loam, pretty deep in the valleys, but shallow on the hills. The late Sir William Forbes of *Pitligo*, Bart. has erected a village called *New Pitligo*, with a bleachfield and other conveniences for manufactures. He also built and endowed two chapels in the village, one a chapel of ease, for the established church; the other a chapel of the Scotch Episcopal communion, with commodious houses for the minister of each. The population, in 1791, was 864, the increase 268, since 1755.

(3.) TYRIS, or TIR-Y, one of the HEBRIDES. See TIR-Y.

TYRNAW, a large and well fortified town of Upper Hungary, in the palatinate of Trientsehin; 30 miles NE. of Presburg. Lon. 17. 39. E. Lat. 48. 13. N.

(1.) * TYRO. *n. f.* [properly *tyro*, as in the Latin.] One not yet master of his art; one in his rudiments.—Where *tyros* take their freedom out to kill. *Garth*.

(2.) TYRO, in fabulous history, a daughter of SALMONEUS king of Elis; who, being harshly treated by her step-mother Sidero, was removed by her uncle Cretheus, to the banks of the Enipeus; where NEPTUNE, assuming the form of that river-god had a sons by her, the celebrated PELIAS and NELSUS, who being exposed were preserved by shepherds, and avenged their mothers injuries on Sidero. She afterwards married her uncle Cretheus, by whom she had *Æson*, *Amphybaon*, and *PEREUS*. *Hom. Od.* 11. 234.

TYROL. See TIROL.

TYROLESE. See TIROLESE.

TYRONE, a county of Ireland, in the province of Ulster, 46 miles long and 37 broad; bounded on the N. by Londonderry, on the E.

by Armagh and Lough-Neagh, on the S. by Fermanagh, and on the W. by Donnegal. It is a rough and rugged country, but tolerably fruitful; contains 12,683 houses, 30 parishes, 4 baronies, 4 boroughs, and sends 2 members to the imperial parliament. Dungannon is the capital.

TYROS, an island of Arabia.

TYRREL, a county of N. Carolina, in Edenton district; bounded on the N. by the Roanoke; E. by Hyde county, S. by Beaufort county, and W. by Martin and Pitt counties. In 1795, it contained 2995 citizens, and 1038 slaves. ELIZABETHTOWN is the capital.

TYRREL'S BAY, a bay on the S. coast of the island of St Vincent, 2 miles E. of Kingstown.

TYRRHENI, the ancient inhabitants of ETRURIA.

TYRRHENIAN SEA, } that part of the Medi-
TYRRHENUM MARE, } terranean which washes the coast of Etruria.

TYRTÆUS, an Athenian general and musician. He was called to the assistance of the Lacedæmonians in the ad war with the Messenians, about 685 B. C.; and a memorable victory which they obtained over that people is attributed to the animating sound of a new military flute or clarion, invented and played upon by Tyrtæus. Fragments of his poetry, in elegiac verse, are preserved in Stobæus, Lycurgus Orat. in Fulvius Ursinus, and in the Oxford edition of *Eleg. et Lyric. Frag. et Scholia*, 1759. *Æa Sufopmiva*, &c.

TYRWITT, Thomas, a learned writer, born in 1730, and educated at Eton and Queen's College, Oxford. In 1755, he was elected a fellow of Merton, which he afterwards resigned. In 1761, he became Clerk of the House of Commons. He published an edition of *Aristotle's Poetics*, and also of *Chaucer*. He also wrote *Notes on Shakespeare*, &c. He died in 1786.

TYSILO, a Welsh poet, historian, and divine, who flourished in the end of the 6th, and beginning of the 7th century. He wrote a *Chronicle of Britain*; from which GEOFFREY of Monmouth compiled his fabulous *History of Britain*.

TYSON, Edward, M. D. and F. R. S. a learned physician, born at Bristol, in 1650, and educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, where he studied physic, and graduated. He settled in London, and became F. R. S. He wrote many useful papers in the Society's *Transactions*. He was appointed physician to Bethlehem and Bridewell. He published *Phocæna*, or the *Anatomy of a Porpoise*; 4to. *Ephemeridis Vita*, or the *Natural History and Anatomy of the Ephemeris*; *Quarag Outang*, or the *Anatomy of a Pigmy, compared with that of a monkey, an ape, and a man*; 4to. He died suddenly, in 1708.

TYSTED, a town of Denmark, in N. Jutland, on a river that runs into the Gulf of Lymford; 40 miles W. of Aalborg. Lon. 8. 45. E. Lat. 57. 5. N.

(1.) TYTLER, William, Esq. an able writer, was born at Edinburgh, in 1711. He was the son of Mr Alexander Tytler, a writer. He was educated at the High School and the university of Edinburgh. In 1747, he was admitted into the Society of Writers to the Signet; and he honourably exercised

exercised this profession till his death in 1792. He was the author of an *Historical Inquiry into the evidence against Q. Mary, and Dissertation on her Marriage with the Earl of Bothwell*; in which works he vindicated her character. He collected the *Poetical remains of James I. King of Scotland*, and wrote *A Dissertation of Scottish Music; Observations on the Vision, a poem*; and a treatise on the *Fashionable Amusements in Edinburgh during the last century*.

(2.) **TYTLER**, Alexander Fraser, son of the former. This elegant and accomplished scholar died suddenly at Edinburgh on the 5th of January 1813, too recently to allow us to collect materials even for a sketch of his life. He formerly held the important situation of deputy judge advocate for Scotland, and professor of universal history in the University of Edinburgh. He published a *Treatise on Military Law*, which is held in high estimation, in one vol. 8vo, and *Elements of General History*, in 2 vols. 8vo, which has run through several editions. He published also a very valuable *Essay on Translation*, in 1 vol. 8vo; and, very recently, *An Historical and Critical Essay on the Life and Character of Petrarch*, 8vo. He was appointed a senator of the College of Justice in 1802, and, according to the custom of the Scottish judges, assumed the title of Lord Woodhouselee. He was made a commissioner of judicature in 1811. He was a respectable and upright judge, and particularly distinguished as a polite scholar and an elegant writer.

TYVY, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganshire, which rises 5 miles N. of Tregannon, waters Tregannon and Llanbeder, and falls into Cardigan Bay, 3 miles below Cardigan.

TZACUA, in ornithology, a peculiar species of birds in Mexico. See MEXICO, N° I. § 13.

TZADURILLA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, on the banks of the Sangar, in Aclu, 63 miles SE. of Nice. Lon. 32. 8. E. Lat. 39. 0. N.

TZAGANUSKOI, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi, on the borders of China; 48 miles NNW. of Selenginsk.

TZAR. See CZAR.

TZAREVAGOR, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoi, on the Tobol, 28 miles SE. of Okuneri. Lon. 82. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 55. 20. N.

TZAREVOKOKCHAIK, a town of Russia, in Kazanskoi, 68 miles WNW. of Kazan. Lon. 65. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 50. N.

TZAREVOSANGURSK, a town of Russia, in Viatskaskoi, 100 miles SW. of Viatka. Lon. 65. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 8. N.

TZARITZIN, a town of Russia, in Saratovskoi, on the Volga; 180 miles S. of Saratov, and 378 E. of Ekaterinosslav. Lon. 62. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 43. 35. N.

TZEKINSKOI, a fort of Russia, in Irkutskoi, on the borders of China, 100 miles WSW. of Selenginsk.

TZERNA, a river of European Turkey, in Romania, which runs into the Mariza, near Tzer-nitz.

TZERNITZ, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, near a river so named, 32 miles NNE. of Adrianople.

TZETZES, John, grammarian, was born at Constantinople, in the 12th century. He wrote *Commentaries upon Lycophron's Cassandra*, and a work entitled, *Cbiliades*. His works were printed at Oxford, by Potter, in 1697, folio.

TZIVILSK, a town of Russia, in Kazanskoi, 56 miles W. of Kazan. Lon. 65. 10. E. Ferro. Lat. 55. 40. N.

TZNA, a river of Russia, which rises 20 miles S. of Tambov, and runs into the Moksha, 20 miles NW. of Temnikov, in Tambovskoi.

TZURUCHATU, STAROI, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoi, on the Argunia, on the borders of China; 160 miles SE. of Nertchinsk. Lon. 137. 18. E. Ferro. Lat. 49. 18. N.

U V

(1.) * **V** Has two powers, expressed in modern English by two characters, *V* consonant and *U* vowel, which ought to be considered as two letters; but as they were long confounded while the two uses were annexed to one form, the old custom still continues to be followed. *U*, the vowel, has two sounds; one clear, expressed at other times by *eu*, as obtuse; the other close, and approaching to the Italian *u*, or English *oo*, as obtund. *V*, the consonant, has a sound nearly approaching to those of *b* and *f*. With *b* it is by the Spaniards and Gascons always confounded, and in the Runic alphabet is expressed by the same character with *f*, distinguished only by a diacritical point. Its sound in English is uniform. It is never mute.

(2.) *U*, *u*, *V* or *v*, is used, 1. as a letter; 2. as a numeral; and, 3. as an abbreviation. I. As a LETTER, it is the 20th of our alphabet; and the 5th vowel. It is formed in the voice by a round

U V

configuration of the lips, and a greater extrusion of the under one than in forming the letter *o*, and the tongue is also more canulated. The sound is short in *crust, must, tun, tub*; but is lengthened by a final *e*, as in *tune, tube*, &c. In some words it is rather acute than long; as in *brave, flute, lute*, &c. It is mostly long in polysyllables, as in *union, curious*, &c. but in some words it is obscure, as in *nature, venture*, &c. This letter in the form of *V* or *v*, is properly a consonant, and as such is placed before all the vowels; as in *vocal, venal, vibrate*, &c. Though the letters *v* and *u* had always two sounds, they had only the form *v* till the beginning of the 4th century, when the other form was introduced, the inconvenience of expressing two different sounds by the same letter having been observed long before. II. As a NUMERAL *V* stands for five; and with a dash added at top, thus *Ↄ*, it signifies 5000. III. As an ABBREVIATION, among the Romans, *V. A.* stood for

or *veterani assignati*; V. B. *viro bono*; V. B. A. *viri boni arbitrati*; V. B. F. *vir bone fidei*; V. C. *vir consularis*; V. C. C. F. *vale, conjux charissime, elicitur*; V. D. D. *voto dedicatur*; V. G. *verbi gratia*; Vir. V. *virgo vestalis*; VL. *videlicet*; V. V. *quinto nonarum*.

(1.) VAAGEN, EAST, an island in the North Sea, on the coast of Norway. Lon. 30. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 68. 40. N.

(2.) VAAGEN, WEST, an island in the North Sea, on the coast of Norway. Lon. 29. 55. E. Ferro. Lat. 68. 30. N.

VAAS, a town of France, in the dep. of the arde, 21 miles S. of Man.

VAAST, St, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel, 5 miles from Harfleur.

VABRES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aveyron, and late prov. of Rouergue; 50 miles SE. of Rodez. Lon. 2. 55. E. Lat. 43. 57. N.

* VACANCY. *n. f.* [from *vacant*.] 1. Empty place; vacancy.—That thus you bend your eye *n. vacancy*. *Shak.* 2. Chasm; space unfilled.—*wide vacancy*. *Watts.* 3. [*Vacance*, Fr.] State of a post or employment when it is unsupplied.—The disposal of the revenues of some churches during the *vacancies*. *Lefley*.—The *vacancy* of a bishop. *Ayliffe.* 4. [*Vacances*, French.] Time of idleness; relaxation; intermission; time unengaged.—Those little *vacancies* from toil are sweet. *Dryd.*—*Vacancies* from necessary labour. *Watts.* 5. Idleness; emptiness of thought.—All dispositions to idleness or *vacancy* are dangerous. *Wot.*

* VACANT. *adj.* [*vacant*. Fr.; *vacans*, Lat.] 1. Empty; unfilled; void.—No *vacant* room to receive it. *Boyle*.—A better race to bring into their *vacant* room. *Milton.* 2. Free; unencumbered; uncrowded.—Those that are at leisure, and *vacant* from the affairs of the world. *More*.—*vacant* from uneasiness. *Locke.* 3. Not filled by an incumbent, or possessor.—Left the fiend invade *vacant* possession. *Milt.*—When the throne is *vacant*. *Swift.* 4. Being at leisure; disengaged.—*vacant* times as they lie not in camp. *Spens.*—He was *vacant* for that service. *Clar.*—There as not a minute of the day which he left *vacant*. *Ell.*—The memory relieves the mind in her *vacant* moments. *Addis.* 5. Thoughtless; empty of thought; not busy.—Who with a body fill'd, and mind. *Shak.*—The duke had a pleasant and *vacant* face. *Wotton.*

VACARICA, a town of Portugal, in Beira, 18 miles SE. of New Braganza, and 15 N. of Coimbra.

* To VACATE. *v. a.* [*vacare*, Latin.] 1. To annihilate; to make void; to make of no authority.—That after-act *vacating* the authority of the president. *K. Charles.* 2. To make vacant; to quit possession of: as, he *vacated* the throne. 3. To feast; to put an end to.—He *vacates* my revenge. *Dryden.*

* VACATION. *n. f.* [*vacation*, French; *vacatio*, Latin.] 1. Intermission of juridical proceedings, or any other stated employments; recess of courts or senates.—*Vacation* is all that time which lies between term and term, at London. *Cowel.*—There is for them to be occupied in the *vacation*. *Bacon.* 2. Leisure; freedom from trouble or

perplexity.—Benefit of peace, quiet, and *vacation* for piety. *Hammond.*

(1.) VACCA, an island in the Mediterranean, near the S. coast of Sardinia, 3 miles S. of St Antonio.

(2.) VACCA, an ancient city of Numidia.

* VACCARY. *n. f.* [*vacca*, Lat.] A cowhouse; a cow-pasture. *Bailey.*

VACCINÆ. See VARIOLÆ.

To VACCINATE. *v. a.* To inoculate with the cow-pox.

VACCINATION. *n. f.* Inoculation with the cow-pox. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

(1.) VACCINE, [from *vacca*, Latin, a cow.] *adj.* Of or belonging to a cow, or to the cow-pox.

(2.) VACCINE INOCULATION. See JENNERIAN. Much has been recently attempted, apparently by ignorant, interested, and prejudiced men, in order to excite the doubts in the public mind on the subject of this invention. The most eminent of the medical profession throughout the world support it, and the body of evidence, printed by the authority of parliament, seems perfectly conclusive.

VACCINIUM, the WHORTLE-BERRY, or *Bilberry*, in botany, a genus of plants of the class of *obandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and arranged in the natural system under the 18th order, *Bicornes*. The calyx is superior; the corolla monopetalous; the filaments inserted into the receptacle; the berry quadrilocular and polyspermous. There are 15 species; the most remarkable of which are,

1. VACCINIUM MYRTILLUS, *black whortle*, or *whortle berries*, or *bilberries*, growing in woods and on heaths abundantly. The flowers frequently vary, with 5 segments at the rim, and with 10 stamens. The berries when ripe are of a bluish black colour; and a variety has been found with white berries. They have an astringent quality. They dye a violet colour; but it requires to be fixed with alum.

2. VACCINIUM OXYCOCCUS, *CRAN BERRY*, *moor-berry*, or *moor-berry*, frequent on peat bogs in the Lowlands, but not so common in the Highlands of Scotland. The stalks are long, slender, woody, weak, and trailing: the leaves are stiff, acutely oval, glaucous underneath, their edges turned back, and grow alternate; 2 or 3 flowers grow singly on long red footstalks out of the extremity of the branches; the flowers are red, divided deeply into 4 acute segments, which are reflexed quite backwards; the filaments are downy; the anthers ferruginous and longer than the filaments: the berries red, and about the size of the hawthorn berries. At Longtown, on the borders of Cumberland, they are made so considerable an article of commerce, that, at the season when they are ripe, not less than 20l. or 30l.'s worth are sold by the poor people each market day for five or six weeks together, which are afterwards dispersed over different parts of the kingdom for making the well known cranberry tarts.

3. VACCINIUM VITIS IDÆA, *red whortle berries*, frequent in dry places, in heaths, woods, and on mountains. The berries have an acid cooling quality, useful to quench the thirst in fevers.

4. VACCINIUM

4. **VACCINIUM ULIGINOSUM**, the great bilberry bush, is found in low moist grounds, and almost at the summits of the Highland mountains. The leaves are full of veins, smooth and glaucous, especially on the under side; the berries are eatable, but not so much esteemed as the preceding.

VACH, one of the **LIPARI** Islands.

VACHA, a town of Hesse, on the Werra.

VACHIER, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Loire; 9 miles S. of Puyen Velay.

* **VACILLANCY**, *n. f.* [*vacillans*, from *vacillo*, Lat. *vacillant*, Fr.] A state of wavering; fluctuation; inconstancy. Not much in use.—*Vacillancy* in human souls, and mutations in corporeal matter. *More*.

* **VACILLATION**, *n. f.* [*vacillatio*, from *vacillo*, Lat. *vacillation*, French.] The act or state of reeling or staggering.—The muscles keep the body upright, by readily assisting against every *vacillation*. *Derham*.

* **VACUATION**, *n. f.* [*vacuus*, Lat.] The act of emptying. *Diß*.

* **VACUIST**, *a. f.* [from *vacuum*.] A philosopher that holds a *vacuum*: opposed to a *plenist*.—Spaces, which the *vacuists* would have to be empty. *Boyle*.

* **VACUITY**, *n. f.* [*vacuitas*, from *vacuus*, Lat. *vacuité*, Fr.] 1. Emptiness; state of being unfilled.—Hunger is a state of *vacuity*. *Arbuthnot*. 2. Space unfilled; space unoccupied.—In filling up *vacuities*. *Hammond*—A vast *vacuity*. *Milt*.—*Vacuity* is interspersed in matter. *Bentley*.—Fill every *vacuity* of our soul. *Rogers*.—Redeeming still at night these *vacuities* of the day. *Fell*. 3. Inanity; want of reality.—*Vacuity* and emptiness. *Glanville*.

VACUNTÆ, an ancient people of Mauritania. See **MAURITANIANS**.

* **VACUOUS**, *adj.* [*vacuus*, Lat. *vacuë*, Fr.] Empty; unfilled.—Nor *vacuous* the space. *Milt*.

VACUP, a town of Bosnia, 32 miles SW. of Serajo.

(1.) * **VACUUM**, *n. f.* [Latin.] Space unoccupied by matter.—Enquiries about *vacuum*, or space and atoms. *Watts*.

(2.) **VACUUM**, in philosophy, denotes a space empty or devoid of all matter or body.—It has been a matter of much dispute among philosophers, whether there be in nature a perfect vacuum, or space void of all matter; but if bodies consist of material solid atoms, it is evident that there must be *vacuities*, or motion would be impossible. (See **METAPHYSICS**, *Sc&E*. XII.) We can even produce something very near a vacuum in the receiver of an air pump and in the Torricellian tube. (See **PNEUMATICS**, *Index*.) and it is doubtful whether the particles of the densest bodies known be in perfect contact. See **OPTICS**, *Index*.

(3.) **VACUUM BOYLEANUM**, is the approach to a real vacuum, to which we can arrive by means of the air-pump.

(4.) **VACUUM TORRICELLIAN**, is the most complete vacuum which we can make by means of the torricellian tube. See **BAROMETER**, and **PNEUMATICS**.

VADA, a sea port of Etruria, at the mouth of the Cecina; 16 miles SE. of Leghorn.

VADAGARY, a town of Hindoostan, in Madura, 15 miles W. of Coilpetta.

VADAMIA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the Arabian Irac, on the Euphrates, 105 miles WNW. of Bassora.

* **TO VADE**, *v. n.* [*vado*, Latin.] To vanish; to pass away. *Spenser*. A word useful in poetry, but not received.—And at whose touch the hills in smok shall *vade*. *Wotton*.

VADÉ MACUM, the title given to such books as men of particular professions, having frequent occasion to consult, may easily carry about with them.

VADIALCORA, a town of Arabia, in Hedjaz, 56 miles N. of Medina.

VADIFATIMA, a town of Arabia, in Hedjaz, 60 miles NW. of Mecca.

VADIN, a town of European Turkey, in Bel-sarabia, 32 miles W. of Nicopoli.

VADIUM, a pledge in law, is either *vivum* or *mortuum*.

(1.) **VADIUM MORTUUM**, or DEAD PLEDGE. See **MORTGAGE**.

(2.) **VADIUM VIVUM**, or LIVING PLEDGE, is when a man borrows a sum (suppose 200*l.*) of another; and grants him an estate, as of 20*l.* per annum, to hold till the rents and profits shall repay the sum so borrowed. This is an estate conditioned to be void as soon as such sum is raised. And in this case the land or pledge is said to be living; it subsists, and survives the debt; and, immediately on the discharge of that, results back to the borrower.

VADO, a town of Genoa, 3 miles S. of Savona.

VADACONDES, a town of Spain, in old Castile, 15 miles WSW. of Ofina.

VADOSAETTA, a town of Naples, in Capitanata, 6 miles SE. of Troja.

VADSTEIN, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 31 miles W. of Nordkiöping. Lon. 15. 55. E. Lat. 58. 12. N.

VADUTZ, a town of Suabia, in Lichtenstein, 26 miles S. of Lindau.

VAELUE, a river of Ceylon.

VAENA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, at the source of the Castro; 23 miles SE. of Cordora. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 58. 12. N.

VAGA, a river of Russia, which rises near Povolokoe, and runs into the Dwina, at Vagkoi, in Archangel.

(1.) * **VAGABOND**, *adj.* [*vagabundus*, low Latin; *vagabond*, Fr.] 1. Wandering without any settled habitation; wanting a home.—*Vagabond* exile. *Shak*.—A *vagabond* debtor. *Ayliff*. 2. Wandering; vagrant.—Like to a *vagabond* bug upon the stream. *Shak*.—Blown *vagabond* or frustrate. *Milton*.

(2.) * **VAGABOND**, *n. f.* [from the adjective.] 1. A vagrant; a wanderer: commonly in a sense of reproach.—Wanderers and *vagabonds*. *Ral*.—A *vagabond* in Afric. *Addis*. 2. One that wanders illegally, without a settled habitation.—*Vagabond* is a person without a home. *Watts*.

VAGAI, a river of Russia, which runs into the Irtisch, 8 miles S. of Tobolsk.

* **VAGARY**, *n. f.* [from *vagus*, Lat.] A wild freak;

freak; a capricious frolick.—Flew off, and into strange vagaries fell. *Milt.*—Would he engage in some frolic, or take a vagary. *Locke.*

(1.) VAGINA, *n. f.* in anatomy, a canal reaching from the external orifice, or *os pudendi*, of women, to the uterus.

(2.) VAGINA, properly signifies a sheath or scabbard, and is used in architecture for the part of a terminus, because resembling a sheath, out of which the statue seems to issue.

(1.) VAGINAL, *adj.* Of or belonging to the Vagina.

(2.) VAGINAL COAT. See TUNICA, N° 2.

* VAGINOPENNOUS. *adj.* [*vagina* and *pena*, Latin.] Sheath-winged; having the wings covered with hard cases.

VAGNEY, a town of France, in the dep. of Vosges, 4 miles E. of Remiremont, and 12 S. of Broeyers.

VAGO, a town of Italy, near St Martins.

VAGOS, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the coast of the Atlantic, 6 miles S. of New Braganza.

* VAGOUS. *adj.* [*vagus*, Lat. *vague*, French.] Wandering; unsettled. Not in use.—A *vagous* lust. *Ayliffe.*

VAGRAM, a town of Bavaria, in Saltzburg; 6 miles S. of Saltzburg.

* VAGRANCY. *n. f.* [from *vagrant*] A state of wandering; unsettled condition.

(1.) * VAGRANT. *adj.* Wandering; unsettled; vagabond; unfixed in place.—*Vagrant* and fictitious stories. *More.*—That brauteous Emma *vagrant* courtes took. *Prior.*—Lip's *vagrant* grace, and soft delight. *Prior.*

(2.) * VAGRANT. *n. f.* [*vagant*, Fr.] A sturdy beggar; wanderer; vagabond; man unsettled in habitation. In an ill sense.—*Vagrants* and outlaws. *Prior.*—Nor to collect the *vagrants* find a way. *Blackm.*—To make sturdy *vagrants* relieve themselves. *F. Atterb.*—Ye *vagrants* of the sky. *Pope.*

VAGSKOI UST, a town of Russia, in the province of Archangel, seated at the junction of the Vaga and Dwina; 20 miles NNW. of Schenskurfk.

* VAGUE. *adj.* [*vague*, Fr. *vagus*, Latin.] 1. Wandering; vagrant; vagabond.—*Vague* villains, good neither to live peaceably, nor to fight. *Hayward.* 2. Unfixed; unsettled; undetermined; indefinite.—*Vague* ideas. *Locke.*

VAGUS. See WAAG.

VAHARA, a town of Arabia Deserta, 150 miles S. of Jamama.

VAHLIA, in botany, a genus of plants; in the class of *Pentandria*, and order of *Dignia*.

VAIGAR, an island of Russia, in the Frozen Ocean, on the N. side of the Straits of Vagarskoi; 24 miles long and 4 broad.

VAIGE, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine, 12 miles E. of Laval.

* VAIL. *n. f.* [*vaile*, Fr. This word is now frequently written *veil*, from *velum*, Latin; and the verb *veil*, from the verb *velo*; but the old orthography commonly derived it, I believe rightly, from the French.] 1. A curtain; a cover thrown over any thing to be concealed.—A dark *vail* of forgetfulness. *Wisd.* 2. A part of female dress, by which the face and part of the shape is con-

cealed. 3. Money given to servants. It is commonly used in the plural. See VALE.

(1.) * To VAIL. *v. a.* To recover. See VEIL.

(2.) * To VAIL. *v. a.* [*avaler le bonet*, French. *Addison* writes it *vail*, ignorantly.] 1. To let fall; to suffer to descend.—They refused to *vail* their bonnets. *Carew.*—The virgin 'gan her beavoiir *vail*. *Fairf.* 2. To let fall in token of respect.—They would not *vail* their top-tails. *Knolles.*—And *vail* your tops to me, the sovereign of you all. *Drayton.*—*Vailing* the bonnet in salutations. *Addison.* 3. To fall; to let sink in fear, or for any other interest.—

That furious Scot,

'Gan *vail* his stomach, and did grace the shams
Of those that turn'd their backs. *Shak.*

(3.) * To VAIL. *v. n.* To yield; to give place; to shew respect by yielding. In this sense, the modern writers have ignorantly written *veil*.—Thy convenience must *veil* to thy neighbour's necessity. *South.*

VAIATA, a town of Italy, in the dep. of Olona, late Milanese; 13 miles E. of Milan.

VAILLAC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lot; 12 miles NW. of Marillac, and 15 N. of Cahors.

VAILLANT, John Foy, a physician and great medalist, was born at Beauvais in 1632. Through the minister Colbert he travelled into Italy, Greece, Egypt, and Persia, to collect medals for the royal cabinet; and returned with so many as made the king's cabinet superior to any in Europe. Once, when in danger of being taken by an Algerine pirate, he hid some valuable coins in his stomach! From this curious cabinet he did not recover them without much difficulty. When Lewis XIV. gave a new form to the academy of inscriptions in 1701, Mr Vaillant was first made associate, and then pensionary. He wrote several works relating to ancient coins, and died in 1706.

(1.) VAILLY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aisne, 8 miles E. of Soissons, and 9 NW. of Fismes.

(2.) VAILLY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cher; 9 miles E. of Aubigny, and 9 W. of Sancerre.

* VAIN. *adj.* [*vain*, Fr. *vanus*, Lat.] 1. Fruitless; ineffectual.—For counsel is but *vain*. *Shak.*—*Vain* is the force of man. *Dryden.* 2. Empty; unreal; shadowy.—And *vain* chimera, vomits empty flame. *Dryden.*—And shedding *vain*, but seeming real tears. *Dryden.* 3. Meanly proud; proud of petty things; with of before the cause of vanity.—A *vain* man still boasting of himself. *I. Strange.*—He wad a torch aloft, and madly *vain*. *Dryd.*—*Vain* of their art. *Dryd.*—*Vain* men delight in telling what honours have been done them. *South.*—The *vain* design. *Pope.*—Unpleasing truths here mortify the *vain*. *Savage.*—Ye *vain*! desist from your erroneous strife. *Young.* 4. Shewy; ostentatious.—Load some *vain* church with old theatrick state. *Pope.* 5. Idle; worthless; unimportant.—Both all things *vain*, and all who in *vain* things. *Milton.*—That all the actions of our life were *vain*. *Denham.*—To your *vain* answer will you have recourse. *Blackm.* 7. False; not true. 7. In VAIN. To no purpose; to no end; ineffectually; without effect.—He tempts in

A a a a

v a n.

vain. Milt.—Providence and nature never did any thing in *vain*. *L'Estrange*.—Strong Halys stand in *vain*. *Dryden*.—The philosophers did in *vain* enquire. *Locke*.—We act and think in *vain*. *Addis.*—I have not written nor lived in *vain*. *West.*

* **VAINGLORIOUS.** *adj.* [*vanus* and *gloriosus*, Lat.] Boasting without performances; proud in disproportion to desert.—*Vain glorious* man. *Spens.*—Strength to glory aspires.—*Vain glorious. Milt.*—This his arrogant and *vain-glorious* expression witnebeth. *Hale.*

* **VAINGLORY.** *n. f.* [*vana gloria*, Latin.] Pride above merit; empty pride; pride in little things.—He had nothing of *vain-glory*. *Bacon*.—Expose every blast of *vain glory* to spiritual discipline. *Taylor*.—Natural aversion to *vain glory*. *Addison*.—A monarch's sword, when mad *vain-glory* draws. *Pope*.

* **VAINLY.** *adv.* [from *vain*] 1. Without effect; to no purpose; in *vain*.—Our cannons malice *vainly* shall be spent. *Shak.*—In weak complaints you *vainly* waste your breath. *Dryd.* 2. Proudly; arrogantly.—*Vainly* or vauntingly. *DeLany.* 3. Idly; foolishly.—Nor *vainly* hope to be invulnerable. *Milton*.—*Vainly* credulous. *Grew*.

* **VAINESS.** *n. f.* [from *vain*.] The state of being *vain*. Pride; falsehood; emptiness.—

—Lying, *vainness*, babbling. *Shak.*

(1.) **VAIR**, or **VAIRE**, a kind of fur, formerly used for lining the garments of great men and knights of renown. It is represented in engraving by the figures of little bells reversed, ranged in a line. See **HERALDRY**, Chap. II. *Señ. II.*

(2.) * **VAIR**, or **VAIRY.** *adj.* [in heraldry.] Variegated with coverings of gold, red, or other colours.

VAIRAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot; 4 m. NE. of Martel, and 9 NW. of St Cere.

VAIRE, a river of France, which runs into the Var; 3 miles NW. of Glandèves.

VAISER, a mountain of France, between Guilaumes and Perne, where a miraculous stone fell. See **SHOWER**, § 4.

VAISON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, and ci-devant county of Venaissin, seated on the Oueze; 22 miles NNE. of Avignon; and 23 SE. of Montelimar.

VAIVASWATA. See **POLYTHEISM**.

(1.) * **VAIVODE.** *n. f.* [*vaiwod*, a governor, Slavonian.] A prince of the Dacian provinces.

(2.) **VAIVODE.** See **WAIWODE**.

VAKUNAICA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Kirenga, in Lon. 126° E. Ferro. Lat. 56. 16. N.

(1.) **VAL**, a town of France, in the department of the Var, 3 miles N. of Brignolles.

(2.) **VAL**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, late Savoy; 20 miles E. of Montier.

(3.) **VAL DI DEMONA**, **NOTO**, &c. See **DEMONA**, &c.

VALADARES, a town of Portugal, in Entre-Douro-e-Minho, 4½ miles SW. of Melgaffo.

VALAGODE, a town of Ceylon; 60 miles S. of Candy.

VALAIS, or **VALLAIS**, a valley in Switzerland, which extends from the source of the river Rhone

to the lake of Geneva. It is near 100 miles in length, but the breadth is very unequal. It is bounded on the N. by the Alps, which separate it from the cantons of Bern and Uri, on the E. by the mountains of Forche, on the S. by the dep. of the OLONA, in the Italian kingdom, ci-devant duchy of Milan and the Val d'Aoste, and on the W. by the dep. of MONT BLANC, late duchy of Savoy and the republic of Geneva. The inhabitants profess the Roman Catholic religion, and are subject to the swelling of the throat called *bronchocele*; and idiots are said to abound among them, more than in any other place of the globe. They are naturally hardy, enterprising, and good-natured. It is surrounded on all sides by very high mountains, most of which are covered with snow and ice that never thaw. However, the soil is fertile in corn, wine, and good fruit. The muscat-wine, which is produced here, is excellent, and well known all over Europe. There are mineral waters, plenty of game and some mines. STON is the capital. The mountains afford good pasture for their cattle in summer, and their harvest continues from May to October; it being sooner or later according to the situation of the place. This country is now annexed to the French empire.

* **VALANCE.** *n. f.* [from *Valencia*, whence the use of them came. *Skinner*.] The fringes or drapery hanging round the tester and head of a bed.—*Valance* of Venice, gold in needlework. *Shak.*—Thrust in the *valance* of the bed. *Swift*.

* **To VALANCE.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To decorate with drapery. Not in use.—Old friend, thy face is *valanced*. *Shak.*

VALENTIA, in botany, **CROSS-WORT**; a genus of plants in the order *monocia*, of the class *polygamia*, and in the natural system arranged under the 41st order, the *asperifolia*. There is scarcely any calyx; the corolla is monopetalous, flat, four-parted, the stamina 4, with small anthers; the hermaphrodite flowers have a pistillum with a large germen, a bifid style, the length of the calyx, and one seed; the pistilla of the male flowers are hardly discernible. There are 8 species, one of which, viz.

VALENTIA CRUCIATA is a native of Britain; the stalks are square, the whole plant hairy, the leaves oval and verticillate, 4 in a whirl; the flowers are yellow, and grow on short peduncles out of the axils of the leaves. The root, like those of the galiums, to which it is related, will dye red. It is astringent, and was once used as a vulnerary.

VALBASE, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 15 miles WSW. of Burgos.

VALCA, a river of Italy, in Patrimonio.

VALCALDA, a town of Genoa, 10 miles N. of Genoa.

(1.) **VALCKENBURG**, or **FAUQUEMONT**, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Ourte, and late province of Limburg, 8 miles E. of Maestricht. Lon. 5. 53. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

(2.) **VALCKENBURG**, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Delft, 3 miles NW. of Leyden.

VALCKOWAR, a town of Slavonia; at the junction of the Danube and Walpo; 70 miles NW. of Belgrade. Lon. 19. 52. E. Lat. 45. 35. N.

VALDAGNO.

VALDAGNO, a town of Austria, in Vicentino; 17 miles W. of Vicenza.

(1.) **VALDAI**, or **VALDAIA**, a town of Russia, in Novogorodskoe, on the side of a hill; 72 miles SE. of Novogorod. Lon. 51. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 50. N.

(2.) **VALDAI HILLS**, hills of Russia, in Novogorodskoe, the highest in the province.

(3.) **VALDAI LAKE**, a lake of Russia, in Novogorodskoe, 20 miles in compass.

VALDAJA. See **VALDAI**, No 1.

VALDARCETE, a town of Spain, in New Castile.

VALDASNES, a town of Portugal, in Tral-os-montes; 9 miles ESE. of Mirandela.

VALDEBURON, a town of Spain, in Leon; 34 miles NNE. of Leon.

VALDECONA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 15 miles S. of Tortosa.

VALDEMANZANAS, a town of Spain, in Leon; 8 miles SW. of Astorga.

VALDEMORO, two towns of Spain, in New Castile; 18, 13 miles S. of Madrid; 2d, 18 NE. of Cuenza.

VALDEPENAS, two towns of Spain: 1st, in Jaen, 8 miles W. of Jaen; 2d, in New Castile, 22 miles SE. Ciudad Real.

VALDERAS, a town of Spain, in Leon; 23 miles S. of Leon.

VALDERIES, a town of France, in the dep. of Tarn; 6 miles NE. of Alby.

VALDIGEM, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the Duero; 3 miles NE. of Lamego.

(1.) **VALDIVIA**. See **BALDIVIA**.

(2.) **VALDIVIA**, a river of Peru, in Chili, running into the S. Pacific Ocean, at Valdivia.

VALDROME, a town of France, in the dep. of the Drome; 6 miles SSE. of Die.

* **VALE**. *n. f.* [*val*, Fr. *vallia*, Latin.] 1. A low ground; a valley; a place between two hills. *Vale* is a poetical word.—Who knows not *Ida vale*? *Spenser*.—Met in the *vale* of Arde. *Shak*.—Anchises, in a flow'ry *vale*. *Dryden*.—In those fair *vales* by nature form'd to please. *Harte*. 2. [From *avail*, profit; or *vale*, farewell. If from *avail*, it must be written *vail*, as *Dryden* writes. If from *vale*, which I think is right, it must be *vale*.] Money given to servants.—To what their sordid, begging *vails* amount. *Dryden*.—His revenue, besides *vales*. *Swift*.

VALEDIA, a sea-port town of Fez, on the Atlantic, with a very capacious natural harbour; 27 miles SSW. of Mazagan.

* **VALEDICTION**. *n. f.* [*valedico*, Latin.] A farewell.—A *valediction* forbidding to weep. *Donne*.

* **VALEDICTORY**. *adj.* [from *valedico*, Lat.] Bidding farewell.

VALEGGIO, a town of Italy, in the dep. of the Mincio, district and late duchy of Verona; 14 miles SW. of Verona.

(1.) **VALENCE**, an ancient, considerable, and populous city of France, in the dep. of the Drome, and ci-devant province of Dauphiné, on the left bank of the Rhone, and surrounded by walls, with a fort, and a grand cathedral. It is 30 miles N. by E. of Viviers, and 335 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 52. E. Lat. 44. 56. N.

(2.) **VALENCE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, on the Garonne, 12 miles SE. of Agen, and 22 E. of Nérac. Lon. 18. 33. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 6. N.

(3.) **VALENCE EN ALBIGEOIS**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Tarn, 12 miles NE. of Alby, and 21 SSW. of Rodez.

VALENCEY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Indre, and ci-devant province of Berri, with a castle, on the Nabon: 15 m. S. of Romorantin.

(1.) **VALENCIA**, a province of Spain, which has the title of a kingdom; and is bounded on the E. and S. by the Mediterranean sea, on the N. by Catalonia and Aragon, and on the W. by New Castile and Murcia. It is about 165 miles long, and 63 broad.

(2.) **VALENCIA**, a city of Spain, and capital of the kingdom of the same name. It contains about 12,000 houses, besides those of the suburbs and the summer houses round it. It has an university, and an archbishop's see; and was taken from the Moors by the Christians in the 13th century. The town is handsome, but not very strong. The inhabitants manufacture wool and silk. It is seated on the Guadalaviar, over which there are five handsome bridges; and it is about 3 miles from the sea, where there is a harbour, 110 miles N. of Murcia, and 165 E. by S. of Madrid. This city surrendered to the earl of Peterborough in 1705; but it was lost again in 1707. (See **ENGLAND**, § 12.) Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 39. 23. N.

(3.) **VALENCIA**, a town of Portugal, in Entre-Duero-e-Minho, on the S. bank of the Minho, opposite Tuy in Spain; founded by Viriatus. It has 2 churches and 900 inhabitants, and lies 16 miles W. of Oporto, and 30 NW. of Braganza. Lon. 10. 13. E. Ferro. Lat. 42° N.

(4.) **VALENCIA DE ALCANTARA**, a town of Spain, in Estramadura, near Portugal: 24 miles SW. of Alcantara.

(5.) **VALENCIA DE DUERO**, a town of Portugal, in Beira; 2 miles from the Duero, and 12 W. of St Joao de Pefquiera.

(6.) **VALENCIA, VESO**. See **MONTE-LEONE**.

VALENCIENNES, an ancient, strong, and considerable city of France, in the department of the North, and late province of Hainault. It contains about 20,000 souls. The Scheld divides it into two parts. It is a very important place; the citadel and fortifications, the work of Vauban, were constructed by order of Lewis XIV. who took this town from the Spaniards. It was confirmed to him by the treaty of Nimeguen, in 1678. In 1793, it surrendered to the allies after a severe siege, but was afterwards abandoned; and is now in the possession of the French. Besides lace, this city is noted for manufactories of woollen stuffs and very fine linens. It is 20 miles WSW. of Mons, 17 NE. of Cambrai, and 120 NE. by N. of Paris. Lon. 3. 37. E. Lat. 50. 21. N.

VALENGIN, a town of Switzerland, in Neuchâtel, 3 miles NNW. of Neuchâtel.

VALENNYD, a river of N. Wales, in Merionethshire; running into the Traeth Bicha.

(1.) **VALENS**, an Arabian philosopher, founder of a sect of heretics in the 2d century, called **VALESIANS**.

(2.) VALENS, Flavius, emperor of the East, a great patron of the Arians; killed by the Goths, A. D. 379. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 4-8; and ROME, § 88.

VALENTOLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Alps; 18 miles S. of Digne, and 24 W. of Castellane.

VALENTANO, a town of Italy, in Patrimonio, in the duchy of Castro; 14 miles SW. of Orvieto.

(1.) VALENTIA, an island of the Atlantic, on the SW. coast of Ireland; 5 miles long, and 2 broad, separated from Kerry by a channel one mile broad. Lon. 10. 11. W. Lat. 51. 52. N.

(2.) VALENTIA, a town on the above island.

(3.) VALENTIA, in Italy. See VALENZA.

(1.) VALENTINE, pope of Rome, succeeded Eugenius II. and died in 827.

(2.) VALENTINE, the founder of the heretical sect of VALENTINIANS, was born in Egypt, and educated in Alexandria; but being disappointed of a bishopric, he set up his heresy, which resembles that of the GNOSTICS. He died in A. D. 160.

(3.) * VALENTINE. *n. f.* A sweetheart, chosen on Valentine's day.—And birds had drawn their *valentines*. Wotton.

(4.) VALENTINE, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne, and ci-devant province of Languedoc; 2 miles SW. of St Gaudens, and 9 NE. of St Bernard. Lon. o. 57. E. Lat. 43. 1. N.

VALENTINE'S BAY, a bay on the SE. coast of Terra del Fuoco.

VALENTINIAN I. emperor of the West, a renowned warrior, but a tyrant over his subjects. See ROME.

VALENTINIAN II. emperor of the West, a prince celebrated for his virtues, and above all for his moderation; yet a conspiracy was formed against him by Arbogastes, the commander in chief of his armies; and he was strangled in the year 392. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 4-8; and ROME, § 88.

VALENTINIAN III. the son of Constantius by Pulcheria, daughter of Arcadius; succeeded A. D. 423, in his 6th year, and prospered while his mother PULCHERIA governed. But became a tyrant afterwards, and was murdered A. D. 454.

VALENTINIANS, in church history, a sect of Christian heretics, who sprung up in the 2d century, and were so called from their leader VALENTINUS. The Valentiniens were only a branch of the GNOSTICS, who realized or personified the Platonic ideas concerning the Deity, whom they called *Pleroma* or *Plenitude*. Their system was this: the first principle is *Bythos*, i. e. *Depth*, which remained many ages unknown, having with it *Ennoe* or *Thought*, and *Sige* or *Silence*; from these sprung the *Nous* or *Intelligence*, which is the only son, equal to and alone capable of comprehending the *Bythos*; the sister of *Nous* they called *Aletheia* or *Truth*; and these constituted the first quaternity of *æons*, which were the source and original of all the rest; for *Nous* and *Aletheia* produced the World and Life; and from these two proceeded Man and the Church. But besides these 2 principal *æons*, there were 22 more; the last of which, called *Sophia*, being desirous to ar-

rive at the knowledge of *Bythos*, gave herself a great deal of uneasiness, which created in her Anger and Fear, of which was born Matter. But the Horos or Bounder stopped her, preserved her in the *Pleroma*, and restored her to Perfection. *Sophia* then produced the Christ and the Holy Spirit, which brought the *æons* to their last perfection, and made every one of them contribute their utmost to form the Saviour. Her *Enthymese*, or *Thought*, dwelling near the *Pleroma*, perfected by the Christ, produced every thing that is in the world by its divers passions. The Christ sent into it the Saviour, accompanied with angels, who delivered it from its passions, without annihilating it; from thence was formed corporeal matter.

VALENTINUS. See VALENTINE, N° 2.

VALENZA, a strong town of Italy, in the dep. of the Olona, and ci-devant duchy of Milan, formerly capital of the Lomelin. It has been often taken and retaken in the wars of Italy. It was ceded to the king of Sardinia in 1707. It is seated on a mountain near the Po, 12 miles E. of Casal, and 15 SW. of Milan. Lon. 8. 56. E. Lat. 44. 58. N.

VALENZO, DO MINHO, a fortified town of Portugal, in Entre-Duero-e-Minho, seated on a hill on the Minho. Lon. 8. 11. W. Lat. 42. 2. N.

VALERIA. See SION, N° 3.

(1.) VALERIAN, or VALERIANUS, Publius Licinius, emperor of Rome, was taken captive, and cruelly treated by Sapor I. king of Persia. See ROME, § 72.

(2.) * VALERIAN. *n. f.* [*valeriana*, Lat. *valerian*, Fr.] A plant.

(3.) VALERIAN, } in botany, a genus of plants,
VALERIANA, } belonging to the class *trian-*
dria, and order *monogynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 48th order, *Aggregatae*. There is hardly any calyx; the corolla is monopetalous, gibbous at the base, situated above the germen; there is only one seed. There are 22 species, only four of which are natives of Britain; viz.

1. VALERIAN DIOECIA, the *Dioecious Valerian*.

2. VALERIANA LOCUSTA, the *Locust Valerian*.

3. VALERIANA OFFICINALIS, the *Official Valerian*, alone is useful. The root of this plant is perennial; the stalk is upright, smooth, channelled, round, branched, and rises from 2 to 4 feet in height; the leaves on the stem are placed in pairs upon short broad sheaths; they are composed of several lance-shaped, partially dentated, veined, smooth pinnae, with an odd one at the end, which is the largest: the floral leaves are spear shaped, and pointed; the flowers are small, of a white or purplish colour, and terminate the stem on branches in large bunches. It flowers in June, and commonly grows about hedges and woods. It is supposed to be the *æu* of Dioscorides and Galen, by whom it is mentioned as an aromatic and diuretic. It is said by several authors to be efficacious in epilepsy. Bergius states its virtues to be antispasmodic, diaphoretic, emmenagogue, diuretic, anthelmintic. The root in substance is most effectual, and is usually given in powder from a scruple to a dram; its unpleasant flavour may be concealed by a small addition of mace. A tincture of valerian in proof spirit and

nd in volatile spirit are ordered in the London Pharmacopœia. Cats are very fond of the smell of this root, and seem to be intoxicated by it.

4. *VALERIANA RUBRA*, the *Red Valerian*.

VALERIANUS. See **VALERIAN**, N° 1.

(1.) **VALERIUS MAXIMUS**, a Latin historian, sprung from the families of the Valerii and Fabii, whereby he united the names of *Valerius* and *Maximus*. He studied polite literature, and afterwards followed Sextus Pompey to the wars. At his return he composed an account of the actions and remarkable sayings of the Romans and other great men; and dedicated that work to the Emperor Tiberius. Many of the learned think that this is the same that is now extant, and bears the name of *Valerius Maximus*; but others maintain, that what we have now is only an abridgment of the work written by this celebrated historian, and that this abridgment was made by one Nepotian of Africa.

(2.) **VALERIUS PUBLICOLA**, a celebrated Roman, named *Poplicola* or *Publicola*, from his popular acts. See **ROME**, § 14.

VALESIANS, a sect of heretics, in the 2d century, founded by **VALENS**, who were all voluntary eunuchs, and rejected the law and the prophets. They were condemned by the council of Achaia, A. D. 240.

(1.) **VALESIUS**, *Henricus*, or *Henry de Valois*, a learned critic, born at Paris, in 1603. He was bred to the law, but dropt it, and became historiographer to the king, who gave him a pension, as did also the French clergy, for publishing an edition of the ancient church historians. This work was published at Amsterdam in 3 vols. fol. and at Cambridge in 1689. He died blind, in 1726.

(2.) **VALESIUS**, *Adrianus*, brother to Henry, was also historiographer royal, and published a work entitled *Gesta Francorum*; in 3 vols. folio. He died in 1692.

VALESTRA, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the dep. of Panaro, and ci-devant duchy of Modena; 12 miles SW. of Modena.

* **VALET**. *n. f.* [*valet*, Fr.] A waiting servant. —Cast clothes to be worn by *valets*. *Addis*.

(1.) **VALET**, with us, is only used in the phrase *valet de chambre*, a servant whose office is to dress and undress his master, &c.

(1.) **VALETTE**, a city of Malta, capital of the island. (See **MALTA**, § 5.) Lon. 14. 34. E. Lat. 35. 54. N.

(2.) **VALETTE**, Peter De, the brave grandmaster of Malta, who defended it against the whole power of the Turks, for 4 months.

(5.) **VALETTE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Charente, and ci-devant prov. of Angoumois, 10 miles S. of Angoulême. Lon. 0. 15. E. Lat. 45. 30. N.

* **VALETUDINARIAN.** } *adj.* [*valetudinaire*, Fr. *valetudo*, Lat.]

* **VALETUDINARY.** } Weakly; sickly; infirm of health. —Physic, by purging noxious humours, prevents sickness in the healthy, or recourse thereof in the *valetudinary*. *Brown*. —The *valetudinary*, feeble part of mankind. *Derham*. —A *valetudinary* and very unequal state of health. *Black*. —Healthful animals,

opposed to *valetudinary* ones. *Cheyne*. —*Valetudinarians* must live where they can command. *Swift*.

VALEY, an island on the North Sea, on the SW. coast of Shetland.

VALEZIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class of *hexandria*, and order of *monogynia*; ranking, according to the natural method, in the 22d order, *Caryophyllee*.

VALFERMOSO, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, 9 miles NE. of Lyria.

VALFROICOR, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vosges, 6 miles S. of Mirecourt.

VALGOM, a town of Ceylon, 6 miles N. of Candi.

VALGORGE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aude, 9 miles NW. of Largentiere.

VALGUS, *Bow or Bandy Legged*. Some children are bow legged from their birth; others become so from sitting them on their feet too early. The tibia of some is crooked; the knees of others are distorted; from a fault in the ankle, the feet of some are turned inwards, these are called *vari*; and in others they turn outwards, these are called *valgi*. The best method of preventing these disorders in weakly children, is to exercise them duly, but not violently; by dancing or tossing them about in one's arms, and not setting them much on their feet, at least not without properly supporting them: if the disorder attends at the birth, or increases after it is begun, apply emollients, then apply boots of strong leather, wood, &c. as required, to dispose the crooked legs gradually to a proper form; or other instruments may be used instead of boots, which, when not too costly, are usually to be preferred. Slighter instances of these disorders yield to careful nursing, without instruments.

VALHALLA [*Scandin.* i. e. the hall of those who died by violence,] in the mythology of the ancient Saxons, Scandinavians, Danes, Swedes, &c. the paradise of **ODIN**, where after death the souls of warriors were believed to be feasted by **ODIN**, seated on a throne, and served by the **VALKYRIÆ**, &c. See **MYTHOLOGY**, § 41.

VALHERMOSO, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 12 miles ESE. of Guadalaxara.

VALIAM, an island of Russia, in lake Ladoga, 52 miles N. of Petersburg.

* **VALIANCE.** *n. f.* [from *valiant*; *valliance*, Valour; personal puissance; fierceness; bravery. Not in use. —To let him meet his doughty *valliance*. *Spenser*.

* **VALIANT.** *adj.* [*valliant*, Fr.] Stout; personally puissant; brave. We say, a *valiant* man; a *valiant* action. —Be thou *valiant* for me. 1 Sam. —A very *valiant* fencer. *Walt*. —A *valiant* combat. *Nelson*.

* **VALIANTLY.** *adv.* [from *valiant*.] Stoutly; with personal strength; with personal bravery. —Fight *valiantly* to-day. *Shak*. —*Valiantly* to withstand his enemies. *Knolles*.

* **VALIANTNESS.** *n. f.* [from *valiant*.] Valour; personal bravery; puissance; fierceness; stoutness. —Thy *valiantness* was mine. *Shak*. —The *valiantness* of the defenders. *Knolles*. —Shew not thy *valiantness* in wine. *Ecclus*.

(1.) * **VALID.** *adj.* [*valid*, Fr. *validus*, Latin.] 1. Strong; powerful; efficacious; prevalent. —Perhaps

Perhaps more *valid* arms. *Milton*. 2. Having intellectual force; prevalent; weighty; conclusive. — A *valid* argument. *Stephens*.

(2.) *VÁLID*, in law, an appellation given to acts, deeds, transactions, &c. which are clothed with all the formalities requisite to their being put into execution, and to their being admitted in a court of justice.

* *VALIDITY*. *n. f.* [*validité*, Fr. from *valid*.]

1. Force to convince; certainty.—You are persuaded of the *validity* of that famous verse. *Pope*.

2. Value. A sense not used.—

No less in space, *validity*, and pleasure. *Shak*.

VALINCOURT, John Baptist, Henry du Troufset de, born in Picardy, in 1655, wrote the *Life of Francis D. of Guise*, 12mo; *Observations on the Oedipus of Sophocles*, 4to, &c.

VALIQUERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine, 6 miles NNW. of Caudebec.

VALK, a town of Russia, in Riga, 71 miles NE. of Riga. Lon. 41. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 50. N.

VALKENBURGH, Theodore, an eminent Dutch painter, born at Amsterdam, in 1675, where he died in 1721.

VALKI, a town of Russia, in the province of Charkovskoe, 16 miles SW. of Charkov. Lon. 53. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 49. 36. N.

VALKYRIE, in the Saxon mythology, celestial virgins who attend the souls of heroes in Odin's paradise of *VALHALLA*. See *MYTHOLOGY*. § 41.

VALL, a town of Sweden, in Warmeland, 28 miles ESE. of Carlstadt.

(1.) *VALLA*, George, M. D. born at Placentia, was professor of belles lettres at Venice, where he died in 1460. He wrote *De expetendis et fugiendis rebus*, 2 vols. folio.

(2.) *VALLA*, Lawrence, a learned Italian, born at Placentia, in 1445. He retrenched the Latin language, from its Gothic barbarisms. He was apprehended and condemned to be burnt for heresy, but was saved by Alphonso K. of Naples; after which Pope Nicholas V. called him to Rome, and gave him a pension. He died there in 1465. His works are, 1. On the elegance of the Latin language, fol. and at Cambr. 8vo: 2. Life of Ferdinand V. king of Aragon, 4to: 3. Notes on the New Testament: 4. Treatise on Falsehood and Truth: 5. Fables: and, 6. Translations of *Thucydides*, *Herodotus*, and *Homer's Iliad*.

VALLABREGUES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, 3 miles N. of Tirascon, and 9 SW. of Avignon.

(1.) *VALLADOLID*, an ancient, large, and handsome city of Spain, in Old Castile, and capital of a principality of the same name, with a bishop's see and an university. It is surrounded with strong walls, embellished with handsome buildings, large public squares, piazzas, and fountains. It is large and populous, containing 11,000 houses, with fine long and broad streets, and large high houses, adorned with balconies. The market-place, called *El Campo*, is 700 paces in circumference, surrounded with a great number of convents, and is the place where the fairs are kept. There is another square in the middle of the city, surrounded with handsome brick houses, having

under them piazzas, where people may walk dry in all weather. All the houses are 4 stories; and there are balconies at every window, of iron gilt. There are 70 monasteries and nunneries; the finest of which is that of the Dominicans, its church is one of the most magnificent in the city. The kings resided a long time in this place; and the royal palace, which still remains, is of very large extent, though but two stories high; within are fine paintings of various kinds, and at one of the corners a curious clock, made in the same manner as that of Strasburg. The house of the inquisition is an odd sort of structure, for there are no windows, but a few holes to let in the light. The environs of the city are a fine plain, covered with gardens, orchards, vineyards, meadows, and fields. It is seated on the rivers Esgurra and Pisuerga. Lon. 4. 25. W. Lat. 41. 50. N.

(2.) *VALLADOLID*. See *MECHOACAN*, N° 2.

(3.) *VALLADOLID*, a town of Mexico, in the prov. of Honduras. Lon. 70. 33. E. Ferro. Lat. 14. 30. N.

(4.) *VALLADOLID*, a town of Mexico, in Yucatan, 75 miles E. of Merida.

VALLAIS. See *VALLAIS*.

VALLANCE, a town of France, in the dep. of Gers, 4 miles S. of Condom, and 16 N. of Auch.

* *VALLANCY*. *n. f.* [from *vallance*.] A large wig that shades the face.—

Critics in plume and white *vallancy* wig. *Dryd*.

VALLARÓIS, a town of Spain, in Aragon, 15 miles W. of Balbastro.

(1, 2.) *VALLE*, two towns of Norway, in Christianland: 1st, 16 miles SW. and 2d, 44 miles N. of Christianland.

(3.) *VALLE*, a town in Istria, 6 miles SE. of Rovigno.

(4.) *VALLE*, Peter DEL LA, a famous traveller, born at Rome, in 1586. He travelled into Turkey, Egypt, Syria, Persia, and India; and on his return, published his voyages in 54 Letters, at Rome, 1662, in 4 vols. He died in 1662. His work was translated into French, and published in 8 vols. 12mo.

VALLÆA, in botany, a genus of plants in the class of *Polyandria*, and order of *Monogynia*.

VALLELONGA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra, 18 miles ENE. of Nicotera.

VALLENCAY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Indre, 21 miles N. of Chateauroux. Lon. 19. 12. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 12. N.

VALLERAUQUE, a town of France, in the dep. of Gard, 6 miles N. of Vigan.

VALLERS, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire, and late prov. of Touraine, 12 m. WSW. of Tours. Lon. 0. 41. E. Lat. 47. 24. N.

VALLERY, St., a town of France, in the dep. of Somme, late Picardy, 100 miles NW. of Paris.

VALLET, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Loire, 2 m. N. of Clifton, and 12 E. of Nantes.

VALLETTE, a town of France, in the dep. of Isere, 15 miles SSE. of Grenoble.

(1.) * *VALLEY*. *n. f.* [*valée*, Fr. *vallis*, Lat.] A low ground; a hollow between hills.—*Vallies* are the intervals betwixt mountains. *Woodw*.—That hills and *vallies* yield. *Raleigh*.—Sweet interchange of hill and *valley*. *Milton*.—The heat of the *valley*. *Brown*.

(2.) *VALLEYS*,

(2.) VALLEYS, FOUR; a ci-devant district of Piedmont, otherwise called PIGNEROL, now in the French empire, and dep. of the Po. It was bounded on the N. by the marquissate of Susa, S. by that of Saluzzo, E. by Carmagnola, and W. by old France: being 24 miles long, and from 8 to 11 broad. PIGNEROL was the capital. This country is infamous for the persecution of the VALDENSES, in 1655. Its population is 8000, of whom 7000 are Protestants. It abounds with game.

VALLI, a town of Naples, in Lavora; 12 m. SE. of Capua.

VALLIERE, a town of France, in the dep. of Creuse: 6 miles SW. of Aubusson.

VALLISNERI, Anthony, M. D. an eminent Italian botanist, born in Tuscany, in 1661. He studied under Malpighi, and became physician. He died in 1730: His works were printed at Venice, in 3 vols 4to, 1773.

VALLISNERIA, a genus of plants of the class *Diacia*, and in the order of *Diandria*; ranking in the natural method, under the first and very numerous order, *Palme*.

VALLOIRE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci-devant Savoy; and county of Maurienne: 9 m. SSE. of St Jean.

(1.) VALLON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Valt: 10½ miles W. of Mans.

(2.) VALLON, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardeche; 9 miles NW. of Pont St Esprit.

VALLOUISE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Alps: 9 miles SW. of Briançon.

VALLS, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 9 miles N. of Tarragona.

VALMAROSSA, a town in Istria; 8 miles ESE. of the Capo.

VALMASEDA, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Biscay, 13 miles SW. of Bilbao.

VALMONT, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Seine, and ci-devant prov. of Normandy; 15 miles E. of Pecamp. Lon. 1. 25. W. Lon. 49. 6. N.

VALNA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, on a mountain near the Guadalquivir, and Cordova.

VALNDORF, a town of Hungary, 5 miles SW. of Szeben.

VALOE, an island of Sweden, in the Bay of Christiania: 7 miles SSE. of Tonsberg.

VALOGNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel, and ci-devant prov. of Normandy; famous for manufactures of cloth and leather: 8 miles from the coast, and 158 W. by N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 26. W. Lat. 49. 30. N.

VALONA, a sea-port town of European Turkey, in Upper Albania, near the mountains of Chimera, 50 miles S. of Durazzo. It was taken by the Venetians, in 1690. Lon. 19. 23. E. Lat. 1. 4. N.

* VALOROUS. *adj.* [from *valour*.] Brave; stout; valiant.—Of their great deeds and *valorous* empire. *Spenser*.—Captain Jany is a *valorous* gentleman. *Shak*.

* VALOROUSLY. *adv.* [from *valorous*.] In a brave manner.

VALORSINE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc.

VALOVEK, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia.

(1.) * VALOUR. *n. f.* [*valour*, Fr. *valor*, Lat. *Auf.*] Personal bravery; strength; prowess; puissance; stoutness.—And chafte, with the *valour* of my tongue. *Shak*.—Contend against thy *valour*. *Shak*.—When *valour* preys on reason. *Shak*.—An innate *valour*. *Howell*.—For contemplation he, and *valour* form'd. *Milt*.—And *valour*, and heroic virtue, call'd. *Milt*.—*Valour* gives awe, and promises protection. *Temple*.

(2.) VALOUR, in the mythology, the daughter of Pallas and Styx, and filter of STRENGTH and VICTORY. See STYX, N° 2.

(1.) VALPARAISO, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 15 miles S. of Huete.

(2.) VALPARAISO, or } a large and populous
VALPARISSA, } town of Peru, in Chili, on a bay of the S. Pacific Ocean, at the foot of a high mountain, with a well frequented harbour, defended by a strong fort. It is 225 miles N. of Concepcion. Lon. 72. 16. W. Lat. 33. 3. S.

VALPERGO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late Piedmontese, and county of Canaveise: 16 N. of Turin.

VALPERSCHWEIL, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Berne; 10 miles NW. of Berne.

VALPUESA, a town of Spain in Old Castile: 10 miles NNE. of Frías.

VALRAS, } or VAURAS, a town of France,
VALREAS, } in the dep. of the Drome; and ci-devant county of VENAISIN, 18 miles NNE. of Orange, and 15 SE. of Montelimart.

VALS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardeche and late prov. of Dauphine, famed for its mineral waters, 3 miles N. of Aubenas. Lon. 4. 26. E. Lat. 44. 48. N.

VALSALVA, Anthony Marie, M. D. a physician, born at Imola, in Italy, in 1666. He became professor of Anatomy at Bologna, and wrote a treatise on the Human ear, in 4to: *Dissertationes Anatomicae*, 2 vols. 4to. Ven. 1749. He died in 1723.

VALSECA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 4 miles N. of Segovia.

VALSTAGNO, a town in Vicentino: 16 miles N. of Vicentino.

VALTANAS, a town of Spain, in Leon; 15 miles E. of Valencia.

VALTELINE, a ci-devant territory and lordship in the country of the Grisons, at the foot of the Alps, at the entrance of Italy; annexed, along with BORMIO and CHIAVENNA, at the desire of the citizens, in 1797, to the CISALPINE REPUBLIC, (which see) and now a constituent part of the kingdom of Italy. Before these revolutionary changes, the VALTELINE, or as the Grisons call it *Valle Tellina*, was bounded on the N. by the other territories of the Grisons, E. by Bormio, and BRESCIANO, or, as it is now called, department of the MELLA, in the Italian kingdom; on the S. by the ci-devant county of Bergamesco, now in the dep. of the SERIO and by the late Milanese, now in the dep. of Olona; on the W. by the late county of Chiavenna, and the dep. of Olona, late Milanese. It consists of a large valley, surrounded by high mountains, 50 miles long, and from 8 to 10 broad. It is watered through its whole extent

tent by the Adda. The total population is 62,000. SONDRIO is the capital.

VALTIERRA, a town of Spain, in Navarre, 10 miles from Tudela.

VALVA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra; 36 miles NW. of Molise.

* VALUABLE. *adj.* [valuable, Fr. from *value*.] 1. Precious; being of great price. 2. Worthy; deserving regard.—That *valuable* person. *Attrib.*—Some minute circumstances are very *valuable*. *Swift*.

VALVANO, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 16 miles N. of Cangiano.

VALVASONE, a town of Austria, in Friuli, on the Tagliamento; 14 miles NW. of Udina.

VALVASOR. *n. f.* an ancient title of dignity among the Anglo-Saxons; the next below a *thane* or *Peer*. They were called in Latin *vice-domini*, or *vice-lords*; and their ladies *vidames*. They are mentioned by the ancient English lawyers as *virī magnæ dignitatis*, gentlemen of high dignity. Sir Edward Coke speaks highly of them: yet they are now so totally out of use, that antiquarians are not agreed respecting their origin, their office, or the extent of their powers.

* VALUATION. *n. f.* [from *value*.] 1. The act of setting a value; appraisement.—A just *valuation*. *Ray*. 2. Value set upon any thing.—So slight a *valuation*. *Shak*.—Take out of men's minds false *valuations*. *Bacon*.—The writers expressed not the *valuation* of the denarius. *Arbutnot*.

* VALUATOR. *n. f.* [from *value*.] An appraiser; one who sets upon any thing its price. A word which I have found no where else.—What *valuators* will the bishops make use of? *Swift*.

* VALUE. *n. f.* [*value*, French, *valor*, Latin.] 1. Price; worth.—Ye are physicians of no *value*. *Job*, viii.—Let nothing in the world be of any *value* with you. *Laso*. 2. High rate.—And therefore set this *value* on your life. *Addison*. 3. Rate; price equal to the worth of the thing brought.—The *value* of his pictures. *Dryden*.

(1.) * VALVE. *n. f.* [*valva*, Lat.] 1. A folding door.—

Swift through the *valves* the visionary fair Repasts'd. *Pope*.

Opening their *valves*, self-mov'd on either side,

The adamantine doors expanded wide. *Harte*.

2. Any thing that opens over the mouth of a vessel.—By opening of the *valve*, and forcing up of the sucker. *Boyle*. 3. [In anatomy.] A kind of membrane, which opens in certain vessels to admit the blood, and shuts to prevent its regress.—The blood is hindered from going backward by the *valves* of the heart. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) VALVE, in hydraulics, pneumatics, &c. is a kind of lid or cover of a tube or vessel, so contrived as to open one way, but which, the more forcibly it is pressed the other way, the closer it shuts the aperture; so that it either admits the entrance of a fluid into the tube or vessel, and prevents its return; or admits its escape, and prevents its re-entrance.

(3.) VALVE, in anatomy, a thin membrane applied on several cavities and vessels of the body, to afford a passage to certain humours going or e-

way, and prevent their reflux towards the place from whence they came.

* To VALUE. *v. a.* [*valoir*, Fr. from the noun.] 1. To rate at a certain price.—The tithes will be better *valued*. *Spenser*.—*Valuing* his reputation. *Carew*.—God alone *values* right the good. *Mil*. 2. To rate highly; to have in high esteem.—Very *valued* pieces. *Addis*.—He *values* himself. *Atterb*.—He *values* these. *Pope*. 3. To appraise; to estimate.—Shall *value* him. *Lev*. xxvii. 8. 4. To be worth; to be equal in worth to.—

The peace between the French and us *values*

The cost that did conclude it. *Shak*.

5. To take account of.—The mind doth *value* every moment. *Bacon*. 6. To reckon at, with respect to number or power.—The queen is *valued* thirty thousand strong. *Shak*. 7. To consider with respect to importance; to hold important.—So slightly *valued* in his messenger. *Shak*.—Neither of them *valued* their promises. *Clarendon*. 8. To equal in value; to countervail.—It cannot be *valued* with the gold of Ophir. *Job*. 9. To rank to estimation. This is a sense not in use.—*Falsing* the folly of the most foolish, by making the success prosperous. *Sidney*.—Some *value* themselves to their country by jealousies of the crown. *Temple*.—Vanity, or a desire of *valuing* ourselves. *Temple*.

* VALUELESS. *adj.* [from *value*.] Being of no value.—Which, touch'd and tried.—*Prove valueless*. *Shak*.

* VALUER. *n. f.* [from *value*.] He that values.—Hammond was no *valuer* of trifles. *Fell*.

VALVERDA, John DE, M. D. a Spanish physician, who attended Card. Tolido to Rome. He wrote a Treatise on Anatomy, Ven. 1589; and a tract *De animi et corporis sanitatē tuenda*, 1553.

(1.) VALVERDE, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, 27 miles NW. of Alcantara; Lon. 6. 29. W. Lat. 39. 44. N.

(2.) VALVERDE, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, near Portugal; in a valley 8 miles from Elvas, and 8 from Badajoz. Lon. 6. 39. W. Lat. 38. 34. N.

(3.) VALVERDE, a town of Peru, in Lima, in a valley on the river; 15 miles from the sea-coast.

(4.) VALVERDE, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 20 miles S. of Cuenza.

(5.) VALVERDE DE CAMINO, a town of Spain, in Seville, 17 miles NE. of Moguer.

(6.) VALVERDE EN FRESNO, a town of Spain, in Leon; near Portugal; 24 miles NNW. of Coria, and 27 SW. of Rodrigo.

VALUIKI, a town of Russia, in Voronezh; 108 miles SSW. of Voronezh. Lon. 55. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 2. N.

VALUNTOWN, a town of Connecticut; 12 miles NNE. of Norwich.

* VALVULE. *n. f.* [*valvule*, Fr.] A small valve.

VAMBA, a province of Africa, in Anzico. VAM-KAOSÉ, an island in the Chinese Archipelago, 62 miles SW. of Macao; where St Francis XAVIER is buried.

* VAMP. *n. f.* The upper leather of a shoe. *Ainsworth*.

* To VAMP. *v. a.* [This is supposed, probably enough, by *Skinner* to be derived from *avant*, Fr. *before*; and to mean laying on a new outside.] To piece an old thing with some new part.—To vamp a body with a dangerous physick. *Shak.*—This opinion hath been vamped up by Cardan. *Bentley.*—I had never much hopes of your vamp lay. *Swift.*

* VAMPER. *n. s.* [from *vamp*.] One who pieces out an old thing with something new.

(1.) VAMPYRE, a species of bat. See VESPERTILIO.

(2.) VAMPYRE is also the name of an imaginary being who is believed by the MORLACKS to frequent church-yards, and to suck the blood of infants, &c. See MORLACKIANS.

(1.) VAN. *n. f.* [from *avant*, French.] 1. The front of an army; the first line.—Before each an prick forth the airy knights. *Milton.*—With an, main battle, wings, and rear. *Hudibras.*—an to van the foremost squadrons meet. *Dryden.* [van, Fr. *vannus*, Latin.] Any thing spread wide by which a wind is raised; a fan.—They call a ear a corn fan. *Broom.* 3. A wing with which the air is beaten.—

His sail-broad vans
He spreads for flight. *Milton.*
Who on their plummy vans received him soft. *Milton.*

His disabled wing unstrung:
He wheel'd in air, and stretch'd his vans in vain;
His vans no longer could his flight sustain. *Dryden.*

The vases minister to the progressive motion
the bird. *Derham.*

(2.) VAN, in geography, a populous town of Asiatic Turkey, in Armenia, or Caramania, on the frontiers of Persia, with a castle, and a Turkisharrison, on a mountain, near the lake. (N^o 3.) was taken and pillaged by Tamerlane. It comprehends 9 sangiacates under its jurisdiction. It 42 miles SE. of Beths, and 150 E. of Diarbek. *in.* 44. 50. E. Lat. 58. 30. N.

(3.) VAN, a lake of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania, near the above town, 120 miles in circumference, abounding with fish.

(4.) VAN, a river of S. Wales, in Glamorganshire, which runs into the Bristol Channel, 5 miles below wbridge.

(5.) VAN, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuys, miles N. of Christiania.

(6.) VAN, a town of China, in Se tchuén.

* To VAN. *v. a.* [from *vannus*, Latin; *vanner*, French.] To fan; to winnow. Not in use.—e corn which in vanning lieth lowest is the best. *con.*

VANAKEN, Joseph, a Flemish painter, born Antwerp. He excelled in painting fatten, velvet, lace, and embroidery. He died in 1749.

VANBRUGH, Sir John, a celebrated Englishmatic writer and architect, descended of a family in Cheshire which came from France. He born about the middle of the reign of Charles and received a liberal education. His first comedy, called the *Relapse*, or *Virtue in Danger*, was in 1697 with great applause; which gave such encouragement, that he wrote 11 more comedies. He was appointed Clarencieux king *Vol. XXII. PART II.*

at arms, which he afterwards disposed of. In 1716 he was appointed surveyor of the works at Greenwich hospital; he was likewise made comptroller-general of his majesty's works, and surveyor of all the gardens and waters. He was an able architect; but his performances in that way are esteemed heavy. Under his direction were raised Blenheim house in Oxfordshire, Claremont in Surry, and his own house at Whitehall. He died of a quinsy in 1726.

VAN CAMPENS, a town of New Jersey; 32 miles NW. of Morristown.

VAN CHEAU, an island in the E. Indian Sea; in Lon. 110. 40. E. Lat. 8. 50. N.

* VANCOURIER. *n. f.* [*avantcourier*, French.] A harbinger; a precursor.

VANCOUVER, Captain George, of the royal navy, wrote an account of a Voyage of Discovery into the North Pacific Ocean, and Round the World, in 1790—1795. He died 10th May, 1798.

VANDALE, Anthony, M. D. a learned physician, born in Holland, in 1638. He wrote, *A Treatise on Oracles*, which was answered by several writers, and abridged by Fontenelle; also a work on the *Origin of Idolatry*; also a Dissertation on *Aristeas*, and the *Septuagint version*. He died at Haerlem, in 1708.

(1.) VANDALIA, a county of Mecklenburg, bounded by Schwerin, Stargard, Stockock, and Brandenburg: 75 miles long, and 7 broad. GUSTROW is the capital.

(2.) VANDALIA, a duchy of Farther Pomerania, subject to the K. of Prussia. STOLPEN is the capital.

VANDALS. *n. f. plur. a* brave and numerous, but barbarous people of Europe, who, along with the GOTHs, HERULs, SUEVI, ALANI, and BURGUNDIANS, emigrated in large bodies from their respective native countries, and spreading fire, sword, and desolation, everywhere, overthrew the Roman empire, in the 5th century. They were several times, however, successfully opposed by Stilicho. See ROME, § 91. From the similarity of their name to that of the two countries above described, they seem to have originally come from Lower Saxony and Pomerania. Others make them a tribe of the SARMATIANS, or SLAVONIANS. See PHILOLOGY, *Sett. XII.*

VANDELEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Meurthe, 9 miles NW. of Mirecourt, and 6 SW. of Vezelize.

VANDELLIA, in botany; a genus of plants belonging to the class *didynamia* and order *angiospermia*. The calyx is subquadrid; the corolla ringent; the two exterior filaments proceed from the disc of the lip of the corolla; the antheræ are connected; the capsule is unilocular and polyspermous. There is only one species known, viz.

VANDELLIA DIFFUSA.

VANDEPUT. See PUTEANUS.

(1.) VANDER-LINDEN, Henry, professor of divinity at Franeker, was born in 1546; and suffered much for his attachment to the reformation: in favour of which he wrote. He died in 1614.

(2.) VANDER-LINDEN, John Antonides, grandson of the preceding, was born at Enckhuysen in 1609, and educated at Leyden. He graduated

at Franeker in 1630, and in 1639 was made prof. of phyfic in that univerfity. In 1640 he went to that of Leyden. He wrote many medical works, and died in 1664.

VANDERMEER, John, a famous Dutch painter, who excelled in fea pieces: He was drowned in 1691, aged 64.

VANDERMEULEN, Anthony Francis, a Flemish painter, born at Brussels in 1634. He painted the battles of Lewis XIV. and married a daughter of the famous Le Brun. He died at Paris in 1690.

(1.) **VANDERMONDE**, Charles Augustus, M. D. a native of Macao, in China, born in 1772. He became an eminent phyfician, and was appointed cenfor royal at Paris, where he died in 1762. His chief works are, 1. *Effai fur la maniere de perfectionner l'Espece Humaine*; 2 vols. 12mo. *Dictionnaire de Sante*; 3. *Dissertation Anatomique*.

(2.) **VANDERMONDE**, a late celebrated French mathematician, born at Paris in 1715, famous for his love of fcience, and infamous for joining the Terrorifts. He died in 1795.

(1.) **VANDERVELDE**, Adrian, an eminent painter born at Amfterdam, in 1639. His works are rare and highly valued. He died in 1672.

(2.) **VANDERVELDE**, Ifaiah, an eminent painter, his battles are efteemed. He died at Leyden in 1630.

(3.) **VANDERVELDE**, John, brother to the above, an eminent engraver.

(4.) **VANDERVELDE**, William, brother to Ifaiah and born at Leyden, was alfo eminent in painting fea fights. He came over to London, got a penfion, and died in 1693.

(5.) **VANDERVELDE**, William, fon of the above, excelled his father, and died in London, in 1797.

VANDERVENNE, Adrian, a painter born at Delft, in 1589. He excelled in fcenes of humour.

VAN-DIEMEN'S LAND, the S. extremity of New HOLLAND, difcovered by TASMAN, in 1641-2. In 1773, it was vifited by Capt Fourneau, and fon after by Capt. Cook. Lon. 148° to 150° E. Lat. 40° 30' to 42° 30' S.

VAN DIEMEN'S ROAD, an anchoring place in the S. Pacific Ocean, on the coaft of TONGATABOO.

VANDSIA, a town of Norway, in Chriftianfand, 43 miles W. of Chriftianfand.

VANDY, a town of France, in the dept. of Ardennes, 3 miles N. of Vouziers.

VANDYCK, Sir Anthony, a celebrated painter, born at Antwerp in 1599. After giving feveral early proofs of his excellent genius, he became the difciple of the illuftrious Rubens. From this celebrated mafter he received not only inftruction in his art, but was by his generofity enabled to go to Rome. Having ftaid a fhort time there, he removed to Venice, where he attained the beautiful colouring of Titian, Paul Veronefe, and the Venetian fchool, which appeared from the many excellent pictures he drew at Genoa. After having fpent a few years abroad, he returned to Flanders, with fo noble, fo eafy, and natural a manner of painting, that Titian himfelf was hardly his fuperior; and no other mafter could equal him in portraits. He then went to England when

his fuperior genius foon brought him into great reputation; and above all, he excelled in portraits, which he drew with an inconceivable facility, and for which he charged a very high price. For fome of them he received 400 guineas a-piece. He foon found himfelf loaded with honours and riches. He married a daughter of lord Ruthven, earl of Gowry. His houfe was fo frequented by perfons of the greateft quality, that it rather reſembled the court of a prince than the lodgings of a painter. He died in 1641, and was buried in St. Paul's. It was faid he left 40,000 l.

(2.) **VANDYCK**, Philip, another eminent painter, born at Amfterdam, in 1680. He died in 1752.

(1.) **VANE**, Sir Henry, fon of Sir Henry Vane, Secretary of State to Charles I. was born in 1612, and educated at Magdalen-hall, Oxford. He then went to Geneva, where he became a republican; which led to a quarrel with his father, who was a rigid royalift. He then failed to New England, whence he returned in 1637, and during the civil war, took an active part againft the king. He, however, boldly oppofed Cromwell's ufurpation, for which Oliver imprifoned him. In 1662, he was tried and beheaded for high treafon. He wrote fome books, in the fpirit of the times.

(2.) * **VANE**. *n. f.* [*vane*, Dutch]. A plate hung on a pin to turn with the wind.—A *vane* blown with all winds. *Shak.*

(3.) **VANE**, a thin flip of bunting hung to the maft-head, or fome other conspicuous place in the fhip, to fhew the direction of the wind. It is commonly ſewed upon a wooden frame called the *ſtock*, which contains two holes whereby to flip over the ſpindle, upon which it turns round as the wind changes.

* **VANGUARD**. *n. f.* [*avant garde*, French.] The front, or firft line of the army.—The king's *vant guard*. Bacon.—In *vant guard* of his troops. *Chapman*.—

Vanguard to right and left the front unfold.

Milton.

VANIERE, James, a French Jeſuit, and Latin poet, born in 1664. He wrote an admired poem, entitled *Predium Ruſticum*; Paris, 1726, 12mo. He died at Toulouſe, in 1739.

(1.) * **VANILLA**. *n. f.* [*vanille*, Fr.] A fruit of thoſe plants is uſed to ſcent chocolate. *Miller*.—When mixed with *vanillies*, or ſpices, chocolate acquires the good and bad qualities of aromatic oils. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **VANILLA**. See EPIDENDRON.

VANINI, Lucilio, a native of Taurifano, in Naples; who ſtudied theology, astrology, medicine, and philoſophy; and was ordained prieſt; yet was mad enough to die a martyr for *atheifm*. After preaching his falſe doctrine in England, Germany, and Holland, he was apprehended at Toulouſe, condemned and burnt alive, in 1619. The work for which he ſuffered was entitled *De Admirandis Naturæ Arcanis*, 8vo.

* **To VANISH**. *v. n.* [*vaneſco*, Latin; *evanouiſ*, Fr.] 1. To loſe perceptible exiſtence.—High honour is not only gotten and born by pain and danger, but muſt be nurſed by the like, or elſe *vanifeth* as ſoon as it appears to the world. *Sadney*.

While

While fancy brings the *vanish'd* piles to view,
And builds imaginary Rome anew. *Pope.*

To pass away from the fight; to disappear.—
Whither are they *vanish'd*? *Shak.*

Now I have taken heart, thou *vanishest*. *Shak.*
And in a moment *vanish'd* from her eye.

Pope.
To pass away; to be lost.—
All these delights will *vanish*. *Milton.*

That spirit of religion *vanish'd* all at once. *Atterbury.*

VANITY. *n. f.* [*vanitas*, Lat. *vanitas*, Fr.] 1. Pertinacity; uncertainty; inanity.—*Vanities* of *vanity*, all is *vanity*. *Ecl. 2.* Fruitless desire; fruitless endeavour.—*Vanities* possesseth many, who are proud to know the certainty of things to come.

2. Trifling labour.—To use long discourses, might rightly be judged a *vanity*. *Raleigh.*

3. Falsehood; untruth.—Here I may shew the *vanity* of that which is reported. *Sir J. Davies.*

Empty pleasure; vain pursuit; idle show; un-
substantial enjoyment; petty object of pride.—
Natures consumed in secular *vanity*. *Hooker.*

4. *Vanities* of mine art. *Davies.*—Make her free-
ly slave to *vanity*. *Davies.*

Sin, with *vanity*, had fill'd the works of men.

Milton.
The eldest equal the youngest in the *vanity* of
their dress. *South.*

Succeeding *vanities* the Bill regards. *Pope.*

5. Ostentation; arrogance.—They, through *van-*
ity, build many forged histories of their own an-
nity. *Spenser.*

6. The *vanities*, of learned philoso-
phers and poets. *Raleigh.*

7. Petty pride; pride
rested on slight grounds; pride operating on
all occasions.—Can you add guilt to *vanity*.

South.—*Vanities* the food of fools. *Swift.*

8. The world indulges women in *vanity*. *Law.*

VAN LAER, Peter, painter, better known by his
ek name of *BAMBOCIO*, which see. He paint-
ed inns, shops, cattle, &c. He died in 1673.

VAN LOO, Charles Andrew, painter, was
born at Nice in 1705, and studied under his bro-
ther John, N° 2. After visiting Italy, he became
member of the Academy of painting. He died in
1746.

VAN LOO, John Baptist, painter, born at
Paris in 1684, and died there in 1746.

VANMANDER, Charles, painter, was born at
Courtray in 1548. His principal pictures are
Adam and Eve, and the deluge. He died in 1606.

VANNA CHOIR, or **VENNOCHAR,** LOCH, one
of the chain of lakes formed by the Teith in
Highland, Scotland.

VANNES, a populous and ancient town of
France in the dep. of Morbihan, on a little arm
of the sea, forming a commodious harbour. It is
15 miles S.W. of Rennes, and 255 W. by S. of
Paris. Lon. 2° 41' W. Lat. 47° 39' N.

VANNI, Francis, painter, chiefly of religious
subjects, was born at Sienna in 1563, and died in
1636.

VANNIA, a town of Italy; north of the Po,
near CIVITA.

VANNIUS, a king of the Suevi, banished un-
der Claudius, &c. *Tac. An. 12, c. 29.*

VANNSTOWN, a town in the country of the

Cherokees, on a branch of Alabama river, N. A-
merica.

* **To VANQUISH.** *v. a.* [*vaincre*, Fr.] 1. To
conquer; to overcome; to subdue.—

The fearful French, whom you late *vanquish-*
ed. *Shak.*

—They subdued and *vanquish'd* the rebels. *Clarendon.*

—The gods the victor, Cato the *vanquish'd*
chose. *Dryd. 2.* To confute.—This assertion has
been *vanquish'd* in a reply. *F. Atterbury.*

* **VANQUISHER.** *n. f.* [from *vanquish*] Con-
queror; subduer.—Your *vanquisher*. *Shak.*

My *vanquisher*;
Spoil'd of his vaunted spoil. *Milton.*

Troy's *vanquisher*, and great Achilles' son.

A. Phil.

VANSIRE. See **MUSTELA**, N° 1.

VANSOMER, Paul, portrait painter, born at
Antwerp, 1576, resided long in England, and died
in 1621.

VANSWIETEN, Gerard, physician, was born
at Leyden in 1700. He studied under Boerhaave,
and went to Vienna where he became physician
and librarian to Maria Theresia. He read lectures
on the Materia Medica and practice of physic,
and performed many eminent cures. He died in
1771. His chief work is a commentary on the
Aphorisms of Boerhaave, 5 vols. 4to.

* **VANTAGE.** *n. f.* [from *advantage*.] 1.
Gain; profit.—What great *vantage* do we get by
the trade of a pastor? *Sidney.*

2. Superiority;
state in which one had better means of action than
another.—With the *vantage* of mine own excuse.

Shak.—He had them at *vantage*, being tired with
a long march. *Bacon.*—The same *vantage* of
ground. *South.*

3. Opportunity; convenience.—
Be assur'd, Madam, 'twill be done
With his next *vantage*. *Shak.*

* **To VANTAGE.** *v. a.* [from *advantage*.] To
profit. *Not in use.*

For needless fear did never *vantage* none.

Spenser.

* **VANTBRAS.** *n. f.* [*avant bras*, Fr.] Ar-
mour for the arm.—

I'll in my *vantbraces* put this wither'd brawn.

Shak.

Put on *vantbraces*, and greaves, and gauntlet.

Milton.

* **VAPID.** *adj.* [*vepidus*, Latin.] Dead; having
the spirit evaporated; spiritless; maukish; flat.

—Left spiritless wine to sharp or *vapid* change.

Phil.—A *vapid* and viscous constitution of blood.

Arbutnot.

* **VAPIDNESS.** *n. f.* [from *vapid*.] The state
of being spiritless or maukish; maukishness.

* **VAPORATION.** *n. f.* [*vaporation*, Fr. *vapo-*
ratio, Lat. *from vapour*.] The act of escaping in
vapours.

* **VAPORER.** *n. f.* [from *vapour*.] A boaster;
a braggart.—This shews these *vaporers*, to what
scorn they expose themselves. *Gov. Tong.*

* **VAPORISH.** *adj.* [from *vapour*.] 1. Vapo-
rous; full of vapours.—The *vaporish* place.

Sand. 2. Splenetic; peevish; humourous.—
Pallas grew *vaporish* once and odd. *Pope.*

* **VAPOROUS.** *adj.* [*vaporosus*, Fr. *from vapour*.]
1. Full of vapours or exhalations; fummy.
—The *vaporous* night approaches. *Shak.*—The

B b b b a warm

swarm and *vaporous* air of the vallies. *Derb.* 2. Windy; flatulent.—Beans or such *vaporous* food. *Bacon.*—A little *vaporous* moisture. *More.*—The food most *vaporous* and perspirable. *Arbuth.*—*Vaporous* streams of the blood. *Cheyne.*

(1.) * VAPOUR. *n. f.* [*vapeur*, Fr. *vapor*, Lat.] 1. Any thing exhalable; any thing that mingles with the air.—Gloomy *vapours*. *Chap.*—

Vapour, and mist, and exhalation hot. *Milt.*
It draws up *vapours* which obscure its rays.

Pope.

2. Fume; steam.—The *vapours* of meat. *Dryd.*—The *vapour* which ascends out of a still. *Newton.*—The *vapour* of vinegar. *Arbuth.* 3. Wind; flatulence.—Ointments, by stopping of the pores, shut in the *vapours*, and send them to the head extremely. *Bacon.* 4. Mental fume; vain imagination; fancy unreal.—His mind is clouded over with a melancholy *vapour*. *Hammond.* 5. [In the plural.] Diseases caused by flatulence, or by diseased nerves: hypochondriacal maladies; melancholy; spleen.—The spleen and the *vapours*. *Addison.*

(2.) VAPOUR, in philosophy, the particles of bodies rarefied by heat, and thus rendered specifically lighter than the atmosphere, in which they rise to a considerable height. See EVAPORATION, DAMP, GAS, &c. Many kinds of vapour are unfriendly to animal life, but the most noxious are those which arise from metallic substances. In the smelting and refining of lead, a white vapour arises, which, falling upon the grass in the neighbourhood, imparts a poisonous quality to it, so that the cattle which feed there will die; and in like manner stagnant waters impregnated with this vapour will kill fish. In some places the earth exhales vapour of a very noxious quality; such as the Grotto del Cani, and other places in Italy, where a mephitic vapour constantly hovers over the surface of the ground, proving instantly fatal to such animals as are immersed in it. In some parts of the world there have been instances of people killed, and almost torn to pieces, by a vapour suddenly bursting out of the earth under their feet. Of the aqueous vapour raised from the earth by the sun's heat are formed the clouds; but though these are commonly at no great distance from the earth we cannot from thence determine the height to which the vapours ascend. See METEOROLOGY, *Stiff.* VI.

(1.) * To VAPOUR. *v. a.* To effuse, or scatter in fumes or vapour.—

Break off this last lamenting kiss,
Which sucks two souls, and *vapours* both away.

Donne.

He'd laugh to see one throw his heart away,
Another sighing *vapour* forth his soul. *B. Jonf.*
—Opium loath some of its poisonous quality, if *vapoured* out, and mingled with spirit of wine. *Bac.*

(2.) * To VAPOUR. *v. n.* [*vaporo*, Latin.] 1. To pass in a vapour or fume; to fly off in evaporations.

When thou from this world wilt go,
The whole world *vapours* on thy breath. *Don.*
2. To emit fumes.—Swift running waters *vapour* not so much as standing waters. *Bacon.*
3. To bully; to brag.

Not true? quoth he: Howe'er you *vapour*,
I can what I affirm make appear. *Hudibras.*

You, what in real value's wanting
Supply with *vapouring* and ranting. *Hudibras.*

—That I might not be *vapoured* down by insignificant testimonies, I used the name of your society to annihilate all such arguments. *Glavins.*

Be you to us but kind;

Let Dutchmen *vapour*, Spaniards curse,
No forrow we shall find. *E. Dryd.*

(1.) VAPOUR-BATH, in chemistry, a term applied to a chemist's bath or heat, wherein a body is placed so as to receive the fumes of boiling water. It consists of two vessels, disposed over one another in such manner as that the vapour raised from the water contained in the lower, heats the matter inclosed in the upper. It is very common for the distilling of odoriferous waters, and the drawing of spirit of wine.

(2.) VAPOUR-BATH, in medicine, is used when a sick person is made to receive the vapours arising from some liquid matter placed over a fire. Vapour baths are very commonly used in Russia and other northern countries, not for any medicinal purpose, but as a luxury. Males and females are described as going promiscuously into the rooms or stoves heated to a very high degree with steam; and after *luxuriating* for some time under the hands of the attendants who *rub them down*, they rush out into the air, or even plunge into cold water.

(1.) VAPOURS, in medicine, a disease properly called *hype*, or the *hypochondriacal disease*; in men particularly, the *spleen*. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

(2.) VAPOURS, NOXIOUS, METHOD OF DISPERSING. A very simple apparatus has been recommended for dispelling the noxious vapours common in wells and other subterraneous places. A pair of smith's bellows, fixed in a wooden frame so as to work in the same manner as at the forge, placed at the edge of a well, and one end of a leathern tube (the hose of a fire engine) closely adapted to the nose and the other end thrown into the well, to reach within one foot of the bottom, will by being worked only half an hour render the air perfectly pure.

VAR, the ancient VARUS, a river of the Free empire, which rises in the ci-devant county of Nice, runs through it, and falls into the Mediterranean.

VARAMBON, a town of France, in the diocese of Ain, on the river Ain, 14 miles NNW. of Boncompagni.
VARANES, a name common to some of the Persian monarchs, in the age of the Roman emperors.

(1.) VARCHI, Benedict, was born at Florence in 1503. He wrote a history of Florence, &c. and died in 1566.

(2.) VARCHI, Benedict, was born at Fiesole in 1503. He was professor of morality at Padua, and wrote a history of his own times and some poems. He died at Florence in 1566.

VARDAE, a people of Dalmatia. *Cic. fam. ep. 9.*

VARENDORF, a town of Westphalia.
VARENIUS, Bernard, a Dutch physician, &c.

thor of a system of Universal Geography, which Sir Isaac Newton translated; also a description of Japan and Siam. He died in 1660.

(1.) VARENNE, a town of France, in the dep. of Allier, 12 miles SSE. of Moulins.

(2.) VARENNE, a small town of France, in the dep. of the Meuse, 13 miles N. of Clermont. Here the flight of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. was stopped in 1791.

VARESA, a town of the state of Genoa, 13 miles NNW. of Brugheto.

VARESE, or VARESSIO, a town of Italy, capital of the dep. of Verbano, seated on the river Verbano; 24 miles NNW. of Milan.

VARGAS, Lewis de, a painter, born at Seville, in 1528, and died in 1590.

VARI, in medicine, little, hard, and ruddy tumors, which frequently infest the faces of young persons of a hot temperament of body. See MEDICINE, Index.

VARIA, a town of Latium.

(1.) * VARIABLE. *adj.* [variable, Fr. *variabilis*, Latium.] Changeable; mutable; inconstant.

Oh, swear not by the inconstant moon
That monthly changes in her circled orb,
Lest that thy love prove likewise variable.

Shak.

Haply countries different

With variable objects shall expel
This something settled matter in his heart.

Milton.

—By the lively image of other creatures did those
ancients represent the variable passions of mortals.

Raleigh.—

This heart I know how variable and vain.

Milton.

(2.) VARIABLE, in geometry and analytics, is a term applied by mathematicians to such quantities as are considered in a variable or changeable state, either increasing or decreasing. Thus the abscissas and ordinates of an ellipsis, or other curve line, are variable quantities; because these vary or change their magnitude together, the one at the same time with the other. But some quantities may be variable by themselves alone, or while those connected with them are constant: as the abscissas of a parallelogram, whose ordinates may be considered as all equal, and therefore constant; also the diameter of a circle, and the parameter of a conic section, are constant, while their abscissas are variable. See FLUXIONS.

* VARIABLENESS. *n. f.* [from variable.] 1. Changeableness; mutability.—You are not solicitous about the variableness of the weather, or the change of seasons. Addison. 2. Levity; inconstancy.—Censurers subject themselves to the charge of variableness in judgement. Clarissa.

* VARIABLY. *adv.* [from variable.] Changeably; mutably; inconstantly; uncertainly.

* VARIANCE. *n. f.* [from vary.] Discord; disagreement; dissension.—I am come to set a man at variance against his father. Matthew.—

A cause of law, by violent course,
Was, from a variance, now a war become.

Daniel.

—Set not any one doctrine of the gospel at variance with others, which are all admirably consistent. Spratt.—

While a kind glance at her pursuer flies,
How much at variance are her feet and eyes.

Pope.

—If the learned would not at times submit to the ignorant; the old to the weaknesses of the young; there would be nothing but everlasting variance in the world. Swift.—

Many bleed

By shameful variance betwixt man and man.

Thomson.

—Who are they that set the first and second articles at variance with each other. Waterland.

(1.) * VARIATION. *n. f.* [variatio, Lat. *variation*, French.] 1. Change; mutation; difference from itself.—After much variation of opinion the prisoner was acquitted of treason. Hayward.—The operation of agents will easily admit of intension and remission; but the essence of things are conceived not capable of any such variation. Locke.—The fame of our writers is limited, in time as much as place, by the perpetual variation of our speech. Swift.—The same numerical quantity, by variations of texture, may constitute successively all kinds of body. Bentley. 2. Difference; change from one to another.—In some other places are more females than males; which, upon this variation of proportion, I recommend to the curious. Graunt.—Each sea had its peculiar shells, and the same variation of fishes. Woodward.

3. Successive change.—

Sir Walter Blunt

Stain'd with the variation of each foil. Shak.

4. [In grammar.]—The useful examples of the variation of words are often appointed to be repeated. Watts.

5. Change in natural phenomena.—Without any visible eclipse or want in himself, amidst divers variations in others. Wotton.

6. Deviation.—He observed the variation from the original. Fell.—A variation from the state of his creation. Hale.—The greater variation may be fairly deduced from him. Dryden.

7. Variation of the compass; deviation of the magnetick needle from an exact parallel with the meridian.

(2.) VARIATION OF THE COMPASS, is the deviation of the magnetic or mariner's needle from the meridian or true north and south line. On the continent it is called the *declination* of the magnetic needle which is a better term. At the period when the polarity of the magnet was first observed in Europe, whether originally, or as imported from China, the magnetic direction, both in Europe and in China, was nearly in the plane of the meridian. It was therefore an inestimable present to the mariner, giving him a sure direction in his course through the pathless ocean. But by the time that the European navigators had engaged in their adventurous voyages to far distant shores, the deviation of the compass needle from the meridian was very sensible even in Europe; and it is somewhat surprising that the Dutch and Portuguese navigators did not observe it on their own coasts. The son of Columbus positively says that it was observed by his father in his first voyage to America. It is certain that Gonzales Oviedo and Sebastian Cabot observed it in their voyages. But the deviation of the compass from the meridian was not then allowed by mathematicians. Pedro de Medina at Valladolid, in his *Arte de Navegar*, published

published in 1545, positively denies the variation of the compass. But so soon after as 1556, Martin Cortez, in a treatise of navigation, treated it as a thing completely established, and gives rules and instruments for discovering its quantity. About the year 1580 Norman published his discovery of the dip of the needle, and speaks largely of the horizontal deviation from the plane of the meridian, and attributes it to the attraction of a point, not in the heavens, but in the earth, and describes methods by which he hoped to find its place. To the third, and all subsequent editions of Norman's book (called the *new attractive*), was subjoined a dissertation by Mr Borroughs, on the variation of the compass, in which are recorded the quantity of this deviation in many places; and he laments the obstacle which it causes to navigation by its total uncertainty previous to observation. Observations were made from time to time, and published in the subsequent treatises on navigation. But in 1635, the mariners were thrown into a new and great perplexity, by the publication of a *Discourse mathematical on the variation of the Magnetical Needle*, by Mr Henry Gillebrand, Gresham professor of astronomy. He had compared the variations observed at London by Burroughs, Gunter, and himself, and found that the north end of the mariner's needle was gradually drawing more to the westward, and it has been found to deviate more and more to the westward ever since, as may be seen from the following little table in Waddington's Navigation.

London.

1576 Norm.	11° 15' E.
1580 Burr.	11 17
1622 Gunt.	6 12
1634 Gilleb.	4 5
1663	0 0
1666 Sellers	0 34 W.
1670	2 06
1672	2 30
1700	9 40
1720	13 —
1740	16 10
1760	19 30
1774	22 20
1778 Phil. Tr.	22 11

The celebrated Halley recommended the matter in the most earnest manner to the attention of government; and, after much solicitation obtained a ship to be sent on a voyage of discovery for this very purpose. In this vessel he repeatedly traversed the Atlantic Ocean, and went as far as the 50th degree of southern latitude. See his speculations on this subject in the Phil. Trans.

1683 and 1692. Having collected a prodigious number of observations made by others, and compared them with his own, he published in 1700 a synoptical account of them in a very ingenious form of a sea chart, where the ocean was crossed by a number of lines passing through those places where the compass had the same deviation. Thus, in every point of one line there was no variation in 1700; in every point of another line the compass had 20 degrees of east variation; and in every point of a third line it had 20° of west variation. These lines have since been called *Halleyan lines*, or *curves*. This chart was surely very valuable; yet the author himself pointed out objections to it. He stated that the change of variation was very different in different places, and in the same place at different times; and confessed that he had not discovered any general principle by which these changes could be connected. But the *Chart* was of immense use; although it became gradually less valuable, and in 1745 was exceedingly erroneous.

This made Messrs Mountain and Dodson, fellows of the Royal Society, apply to the admiralty and to the great trading companies for permission to inspect their records, and to extract from them the observations of the variations made by their officers. They got all the assistance they could demand; and, after having compared above 50,000 observations, they composed new variation charts, fitted for 1745 and 1756.

(3.) VARIATION OF THE COMPASS, CAUSE OF. Cortes ascribed the variation of the needle to the attraction of an eccentric point, and Bond thought this point was placed not in the heavens, but in the earth. This notion made the basis of the famous Theory of Magnetism of Dr Gilbert of Colchester, published about A. D. 1600: He asserted that the earth was a great magnet, and that all the phenomena of the mariner's compass were the effects of this magnetism. He showed at least that these phenomena were precisely such as would result from such a constitution of the earth; that is, that the positions of the mariner's needle in different parts of the earth were precisely the same with those of a small magnet similarly situated with respect to a very large one. Although he had made more magnetic experiments than all that had gone before him put together, still the magnetical phenomena were but little known till long after. But Gilbert's theory (for so it must be truly esteemed) of the magnetical phenomena is now completely confirmed. The whole of it may be understood from the following general proposition. Let *NS* (Pl. CCCXXXIX. fig. 1.) be a magnet, of which *N* is the north and *S* the south pole: Let *ns* be any oblong piece of iron, poised on a point *c* like a compass needle. It will arrange itself in a position *ncs* precisely the same with that which would be assumed by a compass needle of the same size and shape, having *n* for its north and *s* its south pole. And while the piece of iron remains in this position, it will be in all respects a magnet similar to the real compass needle. The pole *n* will attract the south pole of a small magnetical needle, and respect its north pole. If a paper be held over *ns*, and fine iron filings be strewed on it, they will arrange themselves into curves issuing from one of its ends and terminating at the other, in the same manner as they will do when strewed on a paper held over a real compass needle. But this magnetism is quite temporary; for if the piece of iron *ns* be turned the other way, placing *n* where *s* now is, it will remain there, and will exhibit the same phenomena. We may here add, that if *ns* be almost infinitely small in comparison of *NS*, the line *ns* will be in such a position that if *sa*, *sb*, be drawn parallel to *Nc*, *Sc*, we shall have *sa* to *sb* as the force of the pole *N* to the force of the pole *S*. And this is the true cause of that curious disposition of iron filings when strewed round a magnet. Each fragment becomes a momentary magnet, and arranges itself in the true magnetic direction; and when so arranged, attracts the two adjoining fragments, and co-operates with forces, which also arrange them. Now, to apply this theory to the point in hand: Let *ns* (fig. 2.) be a small compass needle, of which *n* is the north and *s* the south pole; let this needle be poised horizontally on the pin *cd*, and let *ns* be the position

sition of the dipping needle. Take any long bar of common iron, and hold it upright, or nearly so, as represented by AB. The lower end B will repel the pole n and will attract the pole s , thus exhibiting the properties of a north pole of the bar AB. Keeping B in its place, turn the bar round B' as a centre, till it come into the position A' B' nearly, parallel to $n' s'$. You will observe the compass needle $n s$ attract the end B' with either pole n or s , when B' A' is in the position B' A' perpendicular to the direction $n' s'$ of the dipping needle; and when the bar has come into the position B' A', the upper end B' will show itself to be a south pole by attracting n and repelling s . From this it appears, that the great magnet in the earth induces a momentary magnetism on soft iron, precisely as a common magnet would do. Therefore (says Dr Gilbert) it induces permanent magnetism on magnetisable ores of iron, such as loadstones, in the same manner as a great loadstone would do; and it affects the magnetism already imparted to a piece of tempered steel precisely as any other great magnet would. Therefore the needle in every part of the world arranges itself in the magnetic direction, so that, if poised as a dipping needle should be, it will be a tangent to one of the curves N & S of fig. 1. The horizontal needle being so poised as to be capable of playing only in a horizontal plane, will only arrange itself in the plane of the triangle N & S. That end of it which has the same magnetism with the south pole S of the great magnet included in the earth will be turned towards its north pole N. Therefore what we call the north pole of a needle or magnet really has the magnetism of the south pole of the great primitive magnet. If the line NS be called the axis, and N and S the poles of this great magnet, the plane of any one of these curves N & S will cut the earth's surface in the circumference of a circle, great or small, according as the plane does or does not pass through the centre of the earth. Dr Halley first imagined, that the north pole of the great magnet or loadstone which was included in the bowels of the earth was not far from Baffin's Bay, and its south pole in the Indian Ocean south-west from New Zealand. But he could not find any positions of these two poles which would give the needle that particular position which it was observed to assume in different parts of the world; and he concluded that the great terrestrial loadstone had four irregular poles (a thing not unseeing in natural loadstones, and easily producible at pleasure), two of which are stronger, and two weaker. When the compass is at a great distance from the two north poles, it is affected so as to be directed nearly in a plane passing through the strongest. But if we approach it much more to the weakest, the greater vicinity will compensate for the smaller absolute force of the weak pole, and occasion considerable irregularities. The appearances are favourable to this opinion. If this be the real constitution of the great magnet, it is almost a desperate task to ascertain by computation what will be the position of the needle. Dr Halley endeavours to account for the change of variation, by supposing this internal magnet not to adhere to the external shell which we inhabit, but to form a

nucleus or kernel detached from it on all sides and to be so poised as to revolve freely round an axis, of which we hoped to discover the position by observation of the compass. The philosopher will find nothing in this ingenious hypothesis inconsistent with our knowledge of nature. Dr Halley imagined that the nucleus revolved from east to west round the same axis with the earth. Thus the poles of the magnet would change their positions relatively to the earth's surface, and this would change the direction of the compass needle. The great Euler undertook to ascertain the position of the needle in every part of the earth. But he found the four poles would engage him in an analysis which would be excessively intricate, and has contented himself with computing for two only; observing that this supposition agrees so well with observation, that it is highly probable that this is the real constitution of the terrestrial magnet, and that the coincidence would have been perfect if he had hit on the due positions of the two poles. He places one of them in lat. 76° north, and long. 96° west from Tenerife. The south pole is placed in lat. 58° south, and long. 158° west from Tenerife. These are their situations for 1757.—Mr Euler has annexed to his dissertation on the 13th vol. Mem. R. A. Berlin, a chart of Halleyan curves suited to these assumptions, and fitted to the year 1757. Since then, another large variation chart has been published, fitted to a late period; but it is unaccompanied by authorities.

(4.) VARIATION OF THE COMPASS, DAILY.

This was first observed by Mr George Graham, in 1722, (*Philosophical Transactions*, N^o 383), and reported to the Royal Society of London. It usually moves (at least in Europe) to the westward from 8 morning till 2 P. M. and then gradually returns to its former situation. The diurnal variations are seldom less than 6° , and often much greater. Mr Graham mentions (*Philosophical Transactions*, N^o 428.) some observations by a Captain Hume, in a voyage to America, where he found the variation greatest in the afternoon. This being a general phenomenon, has also attracted the attention of philosophers. The most detailed accounts of it to be met with are those of Mr Canton, in *Philosophical Transactions*, Vol. LI. Part 2. p. 399, and those of Van Swinden, in his *Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism*. From the observations of Mr Canton, it appears, that although there be great irregularities in this diurnal change of position of the mariner's needle, there is a certain average, which is kept up with considerable steadiness. The following was the average of greatest daily change of position in the different months of the year, observed in his house Spital Square, in 1759.

January 7'	8'	May 13'	—'	Sep. 11'	43"
February 8	58	June 13	21	Oct. 10	36
March 11	27	July 13	14	Nov. 8	9
April 12	26	August 12	19	Dec. 6	58

Mr Canton attempts to account for these changes of position, by observing that the force of a magnet is weakened by heat. A small magnet being placed near a compass needle, ENE. from it, so as to make it deflect 45° from the natural position, the

the magnet was covered with a brass vessel, into which hot water was poured. The needle gradually receded from the magnet $\frac{1}{2}$ this of a degree, and returned gradually to its place as the water cooled. This is confirmed by uniform experience. The parts of the earth to the eastward are first heated in the morning, and therefore the force of the earth is weakened, and the needle is made to move to the westward. But as the sun warms the western side of the earth in the afternoon, the motion of the needle must take the contrary direction. But this way of explaining by a change in the force of the earth supposes that the changing cause is acting in opposition to some other force. We do not know of any such. The force, whatever it is, seems simply to produce its own effect, in deranging the needle from the direction of terrestrial magnetism. If *Æpinus's* theory of magnetic action be admitted, viz. that a bar of steel has magnetism induced on it by propelling the quiescent and mutually repelling particles of magnetic fluid to one end, or attracting them to the other, we may suppose that the sun acts on the earth as a magnet acts on a piece of soft iron, and in the morning propels the fluid in the north-west parts. The needle directs itself to this constipated fluid, and therefore it points to the eastward of the magnetic north in the afternoon. And (to abide by the same theory) this induced magnetism will be somewhat greater when the earth is warmer; and therefore the diurnal variation will be greatest in summer. This change of position of the constipated fluid must be supposed to bear a very small ratio to the whole fluid, which is naturally supposed to be constipated in one pole of the great magnet, in order to give it magnetism. Thus we shall have the diurnal variation a very small quantity. This is departing, however, from the principle of Mr Canton's explanation; and indeed we cannot see how the weakening the general force of the terrestrial magnet should make any change in the needle in respect to its direction; nor does it appear probable that the change of temperature produced by the sun will penetrate deep enough to produce any sensible effect on the magnetism. And if this be the cause, we think that the derangements of the needle should vary as the thermometer varies, which is not true. The other method of explaining is much better, if *Æpinus's* theory of magnetic attraction and repulsion be just; and we may suppose that it is only the secondary magnetism (*i. e.* that of the magnetisable minerals) that is sensibly affected by the heat; this will account very well for the greater mobility of the fluid in summer than in winter. A great objection to either of these explanations is the prodigious diversity of the diurnal variations in different places. This is so very great, that we can hardly ascribe the diurnal variations to any change in the magnetism of the primitive terrestrial magnet, and must rather look for its cause in local circumstances. This conclusion becomes more probable, when we learn that the deviation from the meridian and the deviation from the horizontal line are not affected at the same time. Van Swinden ascribes them solely to changes pro-

duced on the needles themselves. If their magnetism be greatly deranged by the sun's position, it may throw the magnetic centre away from the centre of the needle's motion, and thus may produce a very small change of position. But if this be the cause, we should expect differences in different needles. Van Swinden says, that there are such, and that they are very great; but as he has not specified them, we cannot draw any conclusion.

(5.) VARIATION OF THE COMPASS, OCCASIONED BY AURORÆ BOREALES. The aurora borealis is observed (in Europe) to disturb the needle exceedingly, sometimes drawing it several degrees from its position. It is always observed to increase its deviation from the meridian, that is, an aurora borealis makes the needle point more westerly. This disturbance sometimes amounts to six or seven degrees, and is generally observed to be greatest when the aurora borealis is most remarkable. This is a very curious phenomenon, and we have not been able to find any connection between this meteor and the position of a magnetic needle. It is to be observed, that a needle of copper or wood, or any substance besides iron, is not affected. We long thought it an electric phenomenon, and that the needle was affected as any other body balanced in the same manner would be; but a copper needle would then be affected. Indeed it may still be doubted whether the aurora borealis be an electric phenomenon. They are very frequent and remarkable in Sweden; and yet Bergman says, that he never observed any electric symptoms about them, though in the mean time the magnetic needle was greatly affected. We see the needle frequently disturbed both from its general annual position, and from the change made on it by the diurnal variation. This is probably the effect of auroræ boreales which are invisible, either on account of thick weather or day light. Van Swinden says, he seldom or never failed to observe auroræ boreales immediately after any anomalous motion of the needle; and concluded that there had been one at the time, though he could not see it. Since no needle but a magnetic one is affected by the aurora borealis, we may conclude that there is some natural connection between this meteor and magnetism. This should farther incite us to observe the circumstance formerly mentioned, viz. that the south end of the dipping needle points to that part of the heavens where the rays of the aurora appear to converge. We wish that this were diligently observed in places which have very different variation and dip of the mariner's needle. For the diurnal, and this irregular variation, consult the *Dissertations of Celsius* and of *Hiorter*, in the *Memoirs of Stockholm*; *Wargentin, Philosophical Transactions*, Vol. 48. *Braun (Comment Petropol. Novi, T. V. VII. IX.)*; *Graham* and *Canton* as above.

(6.) VARIATION OF CURVATURE, in geometry, is used for that inequality or change which takes place in the curvature of all curves except the circle, by which their curvature is more or less in different parts of them; and this variation constitutes the quality of the curvature of any line.

VARICOCELE. See SURGERY, *Index*.

(1.) * VARICOUS.

(1.) * **VARICOUS**, *adj.* [*varicosus*, Lat.] Dif-
fused with dilatation.—There are instances of one
einz only being *various*. *Sharp*.

(2.) **VARICOUS**, or **VARICOSE**. See **SURGERY**,
index.

* **TO VARIEGATE**. *v. a.* [*variegatus*, school
Latin.] To diversify; to stain with different co-
lours.—A white spar, which *variegates*. *Woodw.*
—*Variegated* marble. *Arbuth.*

Ladies, like *variegated* tulips, shew,
’Tis to the changes half the charms we owe.

* **VARIATION**. *n. f.* [from *variegare*.] Di-
versity of colours.—The tulips will soon lose their
variations. *Evelyn*.

(1.) * **VARIETY**. *n. f.* [*variété*, Fr. *varietas*,
Latin.] 1. Change; succession of one thing to
another; intermixture of one thing with another.

All forts are here that all th’ earth yields
Variety without end.

—*Variety* is nothing else but a continued novelty.

South.—*Variety* of colours. *Newton*. 2. One thing
of many by which *variety* is made. In this sense
it has a plural.—*Varieties* which the earth bringeth
forth. *Religib.* 3. Difference; dissimilitude.—*Vari-*
ety in tempers. *Atter*. 4. Variation; deviation;
change from a former state.—*Suppositions* of a
state, in things, from what they now appear.

Hale. 5. Many and different kinds.—*Variety* of
good. *Law*.

(2.) **VARIETY**, or **VARIETAS**, in botany, is a
change in some less essential part or quality; as
colour, size, pubescence, or age.—Externally; by
the plaiting or interweaving of the branches—by
bundling or uniting of several stalks into one broad
flat one; by the greater breadth, or narrowness,
or curling of leaves—by becoming awnless, or
smooth, or hirsute. Internally; by becoming mu-
tulated in the corolla; or having one larger than
ordinary—by luxuriance, multiplication, or ful-
ness—by becoming profligate, or crested—by
bearing bulbs instead of seeds—or being vivipa-
rous. The usual causes of variation are, climate,
oil, exposure, heat, cold, winds, and culture; and
often *disease*; hence **MORBUS**, in botany, is syno-
nymous with *Varietas*.

VARIGNON, Peter DE, mathematician, born
at Caen, in 1654. He was geometrician at the
Academy of Sciences at Paris, and professor of
mathematics in the College of Mazarin. He wrote
a treatise on mechanics, &c. and died 1722.

VARILLAS, Antony, historian, born at Gueret
in 1624. He wrote a history of France, anecdotes
of Florence, &c. and died in 1696.

VARINI, a people of Germany. *Tacit. de Ger.*

(1.) **VARIOLÆ**, the small-pox. See **MEDICINE**,
index.

(2.) **VARIOLÆ VACCINÆ**, or **COW-POX**, the
same commonly given to a very singular disease,
which has occupied a great share of the attention
of medical men. It has been many years preva-
lent in some of the great dairy counties in Eng-
land, particularly Gloucestershire; and it has been
long understood by the farmers and others in
these counties, that it for ever exempts all per-
sons who have been infected with it, from the
contagion of small-pox. Dr JENNER was the first

person who made this fact practically certain, by
introducing the vaccine inoculation. The fol-
lowing is an abstract of his account of the disem-
per: There is a disease to which the horse is
frequently subject. The farriers have termed it
the grease. It is an inflammation and swelling in
the heel, discharging matter. In the dairy county
of Gloucestershire, a great number of cows are
kept, and the office of milking is performed indis-
criminately by men and maid servants. One of
the former having been appointed to apply dress-
ings to the heels of a horse affected with *the*
grease, incautiously bears his part in milking the
cows with some particles of the infectious matter
adhering to his fingers. When this is the case,
it commonly happens that a disease is communi-
cated to the cows, and from the cows to the dai-
ry maids, which spreads through the farm, until
most of the cattle and domesticks feel its unplea-
sant consequences. This disease has obtained the
name of the cow-pox. It appears on the nipples
of the cows in the form of irregular pustules. At
their first appearance they are commonly of a pa-
lisch blue, or rather of a colour somewhat ap-
proaching to livid, and are surrounded by an ery-
sipelatos inflammation. These pustules, unless
a timely remedy be applied, frequently degenerate
into phagedenic ulcers, which prove extremely
troublesome. The animals become indisposed,
and the secretion of milk is much lessened. That
this disease originates with the horse, has been
disputed; but, as the fact is by no means ascer-
tained, the arguments on both sides are of minor
importance. The great question to be determin-
ed, is, whether this disease, when communicated
to the human subject, prevents the possibility
of future infection from small-pox; and happily
the weight of evidence arising from the experience
of several years universal practice, leaves little rea-
son to doubt that it does, although some medical
men of eminence persist in a contrary opinion.
The following remarks will be of use to the prac-
titioner. It is of the utmost consequence that the
matter employed should be the genuine vaccine
virus. Dr Jenner points out the following parti-
culars as sources of a spurious cow-pox: 1. That
arising from pustules on the nipples or udder of
the cow, which pustules contain no specific virus.
2. From matter, although originally possessing the
specific virus, which has suffered a decomposition,
either from putrefaction, or any other cause less
obvious to the senses. 3. From matter taken from
an ulcer in an advanced stage, though the ulcer
arose from a true cow-pox. 4. From matter pro-
duced on the human skin from the contact of
some peculiar morbid matter degenerated by a
horse. Many have remarked, that inoculation
with the vaccine matter is more apt to fail in
communicating the infection than with variolous
matter, especially if it be suffered to dry upon the
lancet before it is used. Care should therefore be
taken to moisten it a considerable time before it is
used. Danger may arise from mistaking the local
effects of the vaccine disease for its effects upon
the constitution. To guard practitioners against
this error, Dr Woodville makes the following re-
marks: “When a considerable tumour and an ex-
tensive redness takes place at the inoculated part,

C c c c

within

within two or three days after the infectious matter has been applied, the failure of inoculation may be considered as certain, as where neither redness nor tumour is the consequence. This rapid and premature advancement of the inflammation will always be sufficient to prevent the inoculator from mistaking such cases for those of efficient inoculation. But there are other circumstances under which I have found the inoculation to be equally ineffectual, and which, as being more likely to deceive the inoculator, require his utmost circumspection and discrimination. I here allude to cases in which it happens, that though the local affection does not exhibit much more inflammation than is usual, yet neither vesicle nor pustule supervenes; and in which, about the sixth or seventh day, it rapidly advances into an irregular suppuration, producing a festering or crustaceous sore. Care, however, should be taken to distinguish this case from that in which the inoculated part assumes a pustular form, though it continues for one or two days only, when the same appearances follow as those above described; for I have experienced the latter inoculation to be as effectual as where the tumour has proceeded in the most regular manner. The efflorescence at the inoculated part, which seldom intervenes before the eighth, or later than the eleventh day, is to be regarded as an indication that the whole system is affected; and if the patient has not felt any indisposition on or before its approach, he may be assured that there will not be any afterwards. When efflorescence does not commence till the 12th day, it is almost always attended with more indisposition than when it occurs on the eighth or ninth day. The efflorescence is more frequent in young infants than in children advanced to three or four years of age; and the former have the efflorescence and the disease more favourably than the latter, inasmuch that by far the greater part of them have no perceptible illness, and require no medicines. On the other hand, in adults, the cow-pox frequently produces headache, pain of the limbs, and other febrile symptoms, for 2 or 3 days, which are greatly relieved by a brisk purgative."

* **VARIOUS**, *adj.* [*various*, Latin.] 1. Different; several; manifold.—

Then were they known to men by *various* names,

And *various* idols through the heathen world. *Milton.*

2. Changeable; uncertain; unfixed; unlike itself.

Names are very *various* and doubtful. *Locke.*

3. Unlike each other.—

He in derision sets

Upon their tongues a *various* spirit. *Milton.*

So many and so *various* laws are giv'n. *Milt.*

Vast crowds of vanquish'd nations march along,

Various in arms, in habit, and in tongue. *Dryd.*

Various of temper, as of face or frame,

Each individual; his great end the same. *Pope.*

4. Variegated; diversified.—*Various* colours. *Milt.*

VARIVS, a Latin poet, intimate with Virgil and Horace, and appointed by Augustus to revise the *Eneid*. Some of his fragments are in Maittaire's *Corpus Poetarum*.

* **VARIOUSLY**, *adv.* [from *various*.] In a various manner.—*Variously* tossed by fortune. *Bacon.*

Various objects from the sense

Variously representing. *Milton.*

Those various squadrons *variously* design'd. *Dryden.*

—Different aliments, act *variously*. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) * **VARIX**, *n. f.* [Lat. *varice*, Fr.] In ulcers of the legs, accompanied with *varices* or dilatations of the veins, the *varix* can only be assisted by the bandage. *Sharpe.*

(2.) **VARIX**, in medicine, the dilatation of a vein, arising from too great abundance or thickness of the blood. See *SURGERY*, *Index*.

* **VARLET**, *n. f.* [*varlet*, old French, now *valet*.] 1. Anciently a servant or footman.—

Such lords ill example do give,

Where *varlets* and drabs so many live. *Tupper.*

A *varlet* running towards them hastily. *Spens.*

2. A scoundrel; a rascal. This word has deviated from its original meaning, as *far* in Latin.—

I am the veriest *varlet* that ever chew'd. *Shak.*

Where did'st thou leave these *varlets*. *Shak.*

Thou *varlet*, dost thy master's grains devour. *Dryden.*

—An impudent *varlet*, who was a private centinel resolved to try his eloquence. *Addison.*

* **VARLETRY**, *n. f.* [from *varlet*.] Rabble; crowd; populace.

Shall they hoist me up,

And shew me to the shouting *varlettry* *Shak.*

Of cens'ring Rome.

VARNA, a town of Bulgaria, capital of the territory of Drobugia with an Abp.'s see, and a harbour near the mouth of the river Varna on the Black Sea, 145 miles NW. of Constantinople.

(1.) * **VARNISH**, *n. f.* [*vernis*, French; *varnish*, Latin.] 1. A matter laid upon wood, metals, or other bodies, to make them shine.—

We'll put on those shall praise your excellence,

And set a double *varnish* on the same. *Shak.*

—*Varnish* makes cielvings not only shine, but last. *Bacon.*

This the blue *varnish*, that the green endears,
The sacred rust of twice ten hundred years. *Pope.*

2. Cover; palliation.

(2.) **VARNISH**, a clear limpid fluid, capable of hardening without losing its transparency, used by painters, gilders, &c. to give a lustre to their works, to preserve them and defend them from the air. A coat of varnish ought to possess the following properties: 1. It must exclude the action of the air; because wood and metals are varnished to defend them from decay and rust. 2. It must resist water; for otherwise the effect of the varnish could not be permanent. 3. It ought not to alter such colours as are intended to be preserved by this means. Resins are used as the basis of varnish. Resins may be dissolved by three agents. 1. By fixed oil. 2. By volatile oil. 3. By alcohol. And accordingly we have three kinds of varnish: the fat or oil varnish, essential varnish, and spirit varnish. Before a resin is dissolved in a fixed oil, it is necessary to render the oil drying. For this purpose the oil is boiled with metallic oxides; in which operation the mu-

cilage

ilage of the oil combines with the metal, while the oil itself unites with the oxygen of the oxide. To accelerate the drying of this varnish, it is necessary to add oil of turpentine. The essential varnishes consist of a solution of resin in oil of turpentine. The varnish being applied, the essential dries off, and leaves the resin. This is used only for paintings. When resins are dissolved in alcohol, the varnish dries very speedily, and is subject to crack; but this fault is corrected, by adding a small quantity of turpentine to the mixture, which renders it brighter, and less brittle when dry. The following are the ingredients in the different varnishes. For Toilet-boxes, Cases, Fans, &c.—Dissolve 2 oz. of gum mastic, and 8 oz. of gum sandarach, in a quart of alcohol; then add 6 oz. of Venice turpentine. For Wainscots, Canes, Chairs, Iron-chairs, Grates.—Dissolve, in a quart of alcohol, 8 oz. of gum sandarach, 2 oz. of seed lac, 4 oz. of rosin; then add 6 oz. of Venice turpentine. For Fiddles, &c. Put 4 oz. of gum sandarach, 2 oz. of lac, 2 oz. of gum mastic, 1 oz. of gum elemi, into a quart of alcohol, and hang them over a slow fire till they are dissolved; then add 2 oz. of turpentine. To employ Vermilion for painting Equipages.—Dissolve, in a quart of alcohol, 6 oz. of sandarach, 3 oz. of gum lac, and 4 oz. of rosin; afterwards add 6 oz. of turpentine. Golden-coloured Varnish. Pound separately 4 oz. of stick lac, 4 oz. of gamboge, 4 oz. of dragons blood, 4 oz. of annotta, and 1 oz. of saffron: put each of them separately into a quart of alcohol, and expose them for 5 days in a narrow-mouthed bottle to the sun, or in a very warm room, shaking them frequently. When all are melted, mix them together. In order to make silver imitate gold exactly when covered with this varnish, the quantity of ingredients must be somewhat greater. The method of gilding silver-leaf, &c. with this varnish, is as follows: The silver-leaf being fixed on the subject, in the same manner as gold-leaf, by the interposition of proper glutinous matters, the varnish is spread upon the piece with a brush or pencil. The first coat being dry, the piece is again and again washed over with the varnish till the colour appears sufficiently deep. What is called gilt leather, and many picture frames, have no other than this counterfeit gilding. For plain frames, thick tin-foil may be used instead of silver. The tin-leaf, fixed on the piece with glue, is to be burnished, then polished with emery and a fine linen cloth, and afterwards with putty applied in the same manner: being then lacquered over with varnish five or six times, it looks very nearly like burnished gold. The same varnish, made with a less proportion of the colouring materials, is applied also on works of brass. Oil varnishes.—Gum copal and amber are the substances principally employed in oil varnishes; as they possess solidity and transparency.—The copal is used for varnishing light, the amber for dark colours. It is best to dissolve them before mixing them with the oil. They should be melted in a pot on the fire; and are in a proper state for receiving the oil when they give no resistance to the iron spatula, and when they run off from it drop by drop. When the oil is well mixed with the copal or amber, take it off the fire; and when it is pretty

cool, pour in a greater quantity of the essence of turpentine than the oil that was used. After the varnish is made, it should be passed through a linen cloth. Oil varnishes become thick by keeping; but when they are to be used, it is only necessary to pour in a little essence of turpentine, and to put them for a little on the fire. The following are the most useful oil varnishes: White copal Varnishes.—On 16 oz. of melted copal pour 4, 6, or 8 oz. of linseed oil, boiled and quite free from grease. When they are well mixed, take them off the fire, and when pretty cool pour in 16 oz. of the essence of Venice turpentine. Amber varnish is made in the same way. For Coaches and Iron Work.—This varnish is composed of 2 oz. of bitumen of Palestine, 2 oz. of rosin, with amber, melted separately, and afterwards mixed; 6 oz. of oil is then added, and afterwards the turpentine, as directed above.—Golden-coloured varnish may be made also by substituting linseed oil for alcohol. Essential Oil Varnishes.—They are for pictures. They are usually made of gum mastic and turpentine dissolved together in some essential oil, and are applied cold to the picture. Varnish for Glass.—Pulverise a quantity of gum adragant, and let it dissolve for 24 hours in the white of eggs well beat up; then rub it gently on the glass with a brush.

(3.) VARNISH, DIRECTIONS FOR USING. Varnishes before they are used should be carefully kept from dust. When used, they should be sifted lightly with a brush, and spread upon a ground altogether free from dirt and moisture. The substance after being varnished, should be exposed to the heat of the sun, or placed in a warm room covered with a glass case. Oil varnishes require more heat than alcohol varnishes. The varnish should be put on very quickly, making great strokes with the pencil or brush, taking care that these strokes never cross one another; it should be spread equally, and never thicker than a leaf of paper: a second coat should not be put on till the first is quite dry. If the varnish, after being put on, becomes dull and uneven, it must be taken off entirely, and new varnish put on. When waincot is to be varnished, it is first painted of a wooden colour. This colour is made by infusing in water either red or yellow ochre (according to the colour wished for), terra ombria (a kind of ochre) and white lead; into this as much as necessary is put of parchment paste. Two thin coats of this are to be put on, and, after they are quit dry, the varnish. Varnishes are polished with pumice-stone and tripoli earth. The pumice-stone must be reduced to an impalpable powder, and put upon a piece of serge moistened with water; with this the varnished substance is to be rubbed lightly and equally. The tripoli must also be reduced to a very fine powder, and put upon a clean woolen cloth moistened with olive oil, with which the polishing is to be performed. The varnish is then to be wiped with soft linen, and, when quite dry, cleaned with starch or Spanish white, and rubbed with the palm of the hand or with a linen cloth. To recover colours or varnish, and to take off the dirt and filth which may adhere to them, a ley is used made of potash and the ashes of lees of wine. Take 48 oz. potash and 16 of the above-mentioned

ed ashes, and put them into 6 quarts of water, and the ley is made: instead of the ashes, an equal quantity of potash would probably do as well. To clean dirty colours, dilute some of this ley with 4 times its quantity of water, and rub the picture with it; then wash it with river water; and when dry, give it a coat or two of varnish. In order to take off a varnish, wash it with the above-mentioned ley, then with water, and then lift it off the substance on which it was with any iron instrument.

(4.) **VARNISH, CHINESE.** The Chinese varnish is not a composition, but a resin which exudes from a tree called in China *sh-chu*, "varnish tree." This tree grows in several provinces of the southern parts of China. They do not procure varnish from the *sh-chu* until its trunk is nearly 5 inches in diameter, which size it seldom attains to before 7 or 8 years. This liquor distills only in the night-time, and during the summer season. To cause the gum to flow, they make several rows of incisions round the trunk, the number of which is proportioned to the vigour of the tree. Shells are inserted into the incisions for the purpose of receiving the liquor distilled from them. They are made towards evening, and next morning they collect the varnish which has fallen into the shells; the following evening they are again inserted, and this operation is continued until the end of the summer. A thousand trees yield almost in one night 20 pounds of varnish. While the varnish distills, it exhales a malignant vapour, the bad effects of which can only be prevented by preservatives and great precaution. The merchant who employs the workmen is obliged to keep by him a large vase filled with rape-oil, in which a certain quantity of those fleshy filaments have been boiled that are found in hog's lard, and which do not melt. When the workmen are going to fix the shells to the trees, they carry some of this oil along with them, and rub their face and hands with it, which they do with greater care when they collect in the morning the varnish that has distilled during night. After eating, they wash their whole bodies with warm water, in which the bark of the chestnut-tree, fir wood, crystallized saltpetre, and some other drugs, have been boiled. When they are at work near the trees, they put upon their heads, a small cloth bag in which there are two holes, and cover the fore-part of their bodies with a kind of apron made of doe-skin, which is suspended from their necks with strings, and tied round them with a girdle. They also wear boots, and have coverings on their arms, made of the same kind of skin. The labourer who should attempt to collect varnish without using this precaution, would soon be punished for his rashness, and the most dreadful effects would ensue. The disorder shows itself by tetters, which become of a bright red colour, and spread in a very short time; the body afterwards swells, and the skin bursts and appears covered with an universal leprosy.—Besides the lustre and beauty which that varnish gives to many of the Chinese manufactures, it has also the property of preserving the wood upon which it is laid, especially if no other matter be mixed with it. It prevents it from being hurt either by dampness or worms. There are two methods of laying on the varnish;

the simplest is, when it is immediately laid on the wood. The work is first polished, and then daubed over with a kind of oil which the Chinese call *tong yau*. When this oil is dry, it receives two or three coats of varnish; which remain so transparent, that all the shades and veins of the wood may be seen through them. If the artist is desirous of entirely concealing the substance on which they are laid, nothing is necessary but to add a few more coats; these give the work a shining surface, the smoothness of which equals that of the most beautiful ice. When the work is dry, various figures are painted upon it in gold and silver, such as flowers, birds, trees, temples, dragons, &c. A new coat of varnish is then sometimes laid over these figures, which preserves them, and adds much to their splendour. The second method requires more preparation. The Chinese workmen fix to the wood by means of glue a kind of pasteboard, composed of paper, hemp, lime, and other ingredients, well beaten, that the varnish may incorporate with them. Of this they make a ground perfectly smooth and solid, over which the varnish is laid in thin coats, that are left to dry one after the other. It often happens, that the lustre of varnished tables and other pieces of furniture is insensibly destroyed by tea and warm liquors. "The secret of restoring to varnish its shining black colours (says a Chinese author) is to expose it for one night to a white hoar-frost, or to cover it some time with snow." For a method of imitating *Chinese varnish*, see TURNING.

(5.) **VARNISH, in numismatography**, signifies the colours antique medals have acquired in the earth. The beauty which nature alone is able to give to medals, and art has never yet attained to counterfeit, enhances the value of them. Some are blue, like the turquoise; others a bright vermilion colour; and others a shining brown, vastly finer than Brasil figures. But the most usual varnish is a beautiful green, which hangs to the finest strokes without effacing them, more accurately than the finest enamel does on metals. No metal but brass is susceptible of this; for the green rust that gathers on silver always spoils it, and it must be got off with vinegar or lemon juice. Falsifiers of medals have a false or modern varnish, which they use on their counterfeits, to give them the appearance or air of being antique. But this may be discovered by its softness.

(6.) **VARNISH, in pottery**, signifies a sort of shining coat, wherewith potter's ware, delft-ware, china-ware, &c. are covered, which gives them a smoothness and lustre. Melted lead is generally used for the first, and smalt for the second. See GLAZING.

* **To VARNISH, v. a.** [*verniffer, vernir*, French from the noun.] 1. To cover with something shining.

O vanity,

To set a pearl in steel is meanly *varnished*.

Sidney.

Thrust not your head into the public street,
To gaze on Christian fools with *varnished* faces.

Shak.

2. To cover; to conceal or decorate with something ornamental.

Speciou

Specious deeds on earth, which glory excites
Or close ambition *varnish'd* o'er with zeal.

Milton.

—They *varnish* o'er their non performance of good
actions by a pretence unto humility. *Fell.*

His manly heart was still above

Dissembled hate, or *varnish'd* love *Dryd.*

—Men *varnish* over and cover their deformity.
Locke. 3. To palliate; to hide with colour of
rhetorick.

They *varnish* all their errors. *Denb.*

Cato's voice was ne'er employed

To clear the guilty, and to *varnish* crimes.

Addison.

—Speak the plain truth, and *varnish* not your
crimes. *Philips.*

* **VARNISHER.** *n. f.* [from *varnish*.] 1. One
whose trade is to varnish.—An oil obtained of com-
mon oil may probably be of use to surgeons and
varnishers. *Boyle.* 2. A disguiser; an adorning.

Thou *varnisher* of fools and cheat of all the
wife. *Pope.*

(1.) **VARRO**, Marcus Terentius, a Roman
writer, was born B. C. 110. He served under
Pompey against the pirates, and obtained a naval
crown. He wrote a treatise on the Latin lan-
guage, and another *De Re Rustica*, which are ex-
tant, with some fragments of Menippean satires.
They were printed at Venice 1474, fol. and Rome
1537, 8vo. He died B. C. 29.

(2.) **VARRO**, Attacinus, the *Gaul*, a Latin poet
of the age of Cæsar, was born in Narbonne. He
wrote a poem *de Bello Sequanico*, and translated
into Latin, the *Argonautics* of Apollonius. Only
some fragments remain.

VARRONIA, in botany; a genus of plants be-
longing to the class of *pentandria*, and to the or-
der of *monogynia*; and arranged in the natural
system under the 41st order, *Aperisfolie*. The co-
rolla is quinquefid; the fruit a drupa, with a qua-
drilocular kernel. There are six species; none of
which are natives of Britain.

* **VARVELS.** *n. f.* [*vervelles*, Fr.] Silver rings
about the leg of a hawk, on which the owner's
name is engraved. *Diſt.*

VARUS, Quintilius, a Roman proconsul, com-
mander of the armies in Germany. He killed him-
self, A. D. 10, on his army being cut to pieces by
the enemy, under Arminius.

* **VARY.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] Change; alte-
ration. Not in use.—With every gale and *vary*
of their masters. *Shak.*

(1.) * **To VARY.** *v. a.* [*varior*, Latin; *varier*,
French.] 1. To change; to make unlike itself.—

Let your ceaseless change

Vary to our great Creator still new praise.

Milton.

2. To change to something else.—

Gods that never change their state

Vary oft their love and hate.

Waller.

—A *vary'd* posture. *Denh.*—We are to *vary* the
customs according to the time and country where
the scene of action lies. *Dryd.*

He *varies* ev'ry shape with ease

And tries all forms that may Pomona please.

Pope.

3. To make of different kinds.—God hath *varied*

their inclinations. *Brown.* 4. To diversify; to
variegate.—

God hath here

Vary'd his bounty so with new delights. *Milt.*

(2.) * **To VARY.** *v. n.* 1. To be changeable;
to appear in different forms.—

Darkling stands

The *varying* shore o' th' world. *Shak.*

2. To be unlike each other.—The constitutions
of nations *vary.* *Collier.* 3. To alter; to become
unlike itself.—*Vary* and try both ways in turn
Bacon.

So *varied* he, and of his tortuous train

Curl'd many a wanton wreath. *Milton.*

That each from other differ, first confess;

Next, that he *varies* from himself no less. *Pope.*

4. To deviate; to depart.—*Varying* from the right
rule of reason. *Locke.* 5. To succeed each other.—

While fear and anger, with alternate grace

Pant in her breast, and *vary* in her face. *Addiſ.*

6. To disagree; to be at variance.—

And *vary* thus in judgment of her seat.

Davies.

7. To shift colours.—

Will the falcon, stooping from above,

Smit with her *varying* plumage, spare the
dove? *Pope.*

VARZEY, a town of France, in the dep: of
Yonne, 32 miles from Auxerre.

VASARI, George, painter and architect, born
at Arezzo in 1514. He studied under Del Sarto
and Michael Angelo, and wrote the *Lives* of ce-
lebrated painters, sculptors, and architects, 3 vols
4to. He died at Florence, 1578. The treatise
on painting, Florence, 1619, 4to, was written by
a nephew of his.

VASCONES, an ancient people of Spain, on
the Pyrennees.

* **VASCULAR.** *adj.* [from *vasculum*, Latin.]
Consisting of vessels: full of vessels—*Vascular* so-
lids. *Arbutnot.*

* **VASCULIFEROUS.** *adj.* [*vasculum* and *fero*,
Lat.] Such plants as have, besides the common
calyx, a peculiar vessel to contain the seed, some-
times divided into cells; and these have always
a monopetalous flower, either uniform or disform.
Quincy.

(1.) * **VASE.** *n. f.* [*vas*, French; *vasa*, Lat.]
1. A vessel; generally a vessel rather for show
than use.—Each silver *vas*e in mystick order laid.
Pope. 2. It is used for a solid piece of ornamen-
tal marble.

(2.) **VASE**, a term frequently used for ancient
vessels dug from under ground, or otherwise found
and preserved in the cabinets of the curious. In
architecture, the appellation *vas*e is also given
to those ornaments placed on corniches, fochles,
or pedestals, representing the vessels of the an-
cients, particularly those used in sacrifice, as in-
cense pots, flower-pots, &c. See **PORTLAND**
VASE, § 10.

(3.) **VASE RIVER**, in N. America, falls into the
Mississippi, 55 miles NW. by N. from the mouth
of the Ohio, and is navigable about 60 miles.

(1.) * **VASSAL.** *n. f.* [*vassal*, French; *vassale*,
Ital.] 1. One who holds of a superior lord.—E-
very petty prince, *vassal* to the emperor. *Swift.*
—The

—The *vassals* bring their complaints to the viceroy. *Addison*. 2. A subject; a dependant.—She hath at her side a *vassal*. *Hooker*.—Such as they thought fit for labour, they received as *vassals*. *Spenser*.—Slaves and *vassals* to their pretended lords. *Davies*.—Passions ought to be *vassals*, not masters. *Ral*.

Vassals of his anger, when the scourge
Inexorable calls us to penance. *Milton*.

As all his *vassals* eagerly desir'd,
With mind averfe, he rather underwent
His people's will, than give his own consent.

Dryd.

—He subjugated a king, and called him his *vassal*. *Baker*. 3. A servant; one who acts by the will of another.

I am his fortune's *vassal*, and I send him
The greatness he has got. *Shak*.

4. A slave; a low wretch.—

Thou swear'st thy gods in vain,
O *vassal*! miscreant! *Shak*.

(2.) *VASSAL*, in our ancient customs, signified a tenant or feudatory person, who vowed fidelity and homage to a lord, on account of some land, &c. held of him in fee; also a slave or servant, and especially a domestic of a prince. See *FEO-DAL SYSTEM*.

* *VASSALAGE*. *n. f.* [*vasselage*, Fr. from *vassal*.] The state of a *vassal*; tenure at will; servitude; slavery; dependance.—

He renounc'd the *vassalage*
Of Rome again. *Spens*.

All my powers do their bestowing lose,
Like *vassalage*, at unawares encountering
The eye of majesty. *Shak*.

—They would have brought the Achæans from the conditions of followers and dependants unto meer *vassalage*. *Raleigh*.

Let us not then pursue
By force impossible, by leave obtain'd
Unacceptable, tho' in heaven, our state
Of splendid *vassalage*. *Milt*.

Cur'd *vassalage*,
First idoliz'd till love's hot fire be o'er,
Then slaves to those who courted us before.

Dryd.

VASSALBOROUGH, a town of the United States in Lincoln county, and State of Maine; on Kennebeck river.

VASSERBURG, a town of Bavaria, in the territory of Munich, seated on the Inn, and surrounded by mountains, 28 miles E. of Munich.

VASSI, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Marne, on the Blaise, 115 miles E. of Paris.

(1.) * *VAST*. *adj.* [*vaste*, Fr. *vastus*, Lat.] 1. Large; great.—*Vast* numbers of men. *Clarend*.—An ample and capacious mind takes in *vast* and sublime ideas without pain. *Watts*.

His open stores,
Though *vast*, were little to his ampler heart. *Thomson*.

2. Viciously great; enormously extensive or capacious.—Vicious language is *vast* and gaping, swelling and irregular. *B. Jonf*.—

About whom rust the billowes, blacke and
vaste. *Chapm*.

They view'd the *vast* unmeasurable abyss. *Milton*.

Others, with *vast* Typhæan rage more fell,
Rend up both rocks and hills, and ride the air
In whirlwind; hell scarce holds the wild uproar. *Milton*.

(2.) * *VAST*. *n. f.* [*vastum*, Latin.] An empty waste.—They shook hands, as over a *vast*. *Shak*.—Through the *vast* of heaven it sounded. *Milt*.

The wat'ry *vast*

Secure of storms, your royal brother past. *Pope*.

* *VASTATION*. *n. f.* [*vastatio*, from *vastus*, Lat.] Waste; depopulation.—This wild-fire made the saddest *vastations*. *Decay of Piety*.

* *VASTIDITY*. *n. f.* [*vastitas*, Lat. from *vastus*.] Wildness; immensity. A barbarous word.—

Through all the world's *vastidity*. *Shak*.

* *VASTLY*. *adv.* [from *vast*.] Greatly: to a great degree.—We grow *vastly* both in strength and treasures. *Temple*.—They differ *vastly* in their manners. *Wilkins*.—It is *vastly* the concern of government. *South*.

* *VASTNESS*. *n. f.* [from *vast*.] Immensity; enormous greatness.—

Behemoth, biggest born of earth, upheav'd
His *vastness*. *Milton*.

She by the rocks compelled to stay behind,
Is by the *vastness* of her bulk confin'd. *Wall*.
The *vastness* of my subject. *Glanv*.—The *vastness* of his draught. *Dryd*.—The *vastness* of the ocean. *Bentley*.

* *VASTY*. *adj.* [from *vast*.] Large; enormously great.—

I can call spirits from the *vasty* deep. *Shak*.

* *VAT*. *n. f.* [*vat*, Dutch; *fat*, Sax.] A vessel in which liquors are kept in the immature state.—

Plumpy Bacchus, with pink eyes,
In thy *vats* our cares be drown'd. *Shak*.

—*Vats* and tubs. *Addis*.—

Wouldst thou thy *vats* with gen'rous juice
Should froth,

Respect thy orchards. *Phillips*.

VATABLES, Francis, professor of Hebrew in the Royal college of Paris, was born in Picardy. His knowledge of Hebrew astonished the most learned Jews. He wrote notes on the Bible, which were condemned by the faculty of theology at Paris, yet are highly esteemed. The last edition was in 2 vols. fol. 1729. He died in 1547.

VATAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre; 8 miles from Issoudun.

VATERNISH POINT, on the NW. coast of the Isle of Sky.

VATERSAY. See *WATERSAY*.

VATICAN, a magnificent palace of the pope, in Rome, which consists of several thousand rooms; but the parts of it most admired are the grand staircase, the pope's apartment, and especially the library, which is one of the richest in the world, both in printed books and manuscripts.

VATICANUS, the hill at Rome on which the palace of the pope stands.

* *VATICIDE*. *n. f.* [*vates* and *cedo*, Lat.] A murderer of prophets.—

The catiff *vaticide* conceiv'd a prayer. *Pope*.

* *To VATICINATE*. *v. n.* [*vaticinor*, Latin.] To prophesy; to practise prediction.—The most admired of all profane prophets, whose predictions have been cried up so much, did *vaticinate* here.

Howell.

VATTEL.

VATTEL, N. a writer on the law of nations, was born at Neufchatel, and died in 1770, at Brussels.

VAVAOO, one of the Friendly Islands, in the S. Pacific Ocean.

* **VAVASSOUR**, *n. f.* [*vavasseur*, Fr.] One who, himself holding of a superior lord, has others holding under him.—Names have been taken of civil honours, as kings, knight, valuator, or *vavasser*, quire. *Camden*.

VAVASSOR, Francis, a Jesuit, was born in 1603. He taught rhetoric and theology at Paris; where he died in 1681. He wrote two Latin poems on the Burlesque, and Epigrams, and a life of Jesus.

VAUBAN, Sebastian le Prestre, lord of, a celebrated engineer. He displayed his knowledge of fortification in the course of many sieges, and his services were rewarded with the first military honours. He was made governor of Lille in 1668, commissary general of the fortifications of France in 1678, governor of the maritime parts of Flanders in 1689, and a marshal of France in 1703. He died in 1707. He wrote, 1. *The French Engineer*, 8vo. 2. *Treatise on the Attack and Defence of Places*, 8vo. 3. *Essays on Fortification*, 2mo. 4. *Political Testament of M. Vauban*.

VAUCLUSE, a fine spring, within 8 miles of Avignon, distinguished as the retreat of Petarch.

VAUCOLEURS, an ancient town of France, in the department of the Meuse, on the side of a hill watered by the Meuse, 150 miles E. of Paris.

VAUD, **PAYS DE**, a pleasant and rich country of Switzerland, on the lake of Geneva, in the civeant canton of Bern. Lausanne is the capital.

* **VAUDEVIL**, *n. f.* [*vaudeville*, Fr.] A song common among the vulgar, and sung about the streets. *Trev.* A ballad; a trivial strain.

VAUDIN BAY, on the E. coast of the island of Martinico.

(1.) **VAUDOIS**, **THE VALLEYS OF**, are in Piedmont; the chief town Lucerna. See N° 2.

(2.) **VAUDOIS**, **VALDENSES**, or *Waldenses*, in ecclesiastical history, a name given to a sect of reformers. The origin of this famous sect, according to Mosheim, was as follows: Peter, an opulent merchant of Lyons, surnamed *Valdensis*, or *Valdissus*, from Vaux or Waldrum, a town in the marquise of Lyons, being struck with the glaring contradiction between the doctrines of the pontiffs and the truths of the Gospel, abandoned his mercantile vocation, distributed his riches among the poor, (whence the Waldenses were called *poor men of Lyons*;) and forming an association with other pious men, who had adopted his sentiments and his turn of devotion, he began in the year 1180 to assume the quality of a public teacher. Soon after, the Abp. of Lyons, and others, vigorously opposed him, but without success; for the number of his followers daily increased. They formed religious assemblies, first in France, and afterwards in Lombardy, from whence they propagated their sect throughout the other provinces of Europe with incredible rapidity, and with such invincible fortitude, that the most cruel inventions of merciless persecution could not damp their zeal, nor entirely ruin their cause. They did not at-

tempt to introduce new doctrines into the church. They only wanted to reduce the form of ecclesiastical government, and the manners, both of the clergy and people, to that amiable simplicity and primitive sanctity that characterized the apostolic ages. They denied the supremacy of the Roman pontiff, and maintained, that the rulers and ministers of the church were obliged, by their vocation, to imitate the poverty of the apostles. They considered every Christian, as, in a certain measure, qualified and authorized to instruct, exhort, and confirm the brethren in their Christian course, and demanded the restoration of the ancient penitential discipline of the church, *i. e.* the expiation of transgressions by prayer, fasting, and alms, which the new-invented doctrine of indulgences had almost totally abolished. They at the same time affirmed, that every pious Christian was qualified and entitled to prescribe to the penitent the kind or degree of satisfaction or expiation that their transgressions required; that confession made to priests was by no means necessary; and that the power of delivering sinners from the guilt and punishment of their offences belonged to God alone. They looked upon the prayers and other ceremonies that were instituted in behalf of the dead, as vain, useless, and absurd, and denied the existence of departed souls in an intermediate state of purification; affirming, that they were immediately, upon their separation from their body, received into heaven, or thrust down to hell. Their rules of practice were extremely austere. They prohibited all wars, and suits of law, and all attempts towards the acquisition of wealth, the inflicting of capital punishments, self-defence against unjust violence, and oaths of all kinds. During the greatest part of the 17th century, those of them who lived in the valleys of Piedmont, and who had embraced the doctrine, discipline, and worship of the church of Geneva, were oppressed and persecuted, in the most barbarous and inhuman manner, by the ministers of Rome. This persecution was carried on with peculiar marks of rage and enormity in the years 1653, 1656, and 1696, and seemed to portend nothing less than the total extinction of that unhappy nation. But since 1730, they have not been openly molested. A popish church has been built in every parish, and they are very much oppressed with taxes and other burdens. The population of the valleys of Lucerne, Peyrouse, and St Martins, does not exceed 20,000, of whom 2000 are Catholics.

VAUDREVANGE, a decayed town of France, in the dep. of the Meurthe, on the Sare, 50 miles NE. of Nancy.

VAVANY, a river in Suffolk.

VAUGELAS, Claude Favre, lord DE, was born at Bourg, in Bresse, in 1585. He was Chamberlain to the duke of Orleans, and member of the French academy. He contributed to the *Encyclopedie*; and wrote *Remarks on the French Language*, and a translation of Q. Curtius. He died poor, in 1650.

VAUGHAN, Sir John, chief justice of the common pleas under Charles II. He died in 1674, and his reports were published posthumously.

(1.) * **VAULT**, *n. f.* [*vaulte*, Fr. *volta*, Italian; *voluta*, low Lat.] 1. A continued arch.—

Oh

Oh you are men of stone,
Had I your tongues and eyes, I'd use them so
That heav'n's *vault* should crack. *Shak.*
—The form of the habitable earth, which was the
outward surface of this *vault*, or the cover of the
bays. *Burnet.* 2. A cellar.—

Crawl into the kill hole;
He will seek there; neither preys, well, *vault*,
But he hath an abstract for the remembrance of.
Shak.

The wine of life is drawn, and the meer lees
Is left this *vault* to brag of. *Shak.*

Whether your fruitful fancy lies
To banish rats that haunt our *vaults*. *Swift.*

3. A cave; a cavern.—
The silent *vaults* of death unknown to light,
And hell itself lie naked to his sight. *Sandys.*

4. A repository for the dead.—
Shall I not be stilled in the *vault*,
To whose foul mouth no healthsome air breathes
in? *Shak.*

(2.) *VAULT*, in architecture, an arched roof, so
contrived that the stones which form it sustain
each other. Vaults are in many cases to be pre-
ferred to fossils or flat ceilings, as they give a great-
er height and elevation, and are besides more firm
and durable.

(3.) * *VAULT*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A leap; a
jump.

(1.) * *To VAULT*. *v. a.* [*vouter*, Fr. from the
noun.] To arch; to shape to a vault.—
Hath nature given them eyes

To see this vaulted arch, and the rich cope
Of sea and land? *Shak.*

2. To cover with an arch.—
Over head the dismal hills
Of fiery darts in flaming volleys flew,
And lying vaulted either host with fire. *Milton.*

(2.) * *VAULT*. *v. n.* [*voltiger*, Fr. *volegiare*, Ital.] 1. To leap; to jump.—

Faulting ambition, which o'erleaps itself. *Sh.*
The pretty vaulting sea refus'd to drown me,
Knowing that thou would'st have me drown'd
on shore. *Shak.*

He is vaulting variable ramps
In your despite, upon your purse. *Shak.*

—Vaulting into my saddle. *Shak.*—Leaning on his
lance, he vaulted on a tree. *Dryden.*—If a man
should vault down the monument. *Collins.*—Lucan
vaulted upon Pegasus. *Addison.* 2. To play the
tumbler, or posture-master.

* *VAULTAGE*. *n. f.* [from *vault*.] Arched
cellar. Not in use.—

He'll call you to so hot an answer for it,
That caves and womby vaultages of France
Shall chide your trespass. *Shak.*

* *VAULTED*. *adj.* [from *vault*.] Arched; con-
cave.—

Restore the lock! she cries, and all around,
Restore the lock! the vaulted roofs rebound.

Pope.

* *VAULTER*. *n. f.* [from *vault*.] A leaper;
a jumper; a tumbler.

* *VAULTY*. *adj.* [from *vault*.] Arched; con-
cave. A bad word.—

I will kiss thy detestable bones,
And put my eye-balls in thy vaulty brows,

And ring these fingers with thy household
worms. *Shak.*

The vaulty heav'ns so high above our heads.
Shak.

(1.) * *VAUNT*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Brag;
boast; vain ostentation.—Sir John in vain vaunts
of his own counsels. *Spenser.*—
Him induc'd

With other promises and other vaunts. *Milton.*
Such vaunts as his who can with patience
read. *Granville.*

(1.) * *VAUNT*. *n. f.* [from *avouant*, Fr.] The first
part. Not used.—Leaps o'er the vaunt and first-
lings. *Shak.*

(1.) * *To VAUNT*. *v. a.* [*vaunter*, Fr.] To boast;
to display with ostentation.—

Not that great champion,
Whom famous poets' verse so much doth vaunt.
Spenser.

Not any damsel which her vaunteth most
In skilful knitting of soft silken twine. *Spenser.*

My vanquisher spoil'd of his vaunted spoil.
Milton.

(1.) * *To VAUNT*. *v. n.* 1. To play the braggart;
to talk with ostentation; to make vain show; to
boast.—

You say you are a better foldier,
Let it appear so; make your vaunting true.
Shakespeare.

—Their vaunting in wisdom was reproved with
disgrace. *Wisdom*, xvii. 7.—

So spake the apostate angels, though in pain,
Vaunting aloud, but rack'd with deep despair.
Milton.

—*To vaunt* and overvalue. *Gov. of Tongue.* 2. I
scarcely know in what sense Dryden has used this
word, unless it be miswritten for *vaults*.—

'Tis he: I feel him now in ev'ry part;
Like a new world he vaunts about my heart.
Dryden.

* *VAUNTER*. *n. f.* [*vanteur*, Fr. from *vant*.]
Boaster; braggart; man given to vain ostentation.
To menage steeds, as did this vaunter. *Spens.*

Tongue-valiant hero! Vaunter of thy might,
In threats the foremost, but the last in fight.
Dryden.

* *VAUNTFUL*. *adj.* [*vant and full*.] Boastful;
ostentatious.—

Young Clarion, with vauntful luskied. *Spens.*
* *VAUNTINGLY*. *adv.* [from *vaunting*.]

Boastfully; ostentatiously.—
I heard thee say, and vauntingly thou spak'st it
That thou wert cause of noble Gloster's death.
Shak.

* *VAUNTURE*. *n. f.* [*avant mur*.] A false
wall; a work raised before the main wall.—With
another engine named the warwolfe, he pierced
with one stone, and cut, as even as a thread, two
vauntmures. *Camden.*—Daily attempting the *vaun-
mures*. *Knolles.*

VAUXHALL, a village of Surry, on the
Thames, celebrated for its public gardens.

* *VAWARD*. *n. f.* [*vau and ward*.] Fore part.
Obsolete.—

Since we have the *vaaward* of the day. *Shak.*
Their bands i' th' *vaaward* are the Antiates,
Of their best truth. *Shak.*

VAYER,

VAYER. See MOTHE, N° 3.
VAYVODE, or VAIVODE. See WAYVODE.
VAXUCO, or FOUNTAIN TREE. See PHILIP-
PINES, N° 1.

UBALDI, or USULDI, Guido, a noble Italian
narrquis, who flourished in the 16th century, and
published in 1578, a Theory of Mechanics. See
STATICS.

UBEDA, a populous town of Spain, in Andalu-
sia, in a fertile country. It is 18½ miles SE. of
Madrid. Lon. 3. 13. W. Lat. 37. 58. N.

UBERLINGEN, formerly a free and imperial
city of Suabia, given to the Elector of Baden in
the arrangement of indemnities in 1802. Near it
are famous baths. It is on a high rock, 12 miles
N. of Constance.

* UBERTY. *n. f.* [*ubertas*, Latin.] Abundance;
fruitfulness.

UBES, ST, or SETUVAL, a sea-port town of
Portugal, in the province of Estremadura, seated
on a bay of the Atlantic Ocean, at the mouth of
the Sandao, on the ruins of the ancient *Cedobriga*,
1 mile south of Lisbon. It stands on an en-
sine, with a very strong castle built on a rock.
The soil about it is fertile in corn, wine, and fruits.
The inhabitants make great quantities of fine salt.
It has 4 churches, 2 hospitals, 10 convents, an
academy founded by John V. and 10,000 inhabi-
tants. Lon. 81. 54. E. Lat. 38. 22. N.

* UBICATION. } *n. f.* [*ubi*, Latin.] Lo-

* UBIETY. } cal relation; whereness. A
cholastick term.—Relations, *ubications*, duration,
the vulgar philosophy admits to be something.
Ulanville.

UBIQUITARIANS, formed from *ubique*, "eve-
ry where," in ecclesiastical history, a sect of Lu-
therans which rose and spread itself in Germany;
and whose distinguishing doctrine was, that the
body of Jesus Christ is every where, or in every
place. Brentius, one of the earliest reformers, is
said to have first broached this error, in 1560.

(1.) * UBIQUITARY. *adj.* [*from ubique*, Lat.]
existing every where.—*Ubiquitary* commerce. *Hosw.*

(2.) * UBIQUITARY. *n. f.* [*from ubique*, Latin.]
one that exists every where.—Either Aquinas is
life, or the Papists *ubiquitaries*. *Hall*.

* UBIQUITY. *n. f.* [*from ubique*, Latin.] Om-
nipresence; existence at the same time in all places.
Human nature admitteth not *ubiquity*. *Hooker*.

Pim the might,

A solemn wight

As you would meet

In any street

In that *ubiquity*. *Ben Jonson*.

The *ubiquity* of which they could thrust into a
corner of their closet. *South*.

UBY, or POLU UBY, an island in the Indian
ocean, at the entrance of the bay of Siam, 20
miles in circumference with plenty of wood.
Lat. 105. 56. E. Lat. 8. 25. N.

UCAH, PORT, is on the NW. coast of North
America, on Washington's island, S. of Port Geyer.
UCHE, an Indian town on the Chata Uche river,
America.

(1.) * UDDER. *n. f.* [*uder*, Saxon; *uder*, Dutch;
ur, Latin.] The breast or dugs of a cow, or
her large animal.—

VOL. XXII. PART II.

A lioness, with *udders* all drawn dry,

Lay couching head on ground.

Shak.

The she goat,

Not without pain, dragg'd her distended *udder*.
Prior.

(2.) UDDER, in zootomy, that part in brutes
wherein the milk is prepared, answering to the
mammaræ or breasts in women. See ZOOTOMY.

* UDDERED. *adj.* [*from udder*.] Furnished with
udders.—

Marian soft could stroke the *udder'd* cow. *Gay*.

UDENSKOI, a town of Siberia, in Irkutsk,
1000 miles NW. of Pekin, and 1200 E. of Tobolsk.
Lon. 96. 30. E. Lat. 53. 0. N.

UDDEVALLA, a town of Sweden, in W.
Gothland. It contains about 3000 inhabitants,
who export iron, planks, and herrings. It is 50
miles N. of Gothenburg.

UDINA, or UDINS, a town of Maritime Aus-
tria, in Friuli, containing 16,000 inhabitants. It
is near the Tagliamento and Lisenzo, 55 miles N.
by E. of Venice. Lon. 13. 3. E. Lat. 46. 9. N.

UDNY, a parish in Aberdeenshire, about 7½ miles
square. The general appearance is pretty flat.
The soil is in general a deep loam, with a con-
siderable proportion of marshy ground, on a clay
bottom. Their are many lime stones and granite
in almost every farm. In 1793, the population
was 1137, decrease 185 since 1755.

* VEAL. *n. f.* [*veal*, a calf, *veeler*, *vester*, to
bring forth a calf, old-*Fr.* *vitellus*, Latin.] The
flesh of a calf killed for the table.—

Wouldst thou with mighty beef augment thy
meal,

Seek Leadenhall; St James's sends thee *veal*.

Gay.

VEBO VALENCIA. See MONTE LEONE.

(1.) VECHT, a town of Westphalia, in the late
bithopric of Munster, 30 miles N. of Osnaburg.

(2.) VECHT, a river of Holland, and the E.
branch of the Rhine, separating it from the ci-
devant province of Utrecht. It falls into the Zuy-
der Zee.

(3.) VECHT, a river of Germany, which rises
near Munster. It crosses the countries of Stenford
and Bentheim, and running through Overysfel,
falls into the Zuyder Zee, where it is called Swart
Water.

* VECTION. VEGETATION. *n. f.* [*vectio*, *vec-
tito*, Lat.] The act of carrying, or being carried,
—Lolling in chariots; a species of *vegetation* sel-
dom used among the ancients. *Arbutnot*.

VECTIS, ancient name of the Isle of Wight.

* VEGETATION. See VECTION.

* VECTURE. *n. f.* [*vectura*, Latin.] Carriage.
—*Vecture* or carriage. *Bacon*.

VEDAS, the sacred books of the Hindoos, be-
lieved to be revealed by God, and called immor-
tal. They are considered as the fountain of all
knowledge, human and divine, and are 4 in num-
ber. The *Rigveda* consists of 5 sections; the *Ya-
jurveda* of 86; the *Samaveda* of 1000; and the
Atbaraveda of 9; with 1100 *sa'ac'ba's*, or branch-
es, in various divisions and subdivisions. The
Vedas in truth are infinite, but have been long
reduced to this number and order: the principal
part of them is that which explains the duties of

D d d d man

man in a methodical arrangement; and in the 4th is a system of divine ordinances. From these are reduced the four *Upavedas*, the first of which was delivered to mankind by BRAHMA, INDRA, DHANWANTARI, and five other deities; and comprehends the theory of disorders and medicines, with the practical methods of curing diseases. The 2d consists of music, invented for the purpose of raising the mind, by devotion, to the felicity of the Divine nature; the 3d treats of the fabrication and use of arms; and the 4th of *sixty-four* mechanical arts.

VEDETTE, in war, a centinel on horseback, with his horse's head towards the place whence any danger is to be feared, and his carbine advanced, with the butt end against his right thigh. When the enemy has encamped, there are vedettes posted at all the avenues, and on all the rising grounds, to watch for its security.

VEEPE, St, a town in Cornwall.

VEER, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse. It is in the isle of Walcheren, and has a good harbour, 3 m. NE. of Middleburg.

(1.) * To VEER. *v. a.* 1. To let out.—It is a great point of art, when our matter requires it, to enlarge and *veer* out all sail. *B. Jonf.* 2. To turn; to change.—

I see the heavy night at hand;

Veer the main-sheet, and bear up with the land. *Spens.*

—Sailing farther, it *veers* its lily to the west. *Brown.*

(2.) * To VEER. *v. n.* [*vireo*, Fr.] To turn about.—

Nigh rivers mouth, where wind

Veers oft, as of the steers and shifts her sail. *Milt.*

And turn your *veering* heart with every gale. *Rofcommon.*

I have no taste of the noisy praife

Of giddy crowds, as changeable as winds;

Servants to change, and blowing with the tide

Of swollen successes, but *veering* with its ebb. *Dryden.*

And as he leads, the following navy *veers*. *Dryden.*

—The turns and *veerings* of the people. *Addison.*

—The wind *veered* about. *Derb.*

(3.) To VEER AND HULL, to pull a rope tight,

by drawing it in and slackening it alternately, till

the body to which it is applied acquires an additional

motion, like the increased vibrations of a

pendulum, so that the rope is straitened to a greater

tension with more facility and dispatch. This

method is particularly used in hauling the bow-

lines. The wind is said to *veer* and haul when it

alters its direction, and becomes more or less fair.

Thus it is said to *veer* aft and to haul forward.

VEERING, or WEARING, the operation by

which a ship, in changing her course from one

board to the other, turns her stern to windward.

Hence it is used in opposition to TACKING,

wherein the head is turned to the wind, and the

stern to leeward. See SEAMANSHIP.

VEGA. Lopez Felix de, a Spanish poet was

born at Madrid of a noble family, in 1562. He

became secretary to the Duke of Alva, and after-

wards served on board the Armada, destined for

the invasion of England. After having lost two

wives, he entered into orders. Pope Urban VII. created him D. D. and bestowed on him the cross of the order of Malta, and a place in the apostolic exchequer. He died in 1635. His principal performances are comedies, which were acted with great success, and procured him a considerable fortune. His invention was so fertile that he sometimes wrote a comedy in a single day. He wrote several poems,—all his works make 25 vols.

* VEGETABILITY. *n. f.* [from *vegetable*.] Vegetable nature; the quality of growth without sensation.—Overcomes its *vegetability*, and converts it into a lapideous substance. *Brown.*

(1.) * VEGETABLE. *adj.* [*vegetabilis*, Lat.] 1. Belonging to a plant.—

The *vegetable* world, each plant and tree,
From the fair cedar on the craggy brow
To creeping moss. *Prior.*

—*Vegetable* juices. *Arbutnot.* 2. Having the nature of plants.—

Amidst them stood the tree of life,
High, eminent, blooming ambrosial fruit
Of *vegetable* gold. *Milton.*

—All animal and *vegetable* bodies. *Woodward.*

(2.) * VEGETABLE. *n. f.* [*vegetabilis*, school Lat.

vegetable, Fr.] Any thing that has growth with-

out sensation, as plants.—*Vegetables* are organized

bodies consisting of various parts, containing ves-

sels furnished with different juices, and taking in

nourishment from without, usually by means of a

root fixed to the earth, or to some other body, as

in the generality of plants; sometimes by means

of pores distributed over the whole surface, as in

sub-marine plants. *Hill's Materia Medica.*—

Let brutes and *vegetables* that cannot drink,

So far as drought and nature urges, think. *Wall.*

—Sensitives more than *vegetables*, and men more

than brutes. *Wilkins.*—In *vegetables* it is the shape,

we most fix on. *Locke.*—Other animated substances

are called *vegetables*, which have within them-

selves the principle of another sort of life and

growth, and of various productions of leaves,

flowers and fruit. *Watts.*

(3.) VEGETABLE FLY. See FLY, N° 9. and

INSECT, N° 10.

* To VEGETATE. *v. n.* [*vegeto*, Latin.] To

grow as plants; to shoot out; to grow without

sensation.—Some *vegetating* or prolific virtue.

Ray.—They would soon *vegetate*. *Woodward.*—

See dying vegetables life sustain,

See life dissolving *vegetate* again. *Pope.*

(1.) * VEGETATION. *n. f.* [from *vegeto*, Lat.]

1. The power of producing the growth of plants.

—Mineral matter, unfit for *vegetation*. *Woodw.*—

The fun, deep-darting to the dark retreat

Of *vegetation*, sets the flaming power

At large. *Thomson.*

Love warbles thro' the vocal groves,

And *vegetation* paints the plain. *Anon.*

2. The power of growth without sensation.—

Plants exceed animals in *vegetation* and fertility.

Hooker.—The *vegetation* of plants. *Ray.*

(2.) VEGETATION, in physiology the act where-

by plants receive nourishment and growth. The

process of nature in the vegetation of plants is ve-

ry accurately delivered by Malpighi: The egg or

seed of the plant being excluded out of the ovary,

called *pod* or *bus*, and requiring further fostering

and

and brooding, is committed to the earth; which having received it, not only does the office of incubation by her own warm vapours and exhalation, joined with the heat of the sun, but by degrees supplies what the seed requires for its further growth, as abounding everywhere with canals and sinuses, wherein the dew and rain water, impregnated with fertile salts, glide, like the chyle and blood in the arteries, &c. of animals. This moisture meeting with a new-deposited seed, is percolated, or strained through the pores or pipes of the outer rind or husk, corresponding to the secundines of the foetuses, on the inside whereof lies one or more, commonly two, thick seminal leaves answering to the placenta in women, and the cotyledons in brutes. These seed leaves consist of a great number of little vesiculæ, or bladders, with a tube corresponding to the navel-string in animals. In these vesiculæ is received the moisture of the earth strained through the rind of the seed; which makes a slight fermentation with the proper juice before contained therein. This fermented liquor is conveyed by the umbilical vessel to the trunk of the little plant; and to the germ or bud which is contiguous thereto: upon which a vegetation and increase of the parts succeed. From a number of experiments made by Mr Gough, and related by him in the fourth volume of the Manchester Transactions, it appears, that seeds will not vegetate without air; and that during their vegetation, they absorb oxygen, part of which they retain, and that carbonic acid is formed with the rest.

(3.) **VEGETATION, EXEMPLIFIED IN WHEAT.** The first day the grain is sown it grows a little turgid; and the secundine or husk, gapes a little in several places; and the body of the plant, being continued by the umbilical vessel to a conglobated leaf (which is called the *pulp* or *flesh* of the seed, and is what constitutes the flower) swells; by which means, not only the germ or sprout which is to be the future stem) opens, and waxes green, but the roots begin to bunch out; whence the placenta, or seed leaf, becoming loose, gapes. The second day, the secundine or husk, being broke through, the stem, or top of the future straw, appears on the outside thereof, and grows upward by degrees; in the mean time, the seed-leaf guarding the roots becomes turgid with its esculæ, and puts forth a white down. And the sif being pulled away, you see the roots of the plants bare; the future buds, leaves, and rest of the stalk, lying hid. Between the roots and the ascending stem, the trunk of the plant is knit by the navel-knot to the flower leaf, which is very soft, though it still retains its white colour and its natural taste. The third day, the pulp of the conglobated, or round leaf, becomes turgid with the juice which it received from the earth fermenting with its own. Thus the plant increasing in bigness, and its bud or stem becoming taller, soon whitish turns greenish; the lateral roots also break forth greenish and pyramidal from the aping sheath, which adheres chiefly to the plant; and the lower root grows longer and hairy, with many fibres shooting out of the same. Indeed here are hairy fibres hanging all along on all the roots, except on their tips; and these fibres are

seen to wind about the saline particles of the soil, little lumps of earth, &c. like ivy: whence they grow curled. Above the lateral roots there now break out two other little ones. The fourth day, the stem mounting upwards, makes a right angle with the seminal leaf: the last roots put forth more; and the other three growing larger, are clothed with more hairs, which straitly embrace the lumps of earth; and when they meet with any vacuity, unite into a kind of net-work. From this time forward the root pushes with more regularity downward, and the stalk upward, than before. There is, however, this great difference in their growth, that the stalk and branches find no resistance to their shooting up, while the roots find a great deal to their shooting downward, by means of the solidity of the earth; whence the branches advance much faster and farther in their growth than the roots; and these last often finding the resistance of a tough earth unfurmountable, turn their course, and shoot almost horizontally.

(1.) * **VEGETATIVE.** *adj.* [*vegetatif*, Fr. from *vegetate*.] 1. Having the quality of growing without life.—Creatures *vegetative* and growing, have their seeds in themselves. *Raleigh*. 2. Having the power to produce growth in plants.—Plants have a *vegetative* soul. *Wilkins*.—Homer makes deities of the *vegetative* faculties. *Broomer*.

(2.) **VEGETATIVE SOUL**, among philosophers, denotes that principle in plants by virtue of which they vegetate, or receive nourishment and grow.

* **VEGETATIVENESS.** *n. f.* [from *vegetative*.] The quality of producing growth.

* **VEGETE.** *adj.* [*vegetus*, Latin.] Vigorous active; spritely.—The soul was *vegete*, quick, and lively. *South*.—The faculties in age must be less *vegete* and nimble, than in youth. *Wallis*.

(1.) * **VEGETIVE.** *adj.* [from *vegeto*, Latin.] Vegetable; having the nature of plants.—

Nor rent off, but cut off ripe bean with a knife, For hindering stalks of his *vegetive* life. *Tusser*.

(2.) * **VEGETIVE.** *n. f.* [from the adjective.] A vegetable.—Hence *vegetives* receive their fragrant birth. *Sandys*.—

The tree still panted up th' unfinished part
Not wholly *vegetive*, and heav'd her heart.

Dryden.

VEGETIUS, Flavius Renatus, lived in the 4th century. He wrote Military Institutions which were printed at Paris 1762, 1800, and a treatise on the Veterinary art, which is in the *Rei Rustice Scriptores*, Leipzig, 2 vols. 4to.

* **VEHEMENCE.** *n. f.* [*vehementia*, Lat.] 1.

* **VEHEMENCY.** *n. f.* Violence; force.—

Universal hubbub wild

Of stunning sounds, and voices all confus'd,
— Assaults his ear with loudest *vehemence*. *Milton*.

2. Ardour; mental violence; terror.—*Vehemency* of affection. *Hooker*.—

The best persuasions

Fail not to use; and with what *vehemency*

The occasion shall instruct you. *Shak.*

—The *vehemence* of your affection. *Shak.*—*Vehemency* of expression. *Clarendon*.—

This pure cause would kindle my rapt spirits

To such a flame of sacred *vehemence*,

That dumb things would be mov'd to sympathy.

Milton.—This

—This *vehement* of his is most suitable to my temper. *Dryden*.

I hear him with a sacred kind of horror,

And tremble at his *vehement* of temper. *Addison*.

* **VEHEMENT.** *adj.* [*vehement*, Fr. *vehemens*, Latin.] 1. Violent; forcible.—Motions *vehement* or ponderous. *Bacon*.—Gold will endure a *vehement* fire for a long time, without any change. *Grew*. 2. Ardent; eager; fervent.—By their *vehement* intigation. *Shak*.—

I find

In all things else delight indeed, but such

As, us'd or not, works in the mind no change,
Nor *vehement* desire. *Milton*.

* **VEHEMENTLY.** *adv.* [from *vehement*.] 1. Forcibly. 2. Pathetically; urgently.—The Christian religion inculcates kindness *vehemently*. *Tillot*. (1.) * **VEHICLE.** *n. f.* [*vehiculum*, Latin.] 1.

That in which any thing is carried.—*Vehicles* of flame. *Addison*. 2. That part of a medicine which serves to make the principal ingredient potable.—The drink, or moistening *vehicle*. *Brown*. 3. That by means of which any thing is conveyed.—A *vehicle* to convey the meaning of a thing. *L'Esrange*.

(2.) **VEHICLE**, in pharmacy, is any liquid serving to dilute some medicine, in order that it may be administered more commodiously to the patient.

(1.) **VEGLIA**, an island in the Gulf of Venice, on the coast of Dalmatia, with a good harbour. It is pleasant and populous, and fertile in wine and silk; producing also good small horses.

(2.) **VEGLIA**, the only town in the island, N^o 1. seated on a hill on the sea coast, 110 miles SSE. of Venice. Lon. 14. 56. E. Lat. 45. 22. N.

VEIENTES, the inhabitants of **VEII**.

VEII, in ancient geography, a city of Etruria, long the powerful rival of Rome; distant about 12 miles to the NW. Taken after a siege of 10 years by Camillus; six years before the taking of Rome by the Gauls: and thither the Romans, after the burning of their city, had thoughts of removing; but were dissuaded from it by Camillus, (*Livy*.) It remained standing after the Punic war; and a colony was there settled, and its territory assigned to the soldiers. But after that, it declined so gradually, as not to leave a single trace standing. It was famous for the slaughter of the 300 Fabii on the Cremera (*Ovid*.) The spot on which it stood lies near Isola, in St Peter's patrimony. (*Holfstenius*.)

(1.) * **VEIL.** *n. f.* [*velum*, Lat.] 1. A cover to conceal the face.—

To feed his fiery lustful eye,

He snatch'd the *veil* that hung her face before. *Spenser*.

With gored hand, and *veil* so rudely torn.

Waller.

He cast a *veil* upon supposed grief. *Waller*.

As *veils* transparent cover, but not hide,
Such metaphors appear when right applied.

Granville.

She accepts the hero, and the dame

Wraps in her *veil*, and frees from sense of shame. *Pope*.

2. A cover; a disguise.—The borrow'd *veil* of modesty. *Shak*.—

And thro' the *veil* of words thou view'st the naked mind. *Dryden*.

—Cast a *veil* over those failings. *Addison*.

(2.) **VEIL**, in the Romish churches, in time of Lent, they have veils or curtains over the altar, crucifix, images of saints, &c. A veil of crape is wore on the head by nuns, as a badge of their profession: the novices wear white veils, but those who have made the vows black ones. See **NUN**.

* **To VEIL.** *v. n.* [*velo*, Latin. See **VAIL**.] 1. To cover with a veil, or any thing which conceals the face.—

Her face was *veil'd*, yet to my fancied sight

Love, sweetness, goodness, in her person shin'd. *Milton*.

—*Veil* their heads and faces. *Boyle*. 2. To cover; to invest.—

I desery

From yonder blazing cloud that *veils* the hill

One of the heavenly host. *Mil*.

3. To hide; to conceal.—

As half to shew, half *veil* the deep intent. *Pope*.

(1.) * **VEIN.** *n. f.* [*veine*, Fr. *vena*, Latin.] 1. In place of Dr Johnson's definition from Quincy, to save repetitions, See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

When I did first impart my love to you

I freely told you all the wealth I had

Ran in my *veins*; I was a gentleman. *Shak*.

Horror chill ran through his *veins*, *Shak*.

And all his joints relax'd. *Mil*.

2. Hollow; cavity.—

Down to the *veins* of earth. *Milton*.

—Let the glass of the prisons be free from *veins*.

Newton. 3. Course of metal in the mine.—There

is a *vein* for the silver. *Jab*. xxviii. 1.—

Part hidden *veins* digg'd up, nor hath this

earth

Entrails unlike of mineral and stones. *Milton*.

—A *vein* of gold. *Swift*. 4. Tendency or turn of

the mind or genius.—

Invoke the muses and improve my *vein*. *Waller*.

—The compass of our genius, and according to

our *vein*. *Dryd*. 5. Favourable moment; time

when any inclination is predominant.—Artizans

have their *veins* and times. *Wotton*. 6. Humour;

temper.—

I put your grace in mind of what you prom-

is'd me.—

—I am not in the giving *vein* to-day. *Shak*.

—He hath a satirical *vein*. *Bacon*.—

They among themselves in pleasant *vein*,

Stood scoffing. *Milton*.

Speak'st thou in earnest or in jesting *vein*? *Dryden*.

—The currier struck the usurer upon the right

vein. *L'Esrange*.—The *vein* I have had of

running into speculations. *Temple*. 8. Current;

continued production.—He can open a *vein* of

true and noble thinking. *Swift*. 9. Strain; qua-

lity. 10. Streak; variegation: as the *veins* of

the marble.

(2.) **VEIN**, among miners, is that space which

is bounded with woughs, and contains ore, spar,

canck, clay, chirt, croil, brownhen, pitcher-chirt,

cur, which the philosophers call the *mother of met-*

als,

als, and sometimes foil of all colours. When it ears-ore, it is called a *quick vein*; when no ore, *dead vein*.

* **VEINED.** } *adj.* [*veineux*, Fr. from *vein*.] 1. Full of veins. 2. Streaked; variegated.—Combs, finely *veined*. *Mortimer*.—The *veiny marble*. *Thomson*.

VEJOVIS, or **VEJUPITER**, a deity of ill omen at Rome. He had a temple on the Capitoline Hill.

VEIROS, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo.

VEJUPITER. See **VEJOVIS**.

VELA, a remarkable cape on the coast of Terra Firma, in South America. Lon. 71. 25. W. Lat. 12. 30. N.

VELARIUS, in antiquity, an officer in the court of the Roman emperors, being a kind of usher, whose post was behind the curtain in the prince's apartment, as that of the chancellor's was at the entry of the ballustrade; and that of the ostiarii at the door. The *velarii* had a superior of the same denomination, who commanded them.

VELASQUEZ, Don Diego, de Silva, painter, born at Seville in 1594. Philip IV. appointed him his first painter, and knighted him with a pension He died at Madrid in 1660.

VELAY, a ci-devant prov. of France, bounded on the N. by Foréz, on the W. by Auvergne, on the S. by Gevazdan, and on the E. by Vivarez. It now forms the dep. of Upper Loire.

VELDENTZ, formerly a town of Germany, now in the French dep. of the Sarre and Moselle. It is on the E. bank of the Moselle, 15 miles NE. of Friers. Lon. 7. 3. E. Lat. 49. 52. N.

(1.) **VELEZ**, a town of New Castile.

(2.) **VELEZ DE GOMARA**, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fez, and in the province of Eriff. It is the ancient **ACARON**. With a harbour on the Mediterranean, and a handsome castle, where the governor resides. Lon. 4. 0. W. Lat. 35. 0. N.

(3.) **VELEZ MALAGA** a town of Granada.

VELICALA, a town on the head of the peninsula of California, near the coast of the N. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 115. 50. W. Lat. 20. 35. N.

VELIKI-USTIUG, a prov. of Russia, in Vologda, of which Ustiug is capital.

VELINO, **MONTE**, a mountain, supposed to be the most lofty part of the Appenines, more than 8397 feet above the level of the Mediterranean; 46 miles NE. of Rome.

VELIOCASSI, an ancient people of Gaul.

VELITES, in the Roman army, a kind of ancient soldiers, who were armed lightly with a javelin, a cask, cuirass, and shield.

VELLA, in botany, **SPANISH CRESS**, a genus of plants, of the class of *Tetradynamia*, and order of *Siliculosa*; ranking according to the natural method in the 39th order *Siliculosæ*.

VELLARI, a people of Gaul.

VELLEDA, a woman worshipped among the Germans, in the age of Vespasian.

* **VELLEITY**, *n. f.* [*velleit*, Fr. *velleitas*, from *velle*, Latin.] *Velleity* is the school-term used to signify the lowest degree of desire. *Locke*.—The wishing of a thing is not properly the willing of it; but it is that which is called by the schools an imperfect *velleity*, and imports no more than

an idle, un-operative complacency in, and desire of the end, without any consideration of the means. *South*.

VELLEIUS PATERCULUS. See **PATERCULUS**.

* **To VELLICATE**. *v. a.* [*vellico*, Latin.] To twitch; to pluck; to act by stimulation.—Those smells do pull and *vellicate* the sense. *Bacon*.—Something *vellicating* a nerve. *Arbutnot*.

* **VELLICATION**. *n. f.* [*vellicatio*, Latin.] Twitching; stimulation.—All purges have a kind of twitching and *vellication*. *Bacon*.—A particular motion and *vellication* impress upon the nerves. *Watts*.

(1.) * **VELLUM**. *n. f.* [*velin*, Fr. *velamen*, Lat. rather *vitulinum*, low Latin.] The skin of a calf dressed for the writer.—The scull was very thin, yielding to the pressure of my fingers like a piece of *vellum*. *Wifeman*.

(2.) **VELLUM** is a kind of parchment, that is finer, even, and more white than the common kind. See **PARCHMENT**, § 2.

(1.) * **VELOCITY**. *n. f.* [*velocité*, Fr. *velocitas*, Latin.] Speed; swiftness; quick motion.—The *velocities* of the several planets. *Bentley*.

(2.) **VELOCITY**, in mechanics, swiftness; that affection of motion whereby a moveable is disposed to run over a certain space in a certain time. It is also called *celerity*, and is always proportional to the space moved. *Huyghens*, *Leibnitz*, *Bernoulli*, *Wolfius*, and the foreign mathematicians, hold, that the momenta or forces of falling bodies, at the end of their falls, are as the squares of their velocities to the quantity of matter; the English mathematicians, on the contrary, maintain them to be as the velocities themselves to the quantity of matter. See **QUANTITY**.

VELORE, a town of Indostan, on the Carnatic, 90 miles W. of Madras.

(1.) * **VELVET**. *adj.* 1. Made of velvet.—

This was moulded on a porringer,
A velvet dish. *Shak.*

2. Soft; delicate.—

Through the velvet leaves the wind,
All unseen, 'gan passage find. *Shak.*

Then being alone,
Left and abandon'd of his velvet friends;
'Tis right quoth he: thus misery doth part
The flux of company. *Shak.*

In distant wilds, by human eyes unseen,
She rears her flow'rs, and spreads her velvet
green. *Young*

(2.) * **VELVET**. *n. f.* [*veluto*, Ital. *villus*, Lat. *velours*, Fr.] Silk with a short fur or pile upon it.—

Clad in white velvet all their troops they led.
Dryden.

—Velvet, watered silk. *Locke*.

(3.) **VELVET**, a rich kind of stuff, all silk, covered on the outside with a close, short, fine, soft shag, the other side being a very strong close tissue. The nap or shag, called also the *velveting*, of this stuff, is formed of part of the threads of the warp, which the workman puts on a long narrow channelled ruler or needle, which he afterwards cuts by drawing a sharp steel tool along the channel of the needle to the ends of the warp. The principal and best manufactories of velvet are in France and Italy, particularly in Venice, Milan,

Milan, Florence, Genoa, and Lucca; there are others in Holland, set up by the French refugees; whereof that at Haerlem is the most considerable; but they all come short of the beauty of those in France.

* *To VELVET. v. n.* To paint velvet.—Verdure is good to velvet upon black in any drapery. *Peacocks.*

VELVETSTOWN, a town of Ireland in Cork, Munster.

VELUM PALATI. See PALATE, § 2.

VELURE. *n. f.* [*velours*, Fr.] Velvet. An old word.—A woman's crupper of *velure*. *Shak.*

VENA, mountains of Carniola, on the borders of Istria, S. of lake Czernie.

VENAFRO, a town of Naples, on the Volturno, 27 miles W. of Capua, and 43 N. of Naples. Lon. 14. 19. E. Lat. 43. 32. N.

VENAFRUM, in ancient geography, a town of Campania, founded by Diocorides.

VENAISSIN, a ci-devant county of France, lately belonging to the pope, now annexed to the empire, and included in the department of the Drome. CARPENTRAS is the capital.

(1.) * *VENAL. adj.* [*venal*, Fr. *venalis*, Lat.] 1. Mercenary; prostitute.—

This verse be thine, my friend, nor thou refuse

This, from no *venal* or ungrateful muse. *Pope.*
2. [from *vein*.] Contained in the veins. A technical word.—*Penal* blood. *Ray.*

(2.) *VENAL*, or *VENOUS*, in anatomy, something that bears a relation to the veins.

* *VENALITY. n. f.* [*venalité*, Fr. from *venal*.] Mercenariness; prostitution.

(1.) *VENASQUE*, a town of France, in the above county of which it was the capital, on the Nasque; 14 miles NE. of Avignon, and 12 NW. of Apt.

(2.) *VENASQUE*, a town of Spain, in Arragon, on the Eßora; 42 miles NE. of Jaca.

* *VENATICK. adj.* [*venaticus*, Latin.] Used in hunting.

* *VENATION. n. f.* [*venatio*, Latin.] The act or practice of hunting.—The manner of their *venation* we shall find to be otherwise than by sawing away of trees. *Brown.*

VENCATIGHERY, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore; 54 miles W. of Arcot.

VENCE, a town of France in the dep. of Var, 6 miles NE. of Grasse, N. of Antibes.

* *To VEND. v. a.* [*vendre*, Fr. *vendo*, Latin.] To sell; to offer to sale.—He expected to *vend* them. *Boyle.*

(1.) *VENDEE*, a dep. of France, bounded on the N. by those of Lower Loire, and Maine and Loire; on the E. by that of the two Sevrès; on the S. by that of the Lower Charente; on the SW. and W. by the sea. It is 60 miles long; on the W. 15 from N. to S. elsewhere about 50. It contains a part of the ci-devant prov. of Poitou. FONTENAY is the capital. Being much frequented by royalists, it suffered much during the revolution.

(2.) *VENDEE*, a river of France, which rises 8 miles NE. of Fontenay, runs through the above department, to which it gives name, and falls into the Sevrè, a mile from Marano.

(3.) * *VENDER. n. f.* [from *vend*.] One to whom any thing is sold.—If he sells his corn and the *vender* cuts it. *Ayliffe.*

VENDELOS, a town of Ceylon.

(1.) *VENDEN*, a mountain of Tirol.

(2.) *VENDEN*, a town of Russia, in Riga, on the Aa.

* *VENDER. n. f.* [*vendeur*, Fr. from *vend*.] A seller.—Where the consumption of commodity is the *venders* eat themselves. *Graunt.*—*Venders* of card-matches. *Addison.*

VENDEVIL, a town of France in the dep. of Aisne; 3 miles N. of Fere.

* *VENDIBLE. adj.* [*vendibilis*, Latin.] Saleable; marketable.—

Silence only is commendable

In a neat's tongue dried, and a maid not *vendible*. *Shak.*

—Profitable and *vendible* merchandize. *Carew.*—A metal *vendible* under a determinate name. *Boyle.*

* *VENDIBLENESS. n. f.* [from *vendible*.] The state of being saleable.

* *VENDIBLY. adv.* [from *vendible*.] In a saleable manner.

* *VENDITATION. n. f.* [*venditatio*, from *vendito*, Latin.] Boastful display.—Some by a cunning protestation against all reading, and *venditation* of their own natural, think to divert the sagacity of their readers from themselves, and cool the scent of their own fox-like thefts, when yet they are so rank as a man may find whole pages together usurped from one author. *Ben Jonson.*

* *VENDITION. n. f.* [*vendition*, Fr. *venditio*, Latin.] Sale; the act of selling.

VENDŒUVRES, a town of France, in the dep. of Aube: 10½ miles W. of Bar, and 15 E. of Troyes.

(1.) *VENDOME*, a town of France, in the dep. of Loire and Cher. In 1562 it was taken by the protestants, but was pillaged in 1586. It is seated on the Loire, 30 miles NE. of Tours, and 95 SW. of Paris. Lon. 1. 8. S. Lat. 47. 50. N.

(2.) *VENDOME*, Lewis Joseph, Duke of, a celebrated French general, was born in 1654. In 1697, he took Barcelona. In 1702 he superseded Villeroi in Italy, and gained several victories over the imperialists. In 1765 he defeated Prince Eugene at Cassano, and was on the point of taking Turin, when he was sent to Flanders, and there defeated by Marlborough. He then went to Spain, restored Philip to his capital, and took the English army under Lord Stanhope prisoners. He died in Spain in 1712.

VENDRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eastern Pyrenees.

VENDREL, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 25 miles WSW. of Barcelona, and 12 SSE. of Perpignan.

VENDRESS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes; 3 miles S. of Charleville.

VENEDI, an ancient people of Germany, near the Gulf of Dantzig.

* *To VENEER. v. a.* [among cabinet-makers.] To make a kind of marquetry or inlaid work, whereby several thin slices of fine woods of different

nt forts are fastened or glued on a ground of
 common wood. *Bailey.*

VENEERING, *part. n. f.* **VANERING**, or
venering, a kind of marquetry, or inlaying,
 whereby several thin slices or leaves of fine wood,
 of different kinds, are applied and fastened on a
 round of some common wood. There are two
 kinds of inlaying: the one, which is the more
 ordinary, is only making compartments of differ-
 ent woods; the other requires much more art,
 and represents flowers, birds, and the like figures.
 The first kind is what we properly call *veneing*,
 or the latter see **MARQUETRY**. The wood in-
 tended for veneering is first sawed out into slices
 or leaves, about a line thick. To saw them, the
 blocks or planks are placed upright in a kind of
 ice or sawing press. These slices are afterwards
 cut into slips, and fashioned according to the de-
 sign proposed; then the joints being carefully ad-
 justed, and the pieces brought down to their
 proper thickness, with several planes for the pur-
 pose, they are glued down on a ground or block
 of dry wood. The pieces thus joined and glued,
 he work, if small, is put in a press; if large, it
 is laid on the bench, covered with a board, and
 pressed down with poles, or pieces of wood, one
 end whereof reaches to the ceiling of the room,
 and the other bears on the boards. When the
 glue is quite dry, they take it out of the press and
 finish it; first with little planes, then with divers
 scrapers, some whereof resemble rasps, which
 take off dents, &c. left by the planes. When suf-
 ficiently scraped, the work is polished with seal-
 skin, wax, and a brush and polisher of shave-grass,
 which is the last operation.

* **VENEFICE**. *n. f.* [*veneficium*, Latin.] The
 practice of poisoning.

* **VENEFICIAL**. *adj.* [from *veneficium*, Latin.]
 Acting by poison; bewitching.—The magical vir-
 tues of misseitol, and conceived efficacy unto *ve-
 neficial* intentions, seemeth a pagan relique, de-
 rived from the ancient Druids. *Brown.*

* **VENEFICIOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *veneficium*,
 Latin.] By poison or witchcraft.—Left witches
 should draw or prick their names therein, and
veneficiously mischief their persons, they broke the
 shell. *Brown.*

* **VENEMOUS**. *adj.* [from *venin*, Fr.] Poison-
 ous. Commonly, though not better, *venomous*.
 —The barbarians saw the *venemous* beast hanging
 at his band. *As. xvii. 4.*

* **To VENENATE**. *v. a.* [*veneno*, Latin.] To
 poison; to infect with poison.—To *venenate* the
 blood. *Harvey.*—By calcination, the *venenate* parts
 are carried off. *Woodward.*

* **VENENATION**. *n. f.* [from *venenate*.] Poi-
 son; venom.—This *venenation* shoots from the eye,
 and this way a basilisk may poison. *Brown.*

* **VENENE**. *adj.* [*veneneus*, Fr. from *ve-*

* **VENENOSE**. *adj.* [*venenum*, Lat.] Poisonous; ve-
 nemous.—*Venene* bodies. *Harvey.*—Some *venenose*
 liquor, which infects shed upon leaves. *Rap.*

* **VENERABLE**. *adj.* [*venerabilis*, Fr. *venerabilis*,
 Lat.] To be regarded with awe; to be treat-
 ed with reverence.—Did thereby make the places
 where they died *venerable*. *Hooker.*—

To make the passage easy, safe, and plain,
 That leads us to this *venerable* wall.

Fairfax.
 Ye lamps of heaven, he said, and lifted high
 His hands, now free; thou *venerable* sky!
 Inviolable powers, ador'd with dread,
 Be all of you adjur'd. *Dryd.*

* **VENERABLY**. *adv.* [from *venerable*.] In a
 manner that excites reverence.—

The Palatine, proud Rome's imperial seat,
 An awful pile! stands *venerably* great:
 Thither the kingdoms and the nations come.

Addison.
 * **To VENERATE**. *v. a.* [*veneror*, Fr. *veneror*,
 Lat.] To reverence; to treat with veneration; to
 regard with awe.—

The shrine is that which thou dost *venerate*.
 And not the beast which bears it on its back.

Herbert.
 The lords and ladies here approaching paid
 Their homage, with a low obeisance made,
 And seem'd to *venerate* the sacred shade.

Dryden.
 —A good clergyman must love and *venerate* the
 gospel. *Clarissa.*—

Even the peasant dares these rights to scan,
 And learns to *venerate* himself as man.

Goldsmith.
 * **VENERATION**. *n. f.* [*veneration*, Fr. *veneratio*,
 Lat.] Reverend regard; awful respect.—
 The honour and *veneration* of the Creator. *Locke.*
 —Awe and *veneration*. *Addison.*

* **VENERATOR**. *n. f.* [from *venerare*.] Reve-
 rencer.—*Venerators* of nature. *Hale.*

(1.) * **VENEREAL**. *adj.* [*venereus*, Lat.] 1. Re-
 lating to love.—

These are no *venereal* signs. *Shak.*
 Vengeance is in my heart, death in my hand.

Shakespeare.
 Then sworn with pride, into the snare I fell
 Of fair fallacious looks, *venereal* train
 Soften'd with pleasure, and voluptuous life.

Milton.
 —They are averse to *venereal* pleasure. *Add.*—*Ve-
 nereal* distempers. *Blackm.* 2. Consisting of cop-
 per, called *venus* by chemists.—Vitriol, how *ve-
 nereal* and unsophistical however. *Boyle.*

(2.) **VENEREAL**, in medicine, belonging to *vene-*
 ry; as the lues *venerea*, &c. See **MEDICINE**, *Ind.*

* **VENEREOUS**. *adj.* [from *venery*.] Libidinous;
 lustful.—The male is very *venereous*. *Derk.*

VENERIE, a town of the French empire, in
 the dep. of the Po, and late Piedmontese, with a
 palace built by Emmanuel II, in which are car-
 ried on silk and woollen manufactures. It is 3
 miles NNW. of Turin.

VENERONI, John, was born at Verdun. He
 taught Italian at Paris; and, to pass for a Floren-
 tine, he changed his name to *Vigneron*. He was
 the author of an Italian Grammar, Dictionary,
 &c.

* **VENERY**. *n. f.* [*venerie*, from *vener*, Fr.] 1.
 The sport of hunting.—And follows other game,
 and *venery*. *Spenser.*—Beasts of *venery* and fishes.
Brown.—To make the new forest fitter for his
 pleasure and *venery*. *Howel.* 2. [From *Venus*.]
 The

The pleasures of the bed.—Lawful *venery*. *Grew*.

(1.) * **VENESECTIO**. *n. f.* [*vena* and *sectio*, Latin.] Blood-letting; the act of opening a vein; phlebotomy.—If the inflammation be sudden, after evacuation by purgatives, or a clyster and *venesection*, have recourse to anodynes. *Wifeman*.

(2.) **VENESECTIO**. See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

VENETI, a people of Italy, in Cisalpine Gaul, near the mouths of the Po. They were descended from a nation of Paphlagonia, who settled there under Antenor, some time after the Trojan war. See **NAVIGATION**, § 9.

(1.) **VENETIAN**, *adj.* Of or belonging to Venice.

(2.) **VENETIAN BOLE**, a fine red earth used in painting, and called in the colour shops *Venetian red*. It is dug in Carinthia.

VENETIANO, Dominic, a Venetian painter, who introduced oil painting into Italy, but communicating the secret to Castagno, he was murdered by him, that he might have the secret to himself.

* **VENEY**. *n. f.* [*venez*, Fr.] A bout; a turn at fencing.—Playing at sword and dagger, three *venezes*, for a dish of stewed prunes. *Shak*.

(1.) **VENEZUELA**, a province of S. America, in Terra Firma; bounded on the N. by the Gulf of Mexico, S. by New Granada, E. by Cumana, and W. by Hacha. It is very fertile, in corn, cotton, sugar, fruits, cocoa nuts, &c.

(2.) **VENEZUELA**, the capital of the above province, on a bay so named. Lon. 68. 50. W. Lat. 10. 35. N.

VENGAMBOUR, a town of Hindoostan in Mysore, 17 miles SE. of Errood.

VENGAPALEAM, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore; 11 miles NNW. of Daraporum.

* **To VENGE**. *v. n.* [*wenger*, Fr.] To avenge; to punish.—

You are above,

You justices, that these our nether crimes

So speedily can *venge*. *Shak*.

* **VENGABLE**. *adj.* [from *venge*.] Revengeful; malicious.—

A thrilant dart he threw,

Headed with ire, and *vengeable* despite.

Spenser.

* **VENGANCE**. *n. f.* [*vengeance*, Fr.] 1. Punishment; penal retribution; avengement.—To perjury *vengeance* is due. *Hooker*.—

All the stor'd *vengeances* of heaven fell

On her ungrateful top. *Shak*.

—To morrow's *vengeance* on the head of Richard. *Shak*.—Let me see thy *vengeance* on them. *Jerem*.

—*Vengeance* for former miscarriages. *K. Charles*.—

Jove and Latona's son his wrath exprest'd,

In *vengeance* of his violated priest. *Dryden*.

—The chorus implored *vengeance* on the criminal. *Addison*.—

Round him a crowd of threat'ning furies
stands

With instruments of *vengeance* in their hands.

Harte.

2. It is used in familiar language. *To do with a vengeance* is to do with vehemence. This phrase was formerly solemn and dignified; *what a vengeance*, emphatically *what* ?—

x

Till the day of respiration to the just

And *vengeance* to the wicked. *Milton*.
—The pope could teach him his duty with a *vengeance*. *Ral*.—

And with a *vengeance* sent. *Milton*.

But what a *vengeance* makes thee fly,

From me too as thine enemy. *Hudibras*.

VENGEFUL. *adj.* [from *vengeance* and *full*.] Vindictive; revengeful; retributive.—

Doubt not but God

Hath wiselier arm'd his *vengeful* ire. *Milt*.

Dissembling for her sake his rising care,

And with wise silence pond'ring *vengeful* wars.

Prior.

VENHUYSEN, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Texel, and late province of N. Holland; 4 miles SW. of Enckhuysen.

* **VENIABLE**. } *adj.* [*veniel*, Fr. from *venia*,

* **VENIAL**. } *Lat.* 1. Pardonable; susceptible of pardon; excusable.—

If they do nothing, 'tis a *venial* slip. *Shak*

—More *veniable* is a dependence upon potable gold. *Brown*.—

What horror will invade the mind,

When the strict judge who would be kind

Shall have few *venial* faults to find. *Reform*.

—I should rally the world out of indecencies and *venial* transgressions. *Addison*. 2. Permitted; allowed.—

No more of talk where God, or angel-guest,

With man as with his friend, familiar used

To fit indulgent, and with him partake

Rural repast; permitting him the while

Venial discourse unblam'd

Milton.

* **VENIALNESS**. *n. f.* [from *venial*.] State of being excusable.

(1.) **VENICE**, a celebrated city of Maritime Austria, and capital of a ci-devant republic of the same name, situated on the Lagunes or Small Islands, about 5 miles from the continent. It was founded about A. D. 451 or 452; when Attila, having destroyed the cities of Aquileia, Verona, Mantua, Treviso, &c. such of the inhabitants as escaped the slaughter fled to the islands on their coast, and there took up their residence. Historians are profuse in their commendations of the virtue of the Venetians during the infancy of their city. Nothing remarkable, however, occurs in the history of Venice for some time, excepting the change of government from the consular to the tribunitary form, which happened about 30 years after the building of the city. The republic first began to be of consequence after the destruction of Padua by the Lombards. About this time they were become masters of a fleet and a body of land forces. They engaged in a quarrel with the Lombards, and soon after distinguished themselves against the Ilirian pirates, who had committed depredations on their coasts; and the Tergestines or inhabitants of Trieste, who had suddenly carried off a number of the citizens of Venice. The city very soon arrived at a high pitch of affluence and power. In the war carried on by Justinian with the Goths in Italy, the Venetians gave considerable assistance to Narfes the Roman general, who expressed his gratitude by several rich presents, and by building two fine churches dedicated to the saint's Theodore and Germinian; the

the

the oldest public buildings, beside St Mark's and St Peter's, in Venice. From the time of Justinian to A. D. 697, historians are silent with regard to the Venetian affairs. A great revolution then took place in the government; the tribunes, having abused their power, were abolished; and in their stead was elected a *doge* or duke, in whom was vested the supreme authority. He was to represent the honour and majesty of the state; to have respect and distinction paid him beyond what the tribunes, or even the consuls, enjoyed; he was to assemble and preside at the great council; to have casting vote in all disputed points; to nominate to all offices, places, and preferments; and lastly, to enjoy the same authority in the church as in the state. Paul Anastasius Paoluccio was the first *doge*. He died in 717. This form of government was changed in 737, and a supreme magistrate chosen, with the title of *master of the horse* or *general of the forces*. His power was to continue only for a year, the shortness of its duration being thought a security against the abuse of it. But in five years afterwards the doges were restored, and John Fabricio, the 4th and last master of the horse, was deposed, and his eyes put out. Under the doges, the power and wealth of the Venetian republic continued to increase. In 764 the Heraclians and Jesulans, subjects to the republic, having formed some designs against the state, put themselves under the protection of Charlemagne. That conqueror, not finding it convenient to give them present assistance, settled them in Malamocco, until he could give them more effectual succour. The Venetians, however, disregarding the protection of that powerful monarch, attacked and instantly drove them out of Malamocco. Incensed at this, Charlemagne ordered his son Pepin to declare war against the republic. This was done; but the blow was for some time diverted by Astolphus king of the Lombards, who, committing great devastations in the territories of the pope, obliged Pepin to come to the assistance of his holiness. However, after having afforded the necessary succour to the pope, Pepin prosecuted the war with Venice. Upon which the Venetians declared themselves a free and independent state. But in 804 the war was renewed with the utmost fury. Pepin having quarrelled with Nicephorus the Greek emperor, and finding Obelerio the Venetian doge inclined to favour his adversary, he determined to exterminate the very name of the republic. After having laid waste the surrounding province, he led his army directly to Venice, blocking the city up at the same time by his fleet. The Venetians united and gave the chief command to Valentin, as Obelerio was supposed too nearly allied to Pepin to fight with that good-will and cheerfulness the service of his country required. The Venetians, notwithstanding the most obstinate defence, were at length reduced to that part of the city S. of the Rialto. While Pepin was preparing to lay a bridge over the canal, they resolved, as a last effort, to attack his fleet. Embarcating all the troops they could spare, they succeeded in driving the enemy's fleet aground, and the greater part of their troops perished in attempting to escape; the ships were all, to a few,

either taken or destroyed. During this action at sea, Pepin, having thrown a bridge over the Rialto, was attacked on every side by the Venetians from their boats and others who had posted themselves on the bridge. The battle was long, bloody, and doubtful, until the Venetians succeeded in breaking down the bridge; when all communication being cut off with the troops on shore, the French were to a man either killed or drowned. Pepin was so struck with the intrepidity of the Venetians, that he raised the siege, abandoned the enterprise, and concluded a peace with the republic. He afterwards came to Venice to intercede for Obelerio; but the populace being persuaded that he had acted treacherously, Pepin was no sooner gone than they tore him and his wife to pieces, though she was Pepin's sister. In 839, the Venetians engaged in an alliance offensive and defensive against the Saracens, with Michael III. the Greek emperor. A fleet of 60 galleys was immediately equipped, who joined the Grecian fleet and engaged the enemy; but during the heat of the engagement, the Greeks having basely deserted their allies, the Venetians were so completely defeated, that scarce a single vessel remained to carry the news of their misfortune to Venice. This defeat threw the city into the utmost consternation, as it was not doubted that the Saracens would immediately lay siege to the capital; instead of which they turned their arms against Ancona, which they pillaged and destroyed. The Narentines, however, a piratical people, no sooner heard of the defeat of the Venetians, than they laid waste the coasts of Dalmatia, and ravaged the country for a considerable way; at the same time that the city was distracted by internal dissensions and tumults, in one of which the doge was murdered. It was not till the year 884 that the Venetian affairs were thoroughly re-established. By the prudent and vigorous administration of Orso Participato the power of the Saracens was checked, the Narentines utterly defeated, and peace and domestic tranquillity restored. From this time the republic continued to flourish; and in 903 her reputation for arms became famous all over the world by a great victory gained over the Hungarians, who had invaded Italy, defeated Berengarius, and threatened the country with total destruction. For a long time after, we meet with no remarkable transactions in the Venetian history; but in general the republic increased in wealth and power by its indefatigable application to maritime affairs and to commerce. About the year 1040 it was ordained that no prince should associate a colleague with him in the supreme power. In 1084 the republic was, by the emperor of Constantinople, invested with the sovereignty of Dalmatia and Croatia, which, however, had been held long before by right of conquest. As soon as the Crusade was preached up, the Venetians fitted out a fleet of 200 sail against the infidels; but before this armament was in a condition to put to sea, war broke out with Pisa. The doge Vitalis Michael took upon him the command of the fleet, when, after having defeated the Pisans in a bloody action at sea, he set sail for Smyrna, and from thence to Acalan, at that time be-

B e e e sieged

sieged by the Christians. To his valour was owing the conquest of this city, as well as those of Caïpha and Tiberias; but before he had time to push his good fortune further, he was recalled on account of an invasion by the Normans of Dalmatia. Here he was equally successful: the Normans were everywhere defeated; and Michael returned home loaded with booty; but died soon after, to the great grief of all his subjects. He was succeeded by Ordelfapho Faliero, under whom the Venetians assisted Baldwin in the siege of Ptolemais, and were the chief instruments of its conquest; and Baldwin, in recompense for the services of the republic, invested her with the sovereignty of that city, which he endowed with many extraordinary privileges, to render his present more valuable. This good fortune, however, was overbalanced by a rebellion in Dalmatia and Croatia. The former was reduced; but, in a battle with the Croats, the doge was killed, and his army entirely defeated: by which disaster the Venetians were so much dispirited, that they made a peace on the best terms they could, giving up all thoughts of Croatia for the time. Under the government of Dominico Micheli, who succeeded Ordelfapho, the pope's nuncio arrived at Venice, and excited such a spirit of enthusiasm among all ranks and degrees of men, that they strove whose names should be first enrolled for the holy war. The doge, having fitted out a fleet of 60 galleys, sailed with it to Joppa, which the Saracens were then besieging. The garrison was reduced to the last extremity when the Venetian fleet arrived, surprised, and defeated that of the enemy with great slaughter; soon after which the Saracens raised the siege with precipitation. Tyre was next besieged, and soon was obliged to capitulate; on which occasion, as well as on the taking of Ascalon, the Venetians shared two-thirds of the spoils. But in the mean time the emperor of Constantinople, jealous of the increasing power and wealth of the republic, resolved to make an attack upon Venice, now weakened by the absence of the doge and such a powerful fleet. But the senate, having timely notice of the emperor's intentions, recalled the doge, who instantly obeyed the summons. Stopping at Rhodes, in his way home, to refresh and water the fleet, the inhabitants refused to furnish him with the necessaries he demanded. Incensed at this denial, he levelled their city with the ground; and from thence sailing to Chios, he laid waste and destroyed the country, carrying off the body of St Iodore, in those days accounted an inestimable treasure. After this he seized on the Islands of Samos, Lesbos, Andros, and all those in the Archipelago belonging to the emperor; and having reduced ZARA, Spolatra, and Trachu, places in Dalmatia which had revolted during his absence, he returned in triumph to Venice, where he was received with great joy. The Venetians now became very formidable throughout all Europe. The Sicilians, Paduans, with the states of Verona and Ferrara, felt the weight of their power; and in 1173 they ventured to oppose Frederic Barbarossa, emperor of Germany. The occasion of this quarrel was, that pope Alexander had taken shelter in Venice to avoid the resentment of Barbarossa, who had conceived an implacable a-

version against him, and threatened destruction to their city if they did not give him up. On this terrible menace, it was agreed to equip a fleet, and repel the attacks of such a formidable and haughty enemy. But before the armament could be prepared, Otho, the emperor's son, arrived before the city with a fleet of 75 galleys. The doge Sebastiano Ziani sailed out with the few vessels he had got equipped, to give the enemy battle. The fleets met off the coast of Istria, and a terrible engagement ensued, in which the imperial fleet was totally defeated, Otho himself taken prisoner, and 48 of his ships destroyed. On the doge's return, the pope went out to meet him, and presented him with a ring, saying, "Take this; Ziani, and give it to the sea, as a testimony of your dominion over it. Let your successors annually perform the same ceremony, that posterity may know that your valour has purchased this prerogative, and subjected this element to you, even as a husband subjecteth his wife." Otho was treated with the respect due to his rank; and soon conceived a great friendship for Ziani. At last, being permitted to visit the imperial court on his parole, he not only prevailed on his father to make peace with the Venetians, but even to visit their city, so famed for its commerce and naval power. He was received with all possible respect, and on his departure attended to Ancona by the doge, the senate, and the whole body of the nobility. During this journey, he was reconciled to the pope; and both agreed to pay the highest honours to the doge and republic. In the beginning of the 13th century, the Venetians, now become exceedingly powerful and opulent, by the commerce which they carried on with the richest countries of the world, were invited by young Alexis, son to the emperor of Constantinople, to his father's assistance, who had been deposed by a rebellious faction. In conjunction with the French, they undertook to restore him; and easily succeeded. But the old emperor dying soon after, his son was elected in his room, and a few days after murdered by his subjects; on which the empire was seized by Myrtillus, a man of mean birth, who had been raised by the favour of old Alexis. As the allied army of French and Venetians was encamped without the city, Myrtillus resolved immediately to drive them out of his dominions, and for this purpose attempted to surprise their camp; but being repulsed, he stood himself up in the city, with a resolution to stand a siege. The allies assaulted it with so much vigour, that the usurper was obliged to fly; and though the citizens held out after his departure, they were obliged in less than three months to capitulate. This proved a source of greater acquisition to Venice than all that had yet happened. All the chief offices of the city were filled up with Venetians, in recompense for their services; the allies entered Thrace, and subdued it; Candia, and all the Greek islands, also fell under the dominion of the republic. In the mean time the Genoese, by their successful application to commerce, having raised themselves in such a manner as to be capable of rivaling the Venetians, a long series of wars took place between the republics; in which the Venetians generally had the advantage, though sometimes they met

met with terrible overthrows. These expensive and bloody quarrels undoubtedly weakened the republic, notwithstanding its successes. In 1348, however, the Genoese were obliged to implore the protection of Visconti duke of Milan, to support them against their implacable enemies the Venetians. Soon after this, in 1352, the latter were utterly defeated, with such loss, that it was thought the city itself must have fallen into the hands of the Genoese, had they known how to improve their victory. This was in a short time followed by a peace; but from this time the power of the republic began to decline. Continual wars with the states of Italy, with the Hungarians, and their own rebellious subjects, kept the Venetians employed so that they had no leisure to oppose the Turks, whose rapid advances ought to have alarmed all Europe. After the destruction of the eastern empire, the Turks came more immediately to interfere with the republic. The consequences are related under the article TURKEY, § 5. Whatever valour might be shown by the Venetians, or whatever successes they might boast of, it is certain that the Turks ultimately prevailed; so that for some time it seemed scarce possible to resist them. What contributed also greatly to the decline of the republic, was the discovery of a passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497. To this time the greatest part of the East India goods imported into Europe passed through the hands of the Venetians; but as soon as the above-mentioned discovery took place, the carriage by the way of Alexandria almost entirely ceased. Still, however, the Venetian power was strong; and in the beginning of the 16th century they maintained a war against almost the whole power of France, Germany, and Italy; but soon after we find them entering into an alliance with some Italian states and Henry IV. of France, against the emperor. These wars, however, produced no consequences of any great moment; and in 1573 tranquillity was restored by the conclusion of a peace with the Turks. Nothing of consequence happened in the affairs of the Venetian republic till 1645, when the Turks made a sudden and unexpected descent on the island of Candia. The senate of Venice did not display their usual vigilance on this occasion. They had seen the immense warlike preparations going forward, and yet allowed themselves to be amused by the grand seignior's declaring war against Malta, and pretending that the armament was intended against that island. The troops landed without opposition; and the town of CANEA was taken, after an obstinate defence. This news being brought to Venice excited an universal indignation against the Turks; and the senate resolved to defend to the utmost this valuable part of the empire. Extraordinary ways and means of raising money were fallen upon; among others, it was proposed to sell the rank of nobility. Four citizens offered 100,000 ducats each for this honour; and, notwithstanding some opposition, this measure was at last carried. Eighty families were admitted into the grand council, and to the honour and privileges of the nobility. The siege of CANDIA, the capital of the island of that name, is, in some respects, more memorable than that of

any town which history has recorded. It lasted 24 years. The amazing efforts made by the republic of Venice astonished all Europe; their courage interested the gallant spirits of every nation: volunteers from every country came to Candia to exercise their valour, to acquire knowledge in the military art, and assist a brave people whom they admired. During this famous siege, the Venetians gained many important victories over the Turkish fleet. Sometimes they were driven from the walls of Candia, and the Turkish garrison of Canea was even besieged by the Venetian fleets. Great slaughter was made of the Turkish armies; but new armies were soon found to supply their place. Mahomet IV. impatient at the length of this siege, came to Negropont, that he might have more frequent opportunities of hearing from the vizir, who carried on the siege. This war cost the lives of 100,000 Turks. Candia capitulated in 1668. The conditions were honourably fulfilled. Morfini, the Venetian general, marched out of the rubbish of this well-disputed city with the honours of war.—The expence of such a tedious war greatly exhausted the resources of Venice, which could not now repair them so quickly as formerly, when she enjoyed the rich monopoly of the Asiatic trade. This republic remained in a state of tranquillity, endeavouring, by the arts of peace, and cultivation of that commerce which she still retained, to fill her empty exchequer, till she was drawn into a new war, in 1683, by the insolence of the Ottoman court. The Venetians had for some time endeavoured, by negotiation and many conciliatory representations, to accommodate matters with the Turks; and though the haughty conduct of their enemies afforded small hopes of success, yet such was their aversion to war, that they still balanced, whether to bear those insults or repel them by arms; when they were brought to decision by an event which gave the greatest joy to Venice, and astonished all Europe. This was the great victory gained over the Turkish army before the walls of Vienna, by Sobieski, king of Poland. In this new war, their late General Morfini again had the command of the fleets and armies of the republic, and sustained the great reputation he had acquired in Candia. He conquered the Morea, which was ceded formally to Venice, with some other acquisitions, at the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699. During the war of the succession, the state of Venice observed a strict neutrality. They considered that dispute as unconnected with their interests, taking care, however, to keep on foot an army on their frontiers in Italy, of sufficient force to make them respected by the contending powers. But, soon after the peace of Utrecht, the Venetians were again attacked by their old enemies the Turks; who, beholding the great European powers exhausted by their late efforts, and unable to assist the republic, thought this the favourable moment for recovering the Morea, which had been so lately taken from them. The Turks obtained their object; and at the peace of Passarowitz, which terminated this unsuccessful war, the Venetian state yielded up the Morea; the grand seignior, on his part, restoring to them the small islands of Cerigo and Cerigotto, with some places which his

E e e 2 troops

groups had taken during the course of the war in Dalmatia. Those, with the islands of Corfou, Santa Maura, Zante, and Cephalonia, now form the republic of the SEVEN ISLANDS. By the treaty of Campo Formio, in 1797, the whole Venetian States were ceded to the emperor Francis II. and crested into the province of MARITIME AUSTRIA. VERONA, on the right of the Adige, alone was annexed to the CISALPINE REPUBLIC. The whole Venetian state now makes part of the ITALIAN KINGDOM.

(2.) VENICE, the capital, appears at a distance very striking, looking like a great town half floated by a deluge. Betwixt the city and the Terra Firma are a great many shallows, on which at low water you may almost every where touch the bottom with a pole; but all possible care is taken to prevent their becoming dry land. On the S. side of the city are also shallows; but on these there is a greater depth of water. The channels betwixt them are marked out by stakes or poles, which on the approach of an enemy would certainly be taken away. The city is divided by a vast number of canals, on which ply the gondoliers, or watermen, in their black gondolas or boats. The streets are very clean and neat, but narrow and crooked. There are no carriages, not so much as a chair, to be seen in them. Of the canals, that called *Il Canale Maggiore*, is by far the largest and longest, and consequently the most beautiful. Here races are sometimes run for prize in the gondolas. On its banks are also several state lyhouses. Over these canals are a great number of handsome bridges of one arch, but without any fence on either side: they are also built of white stone, with which the streets are all paved, except the Rialto over the great canal, which is all of marble, and cost the republic 250,000 ducats, the arch being 90 feet wide. The finest gondolas are those in which the foreign ministers make their public entries, being richly decorated with gilding, painting, and sculpture. The number of islands on which the city stands, according to some, is 60; according to others, 72. The circumference is about six Italian miles. The inhabitants are supposed to be about 150,000 including those of the islands Murano, Guidecca, and those who live on board the barges. The most remarkable places in the city are the ci-devant ducal palace, the square and church of St Mark, who is the tutelar saint of Venice; the mint, public library, grand arsenal, several of the palaces of the nobles, churches, convents, and hospitals. In these last is a prodigious collection of the finest paintings; Venice, in this respect, even surpassing Rome itself. But the finest and best of them were carried off to Paris by Bonaparte, in 1797, to enrich the National Museum, along with the famous *Laocoon*, &c. The diversions of the Venetians are chiefly masquerading, especially during the carnival and other festivals: ridottos, operas, plays, and concerts. During their festivals, debauchery, riot, and licentiousness, are carried to the greatest height: The square of St Mark is the greatest ornament of the city, and hath the form of a parallelogram. In this square, besides the church and palace of St Mark, are two towers, on one side of which is a curious clock; and the other has stairs so constructed that

one may ride up on horseback. Opposite to the ducal palace is the public library of the commonwealth: containing a large collection of books and MSS. with some fine paintings, statues, and curiosities. Hard by St Mark's square is the zecca, or mint. The grand arsenal is two and a half Italian miles in circuit, and contains vast quantities of naval and other warlike stores; here are the trophies of Scanderbeg and others, with the helmet of Attila, &c. The rope walk is 441 common paces in length, and the ropes and cables are valued at 2,000,000 of silver ducats. In the foundry none but brass cannon are cast; and 100 men are generally at work in the forges. The salt-petre works here deserve a traveller's notice: there is a vessel filled with wine and water four times a-day, where the workmen, though 1000 or more, may drink as much and as often as they please. Close to the Rialto is the bank. The trade of the city at present is far short of what it was formerly. Their chief manufactures are cloth; especially scarlet, silks, gold and silver stuffs, brocades, velvets, and paper, of which, and wine, oil, fruit, sweetmeats, anchovies, and several sorts of drugs used in physic and painting, the exports are still considerable. Venice has neither walls, gates, nor citadel. In the treasury of relics is the protocol, or original MS. as they pretend, of *St Mark's gospel*; it is rarely shown; and the writing, by length of time, is so defaced, that the greatest connoisseurs in MSS. cannot determine whether it was written in Greek or Latin. Besides what is properly called the city, there is a multitude of little islands lying round, which are covered with buildings, and make each of them a kind of separate town; the most considerable of which is that called *Giudecca*, or the "Jews Quarter," which is large and populous; with St Erasmo, St Helena, St Giorgio, Chioffa, Il Lido de Palestrina, Il Lido de Malamocco, and Murano; these islands are a sort of fence to the city, breaking the violence of the waves. To distinguish them from others, the Jews here must wear a bit of red cloth in their hats. The gardens in this city are few and inconsiderable. In the island of Murano are made those beautiful looking-glasses, and other glass-works, for which Venice is so much noted: here the family of Gornaro hath a palace, with a gallery of paintings, little short of an Italian mile in length. The salt-works in the island of Chioffa are of great benefit to the Venetians, and yield a very considerable revenue. There are several other small islands about Venice, but they are inconsiderable.

(3.) VENICE, GULF OF. See ADRIANUM.

(4.) VENICE, INHABITANTS OF. The Venetians are in general tall and well made. They are a lively ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour, and yet more attached to the real enjoyments of life than to those which depend on ostentation. The women are of an easy address, and have no aversion to cultivating an acquaintance with those strangers who are properly recommended.

VENIRE FACIAS, in law, is a judicial writ lying where two parties plead and come to issue, directed to the sheriff, to cause 12 men of the same

same neighbourhood to meet and try the same, and to say the truth upon the issue taken.

* **VENISON.** *n. f.* [*venaison*, Fr.] Game; beast of chase; the flesh of deer. *Chapman* writes it as it is spoken, *venzon*.—

Shall we kill us *venison*?
And yet it irks me the poor dappled fools
Should have their round haunches gor'd. *Shak.*

We have a hot *venison* patty to dinner. *Shak.*
To our *venzon's* store.

We added wine, till we could wish no more,
Chapman.

—In the records of Ireland, there is no mention made of any park, though there be vert and *venison* within this land. *Darvies*.—

In equal portions with the *ven'son* shar'd.
Dryd.

VENIUS, OTHO, a celebrated Dutch painter, was born at Leyden, in 1556. He was the first, after Polydore Caravaggio, who reduced the claroscuro to a principle of the art of painting. He died at Brussels, 1634. He had also the honour of breeding up the famous Rubens in his art.

VENIZY, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne, 3 miles N. of St Florentin.

VENLO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and late duchy of Prussian Guelderland, on the E. bank of the Meuse, 10 miles SE. of Guelldres, 12 NNE. of Ruremond, and 25 NW. of Dusseldorp. It was taken by Gen. Jourdan on the 14th Oct. 1794. Lon. 25. 34. E. Per. Lat. 51. 27. N.

* **VENOM.** *n. f.* [*venin*, French.] Poison.—
Your eyes, which hitherto have borne in them

The fatal balls of murdering basilisks,
The *venom* of such looks we fairly hope
Have lost their quality. *Shak.*

Beware of yonder dog; for when he bites,
His *venom* tooth will wrangle to the death. *Shak.*

Like some tall tree, the monster of the wood,
O'er shading all that under him would grow,
He sheds his *venom* on the plants below. *Dryden.*

* **To VENOM.** *v. a.* To infect with venom; to poison; to envenom.

(1.) * **VENOMOUS.** *adj.* [from *venom*.] 1. Poisonous.—

Thy tears are saltier than a younger man's
And *venomous* to thy eyes. *Shak.*

2. Malignant; mischievous.—A *venomous* and destructive progeny. *Brown*.—A *venomous* writer. *Addison.*

(2.) **VENOMOUS SERPENTS.** See **SERPENT**, § 6-10. To the account there given, we shall here only add, that among the many venomous serpents which infest lake **ERIE**, in N. America, the most remarkable is that species called the *Hissing Snake*. It is about 18 inches long, small and speckled. When one approaches it, it flattens itself in a moment, and its spots, which are of various colours, become visibly brighter through rage; at the same time it blows from its mouth, with great force, a subtle wind, said to be of a nauseous smell; and, if drawn in with the breath of the unwary traveller, will infallibly bring on a decline, that in a few months will prove mortal.

No remedy has yet been found to counteract its baneful influence.

* **VENOMOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *venomous*.] Poisonously; mischievously; malignantly.—

These things sting him
So *venomously*, that burning shame detains him
From his Cordelia. *Shak.*

His praise of foes is *venomously* nice;
So touch'd it turns a virtue to a vice. *Dryden.*

* **VENOMOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *venomous*.] Poisonousness; malignity.

VENOSA, a town of Naples, in Basilicata.

(1.) * **VENT.** *n. f.* [*vente*, French.] 1. A small aperture; a hole; a spiracle; a passage at which any thing is let out.—

On her breast
There is a vent of blood, and something blown;
The like is on her arm. *Shak.*

They at once their reeds
Put forth, and to a narrow *vent* apply'd
With nicest touch. *Milton.*

—Have near the bung-hole a little *vent* hole stopp'd with a spile. *Mort.*—Scarce any countries that are annoyed with earthquakes that have not one of these fiery *vents* disgorgeing that fire, whereby it gains an exit. *Woodw.*—To draw any drink, be not at the trouble of opening a *vent*, or, if you take out the *vent*, stay not to put it in. *Swift.*—

Full o'er heads the swelling bag he rent,
And all the furies issued at the *vent*. *Pope.*

2. Passage out of secrecy to public notice.—The particular design took *vent* before hand. *Wotton.*

3. The act of opening.—

The farmer's cades mature,
Now call for *vent*; his lands exhaust, permit
T' indulge a-while. *Philips.*

4. Emission; passage.—

The smother'd fondness burns within him;
When most it swells and labours for a *vent*,
The sense of honour and desire of fame
Drive the big passion back into his heart. *Addison.*

5. Discharge; means of discharge.—

Had, like grief, been dew'd in tears,
Without the *vent* of words. *Milton.*

—Where a *vent* can be had. *Mortim.* 6. [*vente*, Fr. *venditio*, Latin.] Sale.—The *vent* for English cloaths. *Hayw.*—By this war there is no *vent* for any commodity. *Temple.*—The *vent* of that number. *Pope.*

(2.) **VENT**, in geography, a river of Cumberland, running in the S. Tyne.

(1.) * **To VENT.** *v. a.* [*venter*, French, from the noun; *sventare*, Italian.] 1. To let out at a small aperture. 2. To let out; to give way to.—

Hunger broke stone-walls, that the gods sent
not

Corn for the rich men only; with these fired
They *vented* their complainings. *Shak.*

—When men are young, and have little else to do, they might *vent* the overflowings of their fancy that way. *Denham.*—

Lab'ring thus with endless discontent,
The queen of heav'n did thus her fury *vent*. *Dryden.*

3. To utter; to report.—Had it been *vented* and imposed in some of the most learned ages, it might

might then with some pretence of reason, have been said to be the invention of some crafty statesman. *Stephens.* 4. To emit; to pour out.—

Revoke thy doom,

Or, whilst I can vent clamour from my throat
I'll tell thee thou dost evil. *Shak.*

5. To publish.—*Venting* the stolen treasures of divine letters. *Ral.* 6. To sell; to let go to sale.—The owners not *venting* and venturing the same. *Carver.*—Therefore did those nations *vent* such spice. *Raleigh.*

(2.) * *TO VENT. v. n.* To stuff; as, he *venteth* into the air. *Spenser.*

VENTA IENORUM, an ancient city of S. Britain, now called *Castor*. (See *CASTOR*, § II, N° 1.) The ruins of its walls contain a square of thirty acres, and exhibit four gates and towns. Urns, coins, &c. are dug up in it.

* *VENTAIL. n. f.* [from *ventail*, Fr.] That part of the helmet made to lift up. *Spenser.*

* *VENTANNA. n. f.* [Spanish.] A window.

What after pass'd

Was far from the *ventanna*, when I sate;
But you were near, and can the truth relate.

Dryden.

(1.) * *VENTER. n. f.* [Latin.] 1. Any cavity of the body, chiefly applied to the head, breast, and abdomen, which are called by anatomists the three *venters*. 2. Womb; mother.—*A* has issue *B* a son and *C* a daughter by one *venter*, and *D* a son by another *venter*. If *B* purchases in fee, and dies without issue, it shall descend to the sister, and not to the brother of the half blood. *Hale.*

(2.) *VENTER INSPICIENDO*, is a writ to search a woman that saith she is with child, and thereby with-holdeth lands from the next heir; the trial whereof is by a jury of women.

* *VENTIDUCT. n. f.* [*ventus* and *dustus*, Lat.] A passage for the wind.—Having been informed of divers *ventiducts*, I wish I had had the good fortune, when I was at Rome, to take notice of these organs. *Boyle.*

* *TO VENTILATE. v. a.* [*ventilo*, Latin.] 1. To fan with wind.—In close, low, and dirty alleys, the air is pent up, and obstructed from being *ventilated* by the winds. *Harv.*—Miners, by persiflations with large bellows, give free passage to the air, which *ventilates* and cools the mines. *Woodward.* 2. To winnow; to fan. 3. To examine; to discuss.—The same may be begun again, and *ventilated* de novo. *Ayliffe.*

* *VENTILATION. n. f.* [*ventilatio*, Lat. from *ventilate*.] 1. The act of fanning; the state of being fanned.—The soil, worn with too frequent culture, must lie fallow till it has recruited its exhausted salts, and again enriched itself by the *ventilations* of the air. *Addis.* 2. Vent; utterance. Not in use.—To his secretary doctor Mason, whom he let lie in a pallet near him for natural *ventilation* of his thoughts, he would break out into bitter eruptions. *Wotton.* 3. Refrigeration.—Procure the blood a free course, *ventilation* and transpiration. *Harvey.*

(1.) * *VENTILATOR. n. f.* [from *ventilate*.] An instrument contrived by Dr Hales to supply close places with fresh air.

(2.) *VENTILATOR. v. f.* a machine by which the noxious air of any close place, as an hospital,

gaol, ship, chamber, &c. may be discharged and changed for fresh. The noxious qualities of bad air have been long known; and no one has taken greater pains to set the mischiefs arising from foul air in a proper light than Dr Hales; who also proposed an easy and effectual remedy by the use of his ventilators; his account of which was read to the Royal Society in May 1741. In the November following, M. Triewald, military architect to the king of Sweden, informed Dr Mortimer, secretary to the Royal Society, that he had in the preceding spring invented a machine for the use of the king's men of war, to draw out the bad air from under the decks, the least of which exhausted 36,172 cubic feet of air in an hour, or at the rate of 21,732 tons in 24 hours. In 1742 he lent one of them, formed for a 60 gun ship to France; which was approved of by the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris; and the king of France ordered all the men of war to be furnished with the like ventilators. The ventilators invented by Dr Hales consist of a square box ABCD (*Pl. CCCXXXVIII. fig. 1.*) of any size; in the middle of one side of this box a broad partition or midriff is fixed by hinges X, and it moves up and down from A to C, by means of an iron rod ZR, fixed at a proper distance from the other end of the midriff, and passing through a small hole in the cover of the box up to R. Two boxes of this kind may be employed at once, and the two iron rods may be fixed to a lever FG (*fig. 2.*) moving on a fixed centre O, so that by the alternate raising and pressing down of the lever FG, the midriffs are also alternately raised and depressed; whereby these double bellows are at the same time both drawing in air, and pouring it out, through apertures with valves made on the same side with, and placed both above and below, the hinges of the midriffs. In order to render the midriffs light, they are made of four bars lengthwise, and as many across them breadthwise, the vacant spaces being filled up with thin pannels of fir-board; and that they may move to and fro with the greater ease, and without touching the sides of the boxes, there is an iron regulator fixed upright to the middle of the end of the box AC (*fig. 1.*) from N to L, with a notch cut into the middle of the end of the midriff at Z; so that midriff, in the rising and falling, suffer no other friction than what is made between the regulator and the notch. Moreover, as the midriff ZX moves with its edges only 1-20th of an inch from the sides of the box ABCDEF, very little air will escape by the edges; and, therefore, there will be no need of leathern sides as in the common bellows. The end of the box at AC is made a little circular, that it may be better adapted between A and C to the rising and falling midriff; and at the other end X of the midriff a slip of leather may be nailed over the joints if needful. The eight large valves through which the air is to pass, are placed at the hinge end of the boxes BK (*fig. 2.*) as at 1, 2, 3, &c. The valve 1 opens inward to admit the air to enter when the midriff is depressed at the other end by means of the lever FG; and at the same time the valve 3 in the lower ventilator is shut by the compressed air which passes out of the valve 4. But when that midriff is raised, the valve 1 shuts, and

d the air passes out of the valve 2. And it is the same with the valves 3, 6, &c. of the other valves; so that the midribs are alternately rising and falling, and two of the ventilators drawing in air, and two blowing it out; the air entering at the valves 1, 3, 6, 8, and passing out at the valves 2, 5, 7. Before these last valves there is fixed to the ventilators a box QQ NM, (fig 9.), as a common receptacle for all the air which comes out of these valves; which air passes off by the trunk P, through the wall of a building. For a farther account of this machine we refer to the author himself, who gives a full detail of it and of its manner of working. See *Description of Ventilators by Stephen Hales, D. D. Lond. 1743, 8vo.* The ventilators in large ships, since the order for ventilating was first issued by the lords of the admiralty in 1756, are fixed in the gunner's fore-store room, and generally a-head of the sail-room. The foul air is carried up through the decks and fore-castle near the fore-mast, sometimes afore it; and sometimes bafit it, but more frequently on its starboard side; the lever, by which the ventilators are worked, is under the fore-castle in two-deck ships, and between the upper and middle decks in three-deckers; sometimes the lever is hung athwart ships; in some ships afore and aft, and in others oblique. The iron rod, which communicates the motion from the lever, passes through the partners of the fore-mast, and is connected with another lever, suspended at or near the middle; in some ships over the ventilators, in others under them, when it is found necessary to fix them up to the deck. The best method to save room is to place the ventilators over one another with their circular ends together; the air-trunk should be so high above the deck, that the men on deck may not be incommoded by the foul air which blows out of it; and therefore the trunk comes through the upper-deck, near and behind the fore-mast. For the method of freeing mines, ships, prisons, &c. from noxious air by means of fire pipes, see AIR-PIPES.

* VENTRICLE. *n. f.* [*ventricule*, French; *ventriculus*, Lat.] 1. The stomach.—While my heart beats, and my ventricle digests. *Hale.* 2. Any small cavity in an animal body, particularly those of the heart.—

Know'st thou how blood, which to the heart doth flow

Doth from one ventricle to the other go?

Donne.

—The fibres constringe the ventricles, and strong force out the blood. *Ray.*—The left ventricle of the heart. *Arbuthnot.*

VENTRILOQUISM, *n. f.* the art by which certain persons can so modify their voice, as to make it appear to the audience to proceed from any distance, and in any direction. Some faint traces of this art are to be found in the writings of the ancients; and it is the opinion of M. de la Chapelle, who in 1773 published an ingenious work on the subject, that the responses of many of the oracles were delivered by persons thus qualified to serve the purposes of priest-craft and delusion. As the ancient ventriloquists, when exercising their art, seemed generally to speak from their own bellies, the name by which they were

designed was abundantly significant; but it is with no great propriety that modern performers are called *ventriloquists*, and their art *ventriloquism*, since they appear more frequently to speak from the pockets of their neighbours, or from the roof or distant corners of the room, than from their own mouths or their own bellies.

* VENTRILOQUIST. *n. f.* [*ventriloque*, Fr. *venter* and *loquor*, Lat.] One who speaks in such a manner as that the sound seems to issue from his belly.

* VENTURE. *n. f.* [*aventure*, Fr.] 1. A hazard; an undertaking of chance and danger.—

When he reads

Thy personal venture in the rebel's fight,
His wonders and his praises do contend
Which should be thine or his. *Shak.*

—An irrational venture, and absurd choice. *South.*

I, in this venture, double gains pursue,
And laid out all my stock to purchase you.

Dryden.

—Who can run the venture? *Locke.* 2. Chance; hap.—Leave little to venture or fortune. *Bac.* 3. The thing put to hazard; a stake.—

My ventures are not in one bottom trusted,
Nor to one place. *Shak.*

Still we must take the current when it serves
Or lose our ventures. *Shak.*

Thrice happy you, that look as from the shore,

And have no venture in the wreck. *Daniel.*

4. At a VENTURE. At hazard; without much consideration; without any thing more than the hope of a lucky chance.—You have made an estimate of those lands at a venture. *Spens.*

A bargain at a venture made. *Hudibras.*

—Granted at a venture. *L'Estr.*—Scampering away at a venture. *L'Estr.*—Draws a bow at a venture. *South.*

(1.) * To VENTURE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To dare.—A man were better rise in his suit; for he that would have ventured at first to have lost the suitor, will not in the conclusion lose both the suitor and his own former favour. *Bacon.*—Origen ventures to assure them. *Addison.* 2. To run a hazard.—

Who freights a ship to venture on the seas.

Dryden.

—Dare hardly venture out. *Dryd.* 3. To VENTURE at. To venture on or upon. To engage in; or make attempts without any security of success, upon mere hope.—

That slander is found a truth now, and held for certain;

The king will venture at it.

Shak.

—It is too conjectural to venture upon. *Bacon.*—

And when I venture at the comic stile,
Thy scornful lady seems to mock my toil.

Waller.

—They but timorously ventured on such terms as aurietas and faxietas. *Locke.*—I would desire him to read, before he ventures at capping of characters. *Atterbury.*

(2.) * To VENTURE. *v. a.* 1. To expose to hazard.—In my school days, when I had lost one shaft, I shot his fellow of the self-same flight; by vent'ring both, I oft found both. *Shak.* 2. To put

or

or send on a venture.—The fish *ventured* for France they pack in staunch hogheads, so as to keep them in their pickle. *Carew*.

* **VENTURER.** *n. f.* [from *venture*.] He who ventures.

* **VENTURESOME.** *adj.* [from *venture*.] Bold; daring.

* **VENTURESOMELY.** *adv.* In a bold or daring manner.

* **VENTUROUS.** *adj.* [from *venture*.] Daring; bold; fearless; ready to run hazards.—*Venturous* counsels. *Bacon*.—

He paus'd not, but with *vent'rous* arm,
He pluck'd: he tasted. *Milton*.

—An old *venturous* Florentine. *Heylyn*.—The *vent'rous* humour of mariners. *Temple*.—

Savage pirates seek thro' seas unknown,
The lives of others, *vent'rous* of their own. *Pope*.

* **VENTUROUSLY.** *adv.* [from *venturous*.] Daringly; fearlessly; boldly.—Siege was laid to the fort by the Lord Gray, *venturously* indeed. *Bacon*.

* **VENTUROUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *venturous*.] Boldness; willingness to hazard.—Made her repent her *vent'rouness*. *Boyle*.

(1.) **VENUS**, in mythology, the goddess of love and beauty. Cicero mentions two other deities of this name. *Venus*, styled *Urania* and *Celestis*; and the *Venus Pandemos* or *Popularis*, the wife of Vulcan, and the goddess of wanton and effeminate love. To the first the Pagans ascribed no attributes but such as were agreeable to the strictest chastity and virtue; and of this deity they admitted no corporeal resemblance, she being only represented by the form of a globe, ending conically. Her sacrifices were termed *nephelia*, on account of their sobriety. To her honey and wine were offered, and no animal except the heifer; and on her altars the wood of figs, vines, or mulberries, were not suffered to be burnt. The Romans dedicated a temple to this goddess, to whom they gave the name of *Verticordia*; because she turned the hearts of lewd women, and inspired modesty and virtue. But the most famous of these goddesses is the wife of Vulcan; who is represented as springing from the froth raised by the genitals of Saturn, when cut off by Jupiter and thrown into the sea. As soon as she was formed, she was laid in a beautiful shell embellished with pearl, and wafted by gentle zephyrs to the isle of Cytheria, whence she sailed to Cyprus. At her landing, flowers rose beneath her feet; she was received by the Hours, who braided her hair with golden fillets; and then wafted her to heaven, where her charms appeared so attractive, that most of the gods desired her in marriage; but Vulcan, by the advice of Jupiter, gained possession by putting poppies into her nectar. As *Venus* was the goddess of love and pleasure, the poets have been lavish in the description of her beauties; and the painters and statuary have endeavoured to give her the most lovely form; and her son Cupid is her inseparable companion. She was honoured as the mother of *HYMEN*, *CUPID*, *ÆNEAS*, and the *GRACES*, and was passionately fond of *Adonis* and *Auchifes*. This goddess was

principally worshipped at Paphos and Cyprus; and the sacrifices offered to her were white goats and swine, with libations of wine, milk, and honey. Her victims were crowned with flowers, or wreaths of myrtle.

(2.) **VENUS**, in astronomy. See *ASTRONOMY*, *Index*; *COOK*, N^o III, § 7; and *PNEUMATICS*.

(3.) **VENUS**, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of *vermes testacea*. This animal is a *tethys*; the shell is bivalve; the hinge with 3 teeth near each other, one placed longitudinally and bent inwards. There are many species; of which the most remarkable is,

VENUS MERCENARIA, or the *commercial*, with a strong, thick, weighty shell, covered with a brown epidermis; pure white within; slightly striated transversely. Circumference above 11 inches. These are called in North America *clams*. They differ from other species only in having a purple tinge within. Wampum or Indian money is made of them.

* **VENUS'S BASIN.** *n. f.* [*diapacus major*, Latin] A plant.

(1.) * **VENUS'S COMB.** *n. f.* [*pecten Veneris*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) **VENUS'S COMB.** See *SCANDIX*.

VENUS'S FLY-TRAP. See *DIONEÆ MUSCIPULA*.

* **VENUS'S HAIR.** *n. f.* [*adiantum*.] A plant.

(1.) * **VENUS'S LOOKING-GLASS.** *n. f.* A plant.

(2.) **VENUS'S LOOKING GLASS.** See *CAMPANULA*.

(1.) * **VENUS'S NAVEL-WORT.** *n. f.* A plant.

(2.) **VENUS'S NAVEL-WORT.** See *CYNOGLOSSUM*.

VEPRECLÆ, diminutive from *vepres*, a *briar* or *bramble*; the 31st order in *Linneus's* *Fragment of a Natural Method*. See *BOTANY*, *Index*.

(1.) **VERA**, a town of Spain, in Grenada, 34 miles NE. of Almerico.

(2.) **VERA**, a town of Spain, in Navarre; 5 miles N. of Pampeluna.

(3.) **VERA CRUZ**, a sea-port town of N. America, in New Spain, with a very secure and commodious harbour, defended by a fort. Here the Flotilla annually arrives from Spain to receive the produce of the gold and silver mines of Mexico; and at the same time a fair is held here for all manner of rich merchandise brought from China and the East Indies by way of the South Sea, and for the merchandise of Europe by the way of the Atlantic Ocean. This town is not two miles in circumference; and about it there is a wall of no great strength on the land side. The air is unwholesome; and there are very few Spaniards here unless when the Flotilla arrives, and then it is crowded with people from all parts of Spanish America. It is 200 miles SE. of Mexico. Lon. 37. 25. W. Lat. 19. 12. N.

(4.) **VERA PAZ**, a fertile province of Mexico; 120 miles long, and 70 broad.

(5.) **VERA PAZ**, the capital of the above prov.

* **VERACIOUS.** *adj.* [*verax*, Latin.] Obtrant of truth.

* **VERACITY.** *n. f.* [*verax*, Latin.] 1. Moral truth; honesty of report. 2. Physical truth; consistency.

fluency of report with fact. Less proper.—There was no reason to doubt the *veracity* of those facts. *Addison*.

VERAGUA, a province of New Spain, bounded on the E. by that of Costa Rica, on the W. by Panama, on the N. by Darien and the Gulf of Mexico, and on the S. by the South Sea. It is about 125 miles long, from E. to W. and 60 broad from N. to S. It is a mountainous barren country; but has plenty of gold and silver. **CONCEPTION** is the capital.

VARAL, a river of Spain, in Arragon.
VERAMALLY, a town of Indostan, in the Carnatic.

VERATRUM, in botany, a genus of plants of the class of *polygamia*, and order of *monacia* and in the natural system arranged under the 10th order, *Coronarie*. There is no calyx; the corolla has 6 petals; there are 6 stamina: the hermaphrodite flowers have 3 pistils and 3 capules. There are 3 species, none of which are natives of Britain. The most important is the

VERATRUM ALBUM, or WHITE HELLEBORE. The root is perennial, about an inch thick, externally brown, internally white, and beset with many strong fibres; the stalk is thick, strong, round, upright, hairy, and usually rises four feet in height: the leaves are numerous, very large, oval, entire, ribbed, plaited, without footstalks, of a yellowish green colour, and surround the stem at its base: the flowers are of a greenish colour, and appear from June to August in very long, branched, terminal spikes. Every part of this plant is extremely acrid and poisonous, as its leaves and even seeds prove deleterious to different animals. The ancients, though sufficiently acquainted with its virulence, were not deterred from employing it internally in several diseases, especially those of a chronic and obstinate kind, as mania, melancholia, hydrops, elephantiasis, epilepsy, vertigo, lepra, rabies canina, &c. (See *MEDICINE*, § 39.). It was frequently observed to effect a cure, not only by its immediate action upon the primæ viæ, but when no sensible evacuation was promoted by its use. Veratrum has likewise been found useful in epilepsy, and other convulsive complaints; but the diseases in which its efficacy seems least equivocal, are those of the skin; as scabies and different prurient eruptions, herpes, morbus pediculofus, lepra, scrophula, &c.; and in many of these it has been successfully employed both internally and externally. As a powerful stimulant, and irritating medicine, its use has been resorted to only in desperate cases; and then it is first to be tried in very small doses in a diluted state, and to be gradually increased according to the effects.

(1.) * **VERB.** *n. f.* [*verbe*, Fr. *verbum*, Latin.] A part of speech signifying existence, or some modification thereof, as action, passion. And withal some disposition or intention of the mind relating thereto, as of affirming, denying, interrogating, commanding. *Clarke*.—Men usually talk of a noun and a verb. *Shak*.

(2.) **VERB.** in grammar. See *GRAMMAR*, under *ENGLISH LANGUAGE*, page 691.

(1.) * **VERBAL.** *adj.* [*verbal*, Fr. *verbalis*, Lat.]
VOL. XXII. PART II.

1. Spoken, not written. 2. Oral; uttered by mouth.—

Made she no verbal quest?

—Yes; once or twice she heav'd the name of father

Pantingly forth, as if it prest it heart. *Shak*.

3. Consisting in mere words.—

And loses, though but verbal, his reward.

Milton.

—They lose themselves in a verbal labyrinth. *Glan*.

—This is managed in words and verbal profession: South. 4. Verbose; full of words. Out of use.—

I am sorry,

You put me to forget a lady's manners,

By being so verbal.

Shak.

5. Minutely exact in words.—

Neglect the rules each verbal critic lays.

Pope.

6. Literal; having word answering to word.—

Verbal translation. *Denham*.—The verbal copier is encumbered with so many difficulties at once, that he can never disentangle himself from all. *Dryden*.

7. [*verbal*, Fr. in grammar.] A verbal noun is a noun derived from a verb.

(2.) **VERBAL FIGURES**. See *ORATORY*, § 198—221.

* **VERBALITY.** *n. f.* [from *verbal*.] Mere words; bare literal expression.—The letter and dead *verbality*. *Brown*.

* **VERBALLY.** *adv.* [from *verbal*.] 1. In words; orally.—By words and oral expressions verbally to deny the deity of Christ. *South*. 2. Word for word.—'Tis almost impossible to translate verbally, and well. *Dryd*.

VERBASCUM, in botany, *Mullein* or *Cow's LUNGWORT*, a genus of plants of the class of *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 18th order, *Luride*. The corolla is rotated, and rather unequal: the capsule is monolocular and bivalve. There are 12 species, 6 of which are natives of Britain;

1. **VERBASCUM NIGRUM**, or black mullein, having a stem beset with hairs that are beautifully branched; the blossoms yellow, with purple tips. It is a beautiful plant, and the flowers are grateful to bees. Swine eat it; sheep are not fond of it; cows, horses, and goats, refuse it. The other British species are the *lychnitis*, *nigrum*, *blattasi*, and *virgatum*.

2. **VERBASCUM THAPSUS**, or great mullein, has a stem single, simple, erect, covered with leaves, about six feet high. Leaves large, broad, white, woolly on both sides, sessile, decurrent. Flowers terminal, in a long spike, sessile, yellow. Catarrhal coughs and diarrhæas are the complaints for which it has been internally prescribed. Dr Home tried it in both, but it was only in the latter disease that this plant succeeded.

* **VERBATIM.** *adv.* [Latin.] Word for word.

Think not, that I have forg'd, or am not able
Verbatim to rehearse the method of my pen.

Shak.

—See the transcripts of both charters *verbatim* in *Mat. Paris. Hale*.

VERBENA, in botany, *VERVAIN*; a genus of plants of the class of *diandria*, and order of *monogynia*;
F f f f

magnum; and in the natural system arranged under the 40th order, *Personate*. There are 17 species, only one of which is a native of Britain; viz.

VERBENA OFFICINALIS, or common *vervain*, which grows on the road sides near towns and villages. The leaves have many jagged clefts, the blossoms are pale blue. It manifests a slight degree of asfringency, and was formerly much in vogue as a deobstruent; but is now disregarded. Mr Millar says, that it is never found above a quarter of a mile from a house: whence the common people in England call it *Simpler's joy*, because, wherever it is found, it is a certain sign of a house being near. Sheep eat it; cows, horses, and goats refuse it.

* **TO VERBERATE**. *v. a.* [*verbero*, Latin] To beat; to strike.

* **VERBERATION**. *n. f.* [*verberation*, French; from *verberate*.] Blows; beating.—The effects of a soft prels or *verberation*. *Arbutnut*.

VERBERIE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Oise, 9 miles NW. of Crespy, and 10 NE. of Senlis. Lon. 2. 51. E. Lat. 49. 12. N.

VERBESINA, in botany, *Naked-headed Hemp Agrimony*, a genus of plants of the class of *Syn-genesia*, and order of *Polygumia superflua*; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*.

VERBO, a town of Hungary, 16 miles NW. of Leopoldstad.

VERBOSANIA, a town of European Turkey, in Bosnia; 30 miles S. of Serajo.

* **VERBOSE**. *adj.* [*verbosus*, Lat.] Exuberant in words; prolix; tedious by multiplicity of words.—

Let envy

Ill judging and *verbosely*, from Lethe's lake

Draw tuns immeasurable.

Prior.

—They ought to be brief, and not too *verbosely*.

Asyliffe

* **VERBOSITY**. *n. f.* [*verbosité*, Fr. from *verbosely*.] Exuberance of words; much empty talk.

He draweth out the thread of his *verbosity*

Finer than the staple of his argument. *Shak.*

—The *verbosities* of this philosophy. *Glanv.*—Homer is guilty of *verbosity*. *Brown.*

VERBROECK, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse, and late prov. of Dutch Flanders; 8 miles ESE. of Hulst.

VERCEL, a town of France, in the dep. of the Doubs, 10½ miles NE. of Ornans.

(1.) **VERCELLI**, a ci-devant lordship of Piedmont, now included in the French empire and dep. of the Sesia, containing about 20,000 souls.

(2.) **VERCELLI**, a city of the French empire, capital of the dep. of the Sesia; 30 miles SW. of Milan, and 38 NE. of Turin.

VERCHOTURE, a town of Russia, in Ekaterinenburg, the first built by the Russians in Siberia.

(1.) **VERD, CAPE**, a promontory on the W. coast of Africa, 40 miles NW. of the mouth of the Gambia. Lon. 17. 38. W. Lat. 14. 45. N.

(2.) **VERD, CAPE DE, ISLANDS OF**, are seated in the Atlantic Ocean, about 400 miles W. of the Cape. They are between the 13th and 19th degree of latitude; and the principal are 10 in number, lying in a semicircle. Their names are, *St Anthony, St Vincent, St Lucia, St Nicholas, the Isle*

of Sal, Pona Vija, Mayo, Sr Jago, Furgo, and Brava.

(1.) * **VERDANT**. *adj.* [*verdoyant*, French; *viridans*, Latin.] Green. This word is so lately naturalized, that *Skinner* could find it only in a dictionary.—

Each odorous bushy shrub,

Fenc'd up the verdant wall,

Milton.

(2.) **VERDANT**. See **PRASIANE**.

(1.) **VERDEN**, a duchy of Lower Saxony, bounded E. S. and N. by Lunenburg; W. by Bremen, about 28 miles square. It belongs to K. George III.

(2.) **VERDEN**, the capital of the above duchy, is seated on the Allier, 26 miles SE. of Bremen. Lon. 0 0 E. Lat. 53. 10. N.

* **VERDERER**. *n. f.* [*verder*, Fr. *viridarius*, low Lat.] An officer in the forest.

VERDESE, a town of Corsica.

(1.) * **VERDICT**. *n. f.* [*verum dictum*, Latin.]

1. The determination of the jury declared to the judge.—Before the jury go together, 'tis all to nothing what the *verdict* shall be. *Spenser.*

—They have a longing desire to overcome and to have the *verdict* pass for them. *Kettlewell.*

2. Declaration; decision; judgment; opinion.—Deceived greatly they are, who think that all they are on any such *verdict* agreed. *Hooker.*—The most natural *verdict* of common humanity. *South.*

—Tried by the *verdict* of those who had before condemned them. *Waterland.*

(2.) **VERDICT**. See **LAW, Part III.** and **TRIAL.**

VERDIER, Cezar, a French surgeon and anatomist, born at Molieres near Avignon. He gave lectures on Anatomy and Midwifery at Paris. He published a treatise on Anatomy and another on Midwifery. He died at Paris in 1759.

(1.) * **VERDIGRISE**. *n. f.* The rust of brass, which in time being consumed and eaten with tallow, turneth into green; in Latin *æruugo*; in French *vert de gris*, or the hoary green. *Peacham.*

—Brass turned into green, is called *verdigrise*. *Bacon.*

(2.) **VERDIGRISE**, or the acetite of copper, is much used by painters as a green colour. It is chiefly manufactured at Montpellier; the vines of Languedoc being very convenient for this purpose. See **CHEMISTRY, Index.** A solution or erosion of copper, and consequently of verdigrise, may be prepared by employing vinegar instead of wine. But it would not have the unctuousity of ordinary verdigrise, which quality is necessary in painting. Good verdigrise must be prepared by means of a vinous acid, or solvent half acid and half spirituous. Accordingly, the success of the operation depends chiefly on the degree of fermentation to which the wine employed has been carried: for this fermentation must not have been so far advanced that no sensibly vinous or spirituous parts remained in the liquor. Verdigrise is employed externally for deterring foul ulcers, and as an escharotic. It is rarely or never given internally.

(1.) * **VERDITER**. *n. f.* Chalk made green.—*Ferditure* ground with a weak gum arabic water, is the faintest and palest green. *Peacham.*

(2.) **VERDITER**, or **VERDATER**, is a preparation of copper, sometimes used by the painters,

&c.

Sec. for a blue; but more usually mixed with a yellow for a green colour. See *CHEMISTRY, Index*; and *COLOUR-MAKING, Index*.

(1.) **VERDON**, a river of France, running into the Durance, at Pertuis.

(2.) **VERDON**, a town of Prussian Pomerelia; 60 miles S. of Dantzic.

(3.) **VERDUN**, an ancient and strong city of France, in the dep. of the Meuse, and late prov. of Lorraine. Here the British subjects detained in France, when treating of the war in 1803, were sent. It suffered much during the revolution. It was taken by the Prussians in 1792, but retaken in 1793. It is seated on the Meuse, 43 miles SW. of Luxembourg, 150 E. of Paris. Lon. 5. 28. E. Lat. 49. 9. N.

(4.) **VERDUN**, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne, and late Languedoc; on the Garonne, 12 miles NW. of Toulouse. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 43. 54. N.

(5.) **VERDUN**, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

(6.) **VERDUN**, a town of France, in the dep. of Aude; 6 miles NE. of Castlenaudary, and 15 NW. of Carcassonne.

(7.) **VERDUN**, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne; 18 m. NNW. of Toulouse.

(8.) **VERDUN**, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire; 9 miles NE. of Chalons.

* **VERDURE**. *n. f.* [*verdure*, French.] Green; green colour.—

Its *verdure* clad

Her universal face with pleasant green. *Milton*.

Let twisted olive bind those laurels fast;

Whose *verdure* must for ever last. *Prior*.

* **VERDUROUS**. *adj.* [from *verdure*.] Green; covered with green; decked with green.—

Higher than their tops,

The *verd'rous* wall of paradise up-sprung,

Which to our gen'ral fire gave prospect large,

Milton.

There the lowing herds chew *verd'rous* pasture. *Philips*.

(1.) **VERE**, Sir Francis, a renowned English general, was the 2d son of Geoffrey de Vere, a branch of the ancient family of that name, earls of Oxford, born in 1554. About the age of 31 he embarked with the troops sent by Q. Elizabeth, under the earl of Leicester, to assist the states of Holland; in which service his courage became immediately conspicuous; but his gallant behaviour in the defence of Bergen-op-Zoom, in 1588, when besieged by the prince of Parma, established his reputation. After the siege was raised, he was knighted by lord Willoughby, who had succeeded Leicester. He continued in the service of the states till 1595; in 1593, he was elected M. P. for Leominster. The famous expedition against Cadiz being resolved upon, Sir Francis was called home, and appointed to a principal command under the earl of Essex. The success was well known. In 1597 he was in Holland, at the battle of Turnhout, of which he has given a particular description in his *Commentaries*. In the same year he embarked, with the earl of Essex, in the expedition to the Azores; and at his return was appointed governor of the Briel in Holland, with the command of the English troops in the service of the states. In 1600 he was one of

the three generals at the battle of Nieuport, and the victory was universally ascribed to his conduct and resolution. But the last and most glorious achievement of his life was his gallant defence of Ostend, with about 1600 men, against an army of 12,000, from July 1601 until March 1602, when he resigned the government, and returned to Holland. He died in 1608, in the 54th year of his age. His *Commentaries* were printed at Cambridge, 1657, folio.

(2.) **VERE**, Sir Horace, brother of the above, was born in 1565. He was created a peer by the title of Lord Vere.

(3.) **VERE**, in geography, a river of England, in Hertfordshire running into the Coln, 2 miles SE. of St Albans.

(4.) **VERE**, a county of Jamaica, on the S. coast.

VEREA, a town of European Turkey, in Macedonia, 115 miles E. of Valona, and 48 W. of Saloniki.

* **VERECUND**. *adj.* [*verecund*, old French; *verecundus*, Latin.] Modest; bashful. *Diä*.

VERELST, Simon, an eminent Dutch Painter. He died in 1710.

VEREMUND, a native of Spain, who was archdeacon of St Andrews in Scotland, in the middle of the 11th century. He wrote a history of Scotland from its origin to the year 1060, and dedicated it to K. Malcolm III.

VERERIA, a town of Russia, in Moscovoe, 56 miles WSW. of Moscow.

VERES, a town of Russia, in Archangel; 80 miles NNW. of Kola.

VEREIL, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne; 10½ miles ENE. of Toulouse.

VERGANTINAS, a town of Spain, in Galicia; 20 miles SW. of Corunna.

VERGARA, a town of Spain, in Guipuscoa; 7 miles S. of Tolosa.

* **VERGE**. *n. f.* [*verge*, Fr. *virga*, Latin.] 1. A rod, or something in form of a rod, carried as an emblem of authority. The mace of a dean.—

Suppose him now a dean complete

Devoutly lolling in his seat,

The silver *verge*, with decent pride,
Stuck underneath his cushion side. *Swift*.

2. [*Vergo*, Latin.] The brink; the edge; the utmost border.—

Would the inclusive *verge*

Of golden metal, that must round my brow
Were red-hot steel, to sear me to the brain. *Shak*.

I say, and will in battle prove,

Or here, or elsewhere, to the furthest *verge*

That ever was survey'd by English eye. *Shak*.

Nature in you stands on the very *verge*
Of her confine. *Shak*.

Serve they as a flowery *verge* to bind
The fluid skirts of that same wat'ry cloud,
Lest it again dissolve, and shew'r the earth.

Milton.

Let fortune empty her whole quiver on me,
I have a soul, that, like an ample shield,
Can take in all, and *verge* enough for more.

Dryden.

—Every thing within the *verge* of nature, or out of it, has a proper part assigned it in this poem. *Addison*.—

Then let him chuse a damsel young and fair,
To bless his age, and bring a worthy heir,
To sooth his care, and, free from noise and strife,
Conduct him gently to the verge of life. *Pope.*
3. In law.—*Verge* is the compass about the king's court, bounding the jurisdiction of the lord steward of the king's household, and of the corner of the king's house, and which seems to have been 12 miles round. *Verge* hath also another signification, and is used for a stick, or rod, whereby one is admitted tenant, and, holding it in his hand, sweareth fealty to the lord of the manor; who, for that reason, is called tenant by the *verge*. *Cowell.*

Fear not; whom we raise
We will make fast within a halloved *verge*. *Shak.*

* To *VERGE*. *v. n.* [*vergo*, Lat.] To tend; to bend downwards.—*Verging* either way. *Holder.*—*Verging* to that period of life which is to be labour and sorrow. *Swift.*—When the juices *verge* to putrefaction. *Arbutnot.*

Man
Perhaps acts second to some sphere unknown,
Touches some wheel, or *verges* to some goal,
'Tis but a part we see and not the whole. *Pope.*

* *VERGER*. *n. f.* [from *verge*.] He that carries the mace before the dean.—I can tip the *verger* with half a crown and get into the best seat. *Fargusar.*

VERGES, a town of Spain in Catalonia; 19 miles E. of Gerona.

VERGIL, Polydore. See *VIRGIL*, No 2.

(1.) *VERGORAZ*, a town of European Turkey, in Dalmatia; 20 miles E. of Narenta.

(2.) *VERGORAZ AND NARENTA*, a province in Dalmatia, comprehending two districts, 36 miles long, and 13 broad; producing mulberries, figs, almonds, olives, &c. and containing 17,000 souls.

VERGY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cote d'Or; 10 miles SSW. of Dijon.

* *VERIDICAL*. *adj.* [*veridicus*, Latin.] Telling truth. *Diß.*

* *VERIFICATION*. *n. f.* [from *verify*.] Confirmation by argument or evidence.—In *verification* of this we will mention a phenomenon of our engine. *Boyle.*

* *VERIFIER*. *n. f.* [from *verify*.] One who assures a thing to be true.

* To *VERIFY*. *v. n.* [*verifier*, French.] To justify against a charge of falsehood; to confirm; to prove true.—*Verified* in sundry other kinds of teaching. *Hooker.*—This is *verified* by a number of examples. *Bacon.*

So shalt thou best fulfil, best *verify*

The prophets old. *Milton.*

So spake this oracle, then *verified*

When Jesus, Son of Mary, second Eve,
Saw Satan fall. *Milton.*

Though you may mistake a year,

Though your prognosticks run too fast,

They must be *verify'd* at last. *Swift.*

Spain shall have three kings; which is now wonderfully *verified*. *Swift.*

* *VERILY*. *adv.* [from *very*.] 1. In truth; certainly.—

Verily 'tis better to be lowly born;
Than to be perk'd up in a glist'ring grief. *Shak.*
2. With great confidence.—It was *verily* thought. *Bacon.*—We are *verily* persuaded the consequence will be an entire alteration of religion among us. *Swift.*

VERIN, a town of Spain, in Galicia; 30 miles SE. of Orense.

VERINA, a town of Terra Firma, in Cumana; 45 miles E. of Cumana.

* *VERISIMILAR*. *VERISIMILIOUS*. *adj.* [*verisimilis*, Latin.] Probable; likely.—Many erroneous doctrines of pontificians are, in our days, wholly supported by *verisimilous* and probable reasons. *White.*

* *VERISIMILITUDE*. *n. f.* [*verisimilitudo*, Latin.] Probability; likelihood; resemblance of truth.—*Verisimilitude* or probable truth. *Brown.*—If not such verities at least such *verisimilitudes*. *Brown.*—*Verisimilitude* and opinion are an easy purchase. *Glauv.*—They are exalted as high as the poet can carry them, with proportion to *verisimilitude*. *Dryden.*—Horace gives a permission to painters and poets to dare every thing; yet he encourages neither to make things out of nature and *verisimilitude*. *Dryden.*

* *VERITABLE*. *adj.* [*veritable*, Fr.] True; agreeable to fact.—
Indeed I 's't true?
—Most *veritable*; therefore look to't well. *Shak.*

—The preface of the year succeeding, made from insects in oak apples, is I doubt too indistinct, nor *veritable* from event. *Brown.*

* *VERITABLY*. *adv.* [from *veritable*.] In a true manner.

* *VERITY*. *n. f.* [*verité*, Fr. *veritas*, Latin.] 1. Truth; consonance to the reality of things.—

The *verity* of religion. *Hooker.*—
I saw their weapons drawn; there was a noise;
That's *verity*. *Shak.*

—Prejudicial to *verity*. *Glauv.*—It is a proposition of eternal *verity*, that none can govern while he is despised. *Soutb.* 2. A true assertion; a true tenet.—An undeniable *verity*. *Sidney.*—Celestial *verity*. *Hooker.*—

If there come truth from them,
Why, by the *verities* on thee made good,
May they not be my oracles as well? *Shak.*

Must virtue be preserved by a lie?
Virtue and truth do ever best agree;
By this it seems to be a *verity*;
Since the effects so good and virtuous be. *Dow.*

3. Moral truth; agreement of the words with the thoughts.

(1.) * *VERJUICE*. *n. f.* [*verjus*, French.] Acid liquor expressed from crab-apples. It is vulgarly pronounced *verges*.—Hang a dog upon a crab-tree, and he'll never love *verjuice*. *L'Estr.*

The barley pudding comes in place,
Then bids fall on; himself, for saving charges,
A peel'd slic'd onion eats, and tipples *verjuice*. *Dryden.*

—The native *verjuice* of the crab. *Philips.*

(2.) *VERJUICE* is obtained from grapes or apples when unfit for wine or cider; or from sweet ones, whilst yet acid and unripe. Its chief use is in

in fauces, ragouts, &c. It is also an ingredient in some medicinal compositions, and is used by the wax-chandlers to purify their wax.

VERLANGA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, on the Duero; below Almazan.

VERMAND, a town of France, in the dep. of Aisne, late capital of **VERMANDOIS**; 6 miles W. of St Quentin, and 8 E. of Peronne.

VERMANDOIS, a ci-devant prov. of France, in the late Picardy, which with the ci-devant prov. of Soissonnois, now forms the department of Aisne. It abounds in corn and flax.

VERMANTES, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire; 6 miles NW. of Bourgevil.

VERMANTON, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne; 12 miles NW. of Avalon, and 12 SE. of Auxerre. Lon. 3. 49. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

VERMEJO, a river of Brenos Ayres, running into the Parana.

VERMES, the sixth class of animals in the Linnean system, comprehending five orders. See **NATURAL HISTORY**, and **ZOOLOGY**.

(1.) * **VERMICELLI**. *n. f.* [Ital.] A paste rolled and broken in the form of worms.—With oysters, eggs, and *vermicelli*. *Prior*.

(2.) **VERMICELLI**, or **VERMICHELLY**, a composition of flour, cheese, yolks of eggs, sugar, and saffron, reduced to a paste, and formed into long slender pieces like worms, by forcing it with a piston through a number of little holes. It was first brought from Italy, where it is in great vogue: it is chiefly used in soups and pottages, to provoke venery, &c.

(1.) * **VERMICULAR**. *adj.* [*vermiculus*, Latin.] Acting like a worm; continued from one part to another of the same body.—The *vermicular* motion of the intestines. *Cheyne*.

(2.) **VERMICULAR**, is an epithet given to any thing that bears a resemblance to worms.

* **To VERMICULATE**. *v. a.* [*vermiculæ*, Fr. *vermiculatus*, Lat.] To inlay; to work in chequer work, or pieces of divers colours. *Bayley*.

* **VERMICULATION**. *n. f.* [from *vermiculate*.] Continuation of motion from one part to another.—My guts move by the motion of *vermiculation*. *Hale*.

* **VERMICULE**. *n. f.* [*vermiculus*, *vermis*, Lat.] A little grub worm.—Many *vermicules* are seen towards the outside of these apples. *Derham*.

* **VERMICULOUS**. *adj.* [*vermiculosus*, Latin.] Full of grubs; resembling grubs.

* **VERMIFORM**. *adj.* [*vermiforme*, Fr. *vermis* and *formo*, Lat.] Having the shape of a worm.

VERMIFORMIS, in anatomy, a term applied to various parts in the human body, bearing some resemblance to worms.

* **VERMIFUGE**. *n. f.* [from *vermis* and *fugo*, Lat.] Any medicine that destroys or expels worms.

(2.) **VERMIFUGE** is a medicine which expels worms from the intestines. Of those medicines which are in use for this purpose we have given a full account under **MEDICINE**, to the *Index* of which article we refer the reader. *Cowhage* is coming daily more into use, but is prohibited in every case where there is a tendency to inflammation in any part of the intestinal canal, or where the mucus has been carried off or greatly diminished by dysentery or any other cause. Dr

Haemmerlin of Ulm has lately recommended as a very powerful and safe vermifuge the coralline of Corfica, and says that it has been so used in that island with complete success from time immemorial. It is a fucus adhering to the rocks washed by the sea, and sometimes to the stones and shells thrown upon the shore. In the system of plants of Linnæus, it belongs to the class *cryptogamia*. Its most common names are *sea rock moss*; the *Grecian herb*; *lemithochorton*; and the *coralline of Corfica*.

(1.) * **VERMIL**. } *n. f.* [*vermeil*, *vermillon*,
(1.) * **VERMILION**.] Fr.] 1. The cochineal;

a grub of a particular plant. 2. Facitious or native cinabar; sulphur mixed with mercury.—This is the usual though not primitive signification.—Mercury is made into *vermillion* by solution or calcination. *Bacon*.—The fairest and most principal red is *vermillion*. *Peacocks*. 3. Any beautiful red colour.—And the pure snow with goodly *vermil* stain. *Spenser*.—Simple colours clear as *vermillion*. *Dryd*.—Pure *vermillion*. *Spenser*.

(2.) **VERMILION** is a very bright and beautiful red colour, composed of quicksilver and sulphur, in great esteem among the ancients under the name of *minium*; but what goes by the name of *minium* amongst us, is a preparation of lead, known also by the name of *red-lead*. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

* **To VERMILION**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To die red.—A sprightly red *vermilions* all her face. *Grano*.

(1.) * **VERMIN**. *n. f.* [*vermin*, Fr. *vermis*, Lat.]

1. Any noxious animal. Used commonly for small creatures.—How to prevent the fiend, and to kill *vermin*. *Shak*.—*Vermin*, such as weazles and polecats. *Bacon*.—Like a *vermin* or a wolf. *Taylor*.—A weazel being taken in a trap, the poor *vermin* stood much upon her innocence. *L'Estr*.—These *vermin*, mice and rats. *Mortimer*.—To nourish *vermin*. *Swift*. 2. It is used in contempt of human beings.—You are my prisoners, base *vermin*. *Hudibras*.

(2.) **VERMIN** is a collective name, including all kinds of little animals and insects, which are hurtful or troublesome to mankind, beasts, or fruits, &c. as worms, lice, fleas, caterpillars, ants, flies, &c.

* **To VERMINATE**. *v. n.* [from *vermin*.] To breed vermin.

* **VERMINATION**. *n. f.* [from *verminate*.] Generation of vermin.—Redi tried experiments relating to the *vermination* of serpents and flesh. *Derham*.

* **VERMINOUS**. *adj.* [from *vermin*.] Tending to vermin; disposed to breed vermin.—A *verminous* disposition of the body. *Harvey*.

* **VERMIPAROUS**. *adj.* [*vermis* and *pario*, Latin.] Producing worms.—They confound *vermiparous* animals with oviparous. *Brown*.

VERMIS SETARIUS. See **SETACEOUS WORM**.

VERMONT, one of the United States of North America, bounded on the N. by Canada; on the E. by the Connecticut, which divides it from New Hampshire, on the S. by Massachusetts; and on the W. by New York. It is about 155 miles long, and 60 broad, and is divided into 7 counties. A chain of high mountains, running N. and S.

S. divides this State nearly in the centre, between the Connecticut and lake Champlain. The natural growth upon the mountain which gives name to the State, is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a *green* appearance, and, on this account, has obtained the descriptive name of Vermont, from the French *Verd Mont*, Green Mountain. The country is generally hilly, but not rocky. It is finely watered, the soil is very fertile, and there is not a better climate in the world. The inhabitants have very lately been estimated at 100,000. The bulk of them are emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts. The principal town is Bennington, but the assembly generally hold their sessions at Windsor. By its constitution, universal suffrage of the citizens is established; and slavery is prohibited.

(1.) VERN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Dordogne, 10 miles S. of Perigueux.

(2.) VERN, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire; 6 miles S. of Segre, and 12 NW. of Angers.

* VERNACULAR. *adj.* [*vernaculus*, Lat.] Native; of one's own country.—A consumption is supposed a *vernacular* disease to England. *Harvey*.—The histories are transmitted to us in our *vernacular* idiom. *Addison*.

* VERNAL. *adj.* [*vernus*, Lat.] Belonging to the spring.—

Vernal bloom, or summer's rose. *Milton*.

VERNAMO, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

* VERNANT. *adj.* [*vernans*, Lat.] Flourishing as in the spring.—*Vernant* flowers. *Milton*.

VERNANTOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Jura; 3 miles S. of Lons, and 6 N. of Orgelet.

VERNASSA, a town of Genoa; 5 miles SW. of Spezza.

VERNE, a town of France, in the department of the Doubs; 3 miles N. of Beaume, and 6 W. of Clerval.

(1.) VERNET, a town of France, in the department of the Eastern Pyrenees; 4½ miles S. of Prades.

(2.) VERNET, a town of France, in the dep. of the Allier, 13½ miles N. of Digné.

(1.) VERNEUIL, a town of France, in the department of the Eure. It was taken from John king of England, and lost by Charles VIII. in 1449. It is 18 miles W. of Dreux, and 21 S. of Evreux.

(2.) VERNEUIL, a town of France, in the dep. of Allier; 15 miles E. of Montmaurault, and 15 S. of Moulins.

VERNI, a town of Lucca.

VERNIER SCALE, a scale excellently adapted for the graduation of mathematical instruments, thus called from its inventor Peter Vernier, a person of distinction in the Franche Comté. See *NONIUS*, N° 3. Vernier's method is derived from the following principle. If two equal right lines, or circular arcs, A, B, are so divided, that the number of equal divisions in B is one less than the number of equal divisions of A, then will the excess of one division of B above one division of A be compounded of the ratios of one of A to A, and of one of B to B.

For let A contain 11 parts, then one of A to A is as 11 to 11, or $\frac{11}{11}$. Let B contain 10 parts,

then one of B to B is as 1 to 10, or $\frac{1}{10}$. Now

$$\frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{11} = \frac{11-10}{10 \times 11} = \frac{1}{10 \times 11} = \frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{11}.$$

Or if B contains n parts, and A contains $n+1$ parts; then $\frac{1}{n}$ is one part of B, and $\frac{1}{n+1}$ is one

part of A. And $\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} = \frac{n+1-n}{n \times n+1} = \frac{1}{n \times n+1}.$

The most commodious divisions, and their aliquot parts, into which the degrees on the circular limb of an instrument may be supposed to be divided, on the radius of that instrument.

Let R be the radius of a circle in inches; and a degree to be divided into n parts, each being $\frac{1}{n}$ th part of an inch.

Now the circumference of a circle, in parts of its diameter a R inches, is $3.1415926 \times a R$ inches.

Then $360^\circ : 3.1415926 \times a R :: 1^\circ : \frac{3.1415926}{360} \times a R$ inches.

Or, $0.01745329 \times R$ is the length of one degree in inches.

Or, $0.01745329 \times R \times p$ is the length of 1° , in p th parts of an inch.

But as every degree contains n times such parts, therefore $n = 0.01745329 \times R \times p$.

The most commodious perceptible division is $\frac{1}{8}$ or $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch. *Examp.* Suppose an instru-

ment of 30 inches radius, into how many convenient parts may each degree be divided? how many of these parts are to go to the breadth of the vernier, and to what parts of a degree may an observation be made by that instrument? Now $0.01745 \times R = 0.5236$ inches, the length of each degree; and if p be supposed about $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch

for one division; then $0.5236 \times p = 4.188$ shows the number of such parts in a degree. But as this number must be an integer, let it be 4, each being $15'$; and let the breadth of the vernier contain 31 of those parts, or $7\frac{1}{2}^\circ$, and be divided into 30 parts.

Here $n = \frac{1}{4}$; $m = \frac{1}{30}$; then $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{30} = \frac{1}{120}$ of a degree, or $30'$, which is the least part of a degree that instrument can show.

If $n = \frac{1}{5}$, and $m = \frac{1}{36}$; then $\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{36} = \frac{60}{5 \times 36}$ of a minute, or $20''$.

The following table, taken as examples in the instruments commonly made from 3 inches to 8 feet radius, shows the divisions of the limb to nearest tenths of inches, so as to be an aliquot of $60'$ s, and what parts of a degree may be estimated by the vernier, it being divided into such equal parts, and containing such degrees as their columns show.

Rad. inch- es.	Parts in a deg.	Parts in vernier.	Breadth of vernier.	Parts obser- ved.
3	1	15	15½	4 0'
6	1	20	20½	3 0
9	2	20	10½	1 30
12	2	24	12½	1 15
15	3	20	6½	1 0
18	3	30	10½	0 40
21	4	30	7½	0 30
24	4	36	9½	0 25
30	5	30	7½	0 20
36	6	30	5½	0 20
42	8	30	3½	0 15
48	9	40	4½	0 10
60	10	36	3½	0 10
72	12	30	2½	0 10
84	15	40	2½	0 6
96	15	60	4	0 4

By altering the number of divisions, either in the degrees or in the vernier, or in both, an angle can be observed to a different degree of accuracy. Thus, to a radius of 30 inches, if a degree be divided into 12 parts, each being five minutes, and the breadth of the vernier be 21 such parts, or 12°, and divided into 20 parts, then $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{20} = \frac{1}{240} = 15''$; or taking the breadth of the vernier $2\frac{1}{2}^\circ$, and divided into 30 parts; then $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{30} = \frac{1}{360}$, or 10''; Or $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{50} = \frac{1}{600} = 6''$; where the breadth of the vernier is 43°.

* **VERNILITY**. *n. f.* [*verna*, Latin.] Servile carriage; the submissive fawning behaviour of a slave. *Bailey*.

VERNIO, a town of Etruria, 11 miles NW. of Pistoia.

VERNISSON, a river of France, which runs into the Loing at Montargis.

VERNOIL, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire, 13½ miles SE. of Bauge.

(1.) **VERNON**, Edward, a celebrated English admiral of great bravery, born in Westminster in 1684: He acquired great fame by his exploits in the Spanish W. Indies. He bombarded Carthagena, and took Porto Bello in 1739. He died in 1757 at an advanced age.

(2.) **VERNON**, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure, on the S. bank of the Seine, 15 miles ENE. of Evreux, and 15 ESE. of Louviers.

VERNONBURG, a town of Georgia, 11 miles S. of Savanna.

VERNOUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardeche, 13½ miles S. of Tournon, and 10½ W. of Privas.

VEROLI, a town of Italy, in the Campania of Rome; containing 8 churches and 3 convents; 3 miles S. of Alatri.

VERON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne; 5 miles SSE. of Sens.

VERONA, a city of Italy, in the department of the Mincio, and capital of the district, as it was of the ci-devant VERONESE. It has 3 castles, an academy, a town-house, and an opera-house. It

contains 57,000 citizens; it has strong walls, and an ancient Roman amphitheatre, which will hold 25,000 people. **PLINY** was born in it. It is 17 miles in circuit, and is seated on the Adige, 17 miles NE. of Mantua, and 62 SW. of Venice. Lon. 11. 24. E. Lat. 45. 26. N.

(1.) **VERONESE**, the people of VERONA.

(2.) **VERONESE**, a ci-devant territory of Italy, in the department of the Mincio, bounded on the N. by the Trentino, on the E. by the Vicentino and Paduano, on the S. by Mantua, and on the W. by the dep. of Olona. It is about 35 miles long and 27 broad, and is one of the most fertile countries in Italy, abounding in corn, wine, fruits, and cattle.

(3.) **VERONESE**. See **CAGLIARI**.

VERONETTE, a sea-port town of Italy.

VERONICA, in botany: A genus of plants of the class of *diandria*, and order of *monogynia*, and in the natural system arranged under the 40th order, *Personate*. There are 40 species; 15 are natives of Britain, only two of which have been applied to any use.

1. **VERONICA BECCABUNGA**, or common *brooklime*, the flowers of which are blue, in loose lateral spikes; leaves sessile, oval, opposite, thick, notched. This plant was formerly considered as of much use in several diseases, and was applied externally to wounds and ulcers; but if it have any peculiar efficacy, it is to be derived from its antiscorbutic virtue. As a mild refrigerant juice it is preferred where an acriminous state of the fluids prevails, indicated by prurient eruptions upon the skin, or in what has been called the *bat scurvy*. We must, however, acknowledge, that we should expect equal benefit from the same quantity of any other bland fresh vegetable matter taken into the system. To derive much advantage from it, the juice ought to be used in large quantities, or the fresh plant eaten as food.

2. **VERONICA OFFICINALIS**, common male speed-well, or fluellin; a native of Britain, growing on heaths and barren grounds. The blossoms are blue, the leaves elliptical, serrated, and hairy. The leaves have a small degree of astringency, and are somewhat bitter. The herb was formerly esteemed in medicine for various disorders, but is now almost totally disused. Cows, sheep, goats, and horses, eat it; swine refuse it.

VEROVITZA, a town of Slavonia, 36 miles SSE. of Canischa, and 52 NW. of Eszek.

VERPILLIERE, a town of France, in the dep. of Isere; 5 miles SE. of Lyons; and 4½ NE. of Vienna.

VERRANA, a town of Naples, in Otranto, 16 miles SSE. of Oria.

VERRAZ, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, late Piedmontese, and duchy of Aosta; 15 m. SE. of Aosta, and 35 N. of Turin.

VERRHEYEN, Philip, M. D. an eminent anatomist, born in Holland, in 1642. He laboured as a farmer till his 22d year; when he studied physic at the university of Louvain, where he graduated, and became a professor. He died in 1720. He published, 1. *De Corporis humani Anatomia*; 2 vols. 4to; 2. *De Febribus*, 8vo.

VERRIERS, 2 towns of France; 1. in the dep. of the Marne; 3 miles S. of St Mencheould; 2. in that

that of Vienne, $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. of Poitiers, and 12 W. of Mont Morillon.

VERRMEYEN, John Cornelius, an eminent painter at Haerlem, in 1500. He was employed by Charles V. He died at Brussels, in 1559, aged 59.

VERRNET, an eminent French painter, born at Avignon, in 1712. He died in 1789.

VERROCHIO, Andrew, a painter and statuary, born at Florence, in 1432. He discovered the art of taking casts in plaster, from the faces of the dead or the living. He executed some fine statues in bronze. He died in 1488.

VERRUCOLA, a town of Italy, in Etruria, 4 miles E. of Pisa.

VERRUYE, a town of France, in the dep. of the two Sevre, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles SW. of Partenay.

* VERSABILITY. } *n. f.* [*versabilis*, Latin.]

* VERSABLENESS. } Aptness to be turn'd or wound any way. *Dis.*

(1.) VERSAILLES, a city of France, in the dep. of the Seine and Oise, and late province of the Isle of France, 10 miles WSW. of Paris. It contains 60,000 inhabitants, and since the Revolution has been created a bishop's see. In the reign of Lewis XIII. it was only a small village. This prince built here a hunting-but in 1630, which Bassompierre calls "the paltry chateau of Versailles." Although the situation was low and very unfavourable, Lewis XIV. built a magnificent palace here, which was the usual residence of the kings of France till the 6th of October 1789, when the late unfortunate Lewis XVI. and his family were removed from it to the Thuilleries. The buildings and the gardens are adorned with a vast number of statues, done by the greatest masters, and the water-works are all worthy of admiration. The great gallery is thought to be as curious a piece of workmanship of that kind as any in the world: nor is the chapel less to be admired for its fine architecture and ornaments. The gardens, with the park, are 5 miles in circumference, and surrounded by walls. There are three fine avenues to Versailles, one of which is the common road to Paris, the other comes from Seaux, and the third from St Cloud. Lon. 2. 12. E. Lat. 48. 48. N.

(2.) VERSAILLES, a town of Kentucky, 10 miles SE. of Frankfort.

* VERSAL. *adj.* [A cant word for *universal*.] Total; whole.—

Some for brevity

Have cast the *versal* world's nativity. *Hudib.*

* VERSATILE. *adj.* [*versutilis*, Latin.] 1. That may be turned round.—

Th' advent'rous pilot, in a single year
Learn'd his state cock-boat dext'rously to steer,
Versatile, and sharp piercing like a screw,
Made good the old passage, and still forc'd a new. *Harte.*

2. Changeable; variable.—Those *versatile* representations in the neck of a dove, and folds of scarlet. *Glanville.* 3. Easily applied to a new task.

* VERSATILENESS. } *n. f.* [from *versatile*.]

* VERSATILITY. } The quality of being versatile.

VERSCHORISTS. See HATTEMISTS.

VERSCHURING, Henry, a painter born at Gorcum, of which he was chosen magistrate. He was drowned in 1699, aged 68.

* VERSE. *n. f.* [*vers*, Fr. *versus*, Latin.] 1. A line consisting of a certain succession of sounds, and number of syllables.—

Thou hast by moonlight at her window
sung

With feigning voice, verses of feigning love. *Shak.*

2. [*Verfet*, Fr.] A section or paragraph of a book.

—Thus far the questions proceed upon the construction of the first earth; in the following *verses* they proceed upon the demolition of that earth.

Burnet. 3. Poetry; lays; metrical language.—

Vers embalms virtue; and tombs and thrones
of rhymes

Preserve frail transitory fame as much

As spice doth body from air's corrupt touch. *Donne.*

If envious eyes their hurtful rays have cast,
More pow'ful *verse* shall free thee from the blast. *Dryden.*

Whilst she did her various power dispole,
Virtue was taught in *verse*, and Athens glory rose. *Prior.*

You compose

In splay-foot *verse*, or hobbling prose. *Prior.*

4. A piece of poetry.—

This *verse*, my friend, be thine. *Pope.*

* TO VERSE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To tell in verse; to relate poetically.—

In the shape of Corin fate all day,
Playing on pipes of corn, and *versing* love. *Shak.*

* TO BE VERSED. *v. n.* [*versor*, Latin.] To be skilled in; to be acquainted with.—She might be ignorant of their notions who was not *versed* in their names. *Brown.*

This, *versed* in death, th' infernal knight relates.

And then for proof fulfill'd their common fate. *Dryden.*

* VERSEMAN. *n. f.* [*verse* and *man*.] A poet; a writer in verse. In ludicrous language.—

The god of us *versemen*, you know, child, the fun. *Prior.*

From limbs of this great Hercules are fram'd
Whole groups of pigmies, who are *versemen* nam'd. *Harte.*

* VERSICLE. *n. f.* [*versiculus*, Lat.] A little verse.

* VERSIFICATION. *n. f.* [*versification*, Fr. from *versify*.] The art or practice of making verses.—Donne had not your *versification*. *Dryd.*

—Some object of his *versification*, which is in poetry what colouring is in painting, a beautiful ornament. *Glanville.*

* VERSIFICATOR. } *n. f.* [*versificator*, Fr. from *versify*.]

* VERSIFIER. } *versificator*, Latin.] A versifier; a maker of verses with or without the spirit of poetry.—Statius, the best *versificator* next Virgil, knew not how to design after him. *Dryd.*

—In Job and the Psalms we shall find more sublime ideas, more elevated language, than in any of the heathen *versifiers* of Greece and Rome.

Watts on the *Misc.*

(1.) * TO VERSIFY. *v. n.* [*versifier*, Fr. *versificor*, Latin.]

Latin.] To make verses.—You would wonder to hear how soon even children will begin to *versify*! *Sidney*.—To follow rather the Goths in rhyming, than the Greeks in true *versifying*. *Asch.*

I'll *versify* in spite, and do my best,
To make as much waste paper as the rest.

(2.) * *TO VERSIFY*. *v. a.* To relate in verse.—Unintermix'd with fictitious fancies, I'll *versify* the truth, not poetize. *Daniel*.

(1.) * *VERSION*. *n. f.* [*version*, Fr. *verso*, Lat.] 1. Change; transformation.—The *version* of air into water. *Brown*. 2. Change of direction.—Magnitude, colour, and *version* of the beams of comet. *Bacon*. 3. Translation.—Where the original is close, no *version* can reach it in the same compass. *Dryden*.—Invent some pretence against the reading, *version*, or construction. *Waverland*. 4. The act of translating.

(1.) *VERSION*. See *TRANSLATION*.

(1.) *VERSOIX*, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ain, on the bank of the lake of Geneva, 5 miles SE. of Gex, and 5 N. of Geneva.

(2.) *VERSOIX*, a river of France, in the dep. of Ain, running into the lake of Geneva.

(1.) *VERSOU*, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and late Tarentaise, 4 miles N. of St Maurice.

(2.) *VERSOU*, a town of France, in the dep. of Isère, 6 miles N. of Grenoble.

VERSTEGAN, Richard, an English antiquary, born in London, of Flemish parents, and educated at Oxford. He went to Antwerp, and wrote on the Antiquities of the renowned English Nation. Lond. 1634, 8vo, and 1674. He also wrote, *Regal Governments of England*, &c. He died in 1625.

VERST. See *WERST*.

(1.) * *VERT*. *n. s.* [*vert*, Fr.] *Vert*, in the laws of the forest, signifies every thing that grows, and bears a green leaf within the forest, that may cover and hide a deer. *Cowel*.—Great plenty of *vert* and venison. *Sir J. Davies*.

(2.) *VERT*, in heraldry, the term for a green colour. It is called *vert* in the blazon of the coats of all under the degree of nobles: but in coats of nobility it is called *emerald*; and in those of kings *venus*. In engraving it is expressed by diagonals, or lines drawn athwart from right to left, from the dexter chief corner to the sinister base.

VERTAISON, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dôme, 9 miles E. of Clermont.

VERTÈBRE, in anatomy. See *ANATOMY*, *Ind.*

* *VERTEBRAL*. *adj.* [from *vertebra*, Latin.] Relating to the joints of the spine.—The carotid, *vertebral*, and splenic arteries. *Ray*.

* *VERTEBRE*. *n. f.* [*vertebre*, Fr. *vertebra*, Lat.] A joint of the back.—The *vertebres* are elegantly compacted together. *Ray*.

VERTEILLAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne, 7½ miles N. of Ribérac.

* *VERTEX*. *n. f.* [Lat.] 1. Zenith; the point over head.—

These keep the *vertex*; but betwixt the bear And shining zodiac, where the planets err,

A thousand figured constellations roll. *Creech*.

.. A top of a hill; the top of any thing.—Every *vertex* or eminence affords new kinds of vegetables. *Derb*.

VOL. XXII. PART II.

* *VERTICAL*. *adj.* [*vertical*, Fr. from *vertex*] 1. Placed in the zenith.—

'Tis raging noon; and *vertical* the sun
Darts on the head direct his forceful rays.

Thomson

2. Placed in a direction perpendicular to the horizon.—From these laws all the rules of bodies ascending or descending in *vertical* lines may be deduced. *Cheyne*.

* *VERTICALITY*. *n. f.* [from *vertical*.] The state of being in the zenith.—Unto them the sun is vertical twice a year; making two distinct summers in the different points of the *verticality*: *Brown*.

* *VERTICALLY*. *adv.* [from *vertical*.] In the zenith.—Although it be not vertical unto any part in Asia, yet it *vertically* passeth over Peru and Brasilia. *Brown*.

VERTICILLATÆ, a class in Ray's and Boerhaave's Methods, consisting of herbaceous vegetables, having four naked seeds, and the flowers placed in whorls round the stalk. The term is synonymous to the *labiati*, or lip-flowers of Tournefort; and is exemplified in mint, thyme, and savory. *Verticillatæ* is also the name of the 42d order in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method, consisting of plants of the above description.

* *VERTICILLATE*. *adj.* [from *verticillum*, Latin.] *Verticillate* plants are such as have their flowers intermixt with small leaves growing in a kind of whorls about the joints of a stalk, as pennyroyal, horehound, &c. *Quincy*.

VERTICILLUS, a mode of flowering, in which the flowers are produced in rings at each joint of the stem, with very short footstalks. The term is exemplified in mint, horehound, and the other plants of the natural order of *Verticillatæ*.

(1.) * *VERTICITY*. *n. f.* [from *vertex*.] The power of turning; circumvolution; rotation.—Those stars do not peculiarly glance on us, but carry a common regard unto all countries, unto whom their *verticity* is also common. *Brown*.—We believe the *verticity* of the needle without a certificate from the days of old. *Glanv*.—They have a *verticity* about their own centres. *Locke*.

(2.) *VERTICITY* is that property of the loadstone whereby it turns or directs itself to one particular point.

* *VERTIGINOUS*. *adj.* [*vertiginosus*, Latin.] 1. Turning round; rotatory.—This *vertiginous* motion gives day and night successively over the whole earth. *Bentley*. 2. Giddy.—These make the workmen faint and *vertiginous*. *Woodward*.

(1.) * *VERTIGO*. *n. f.* [Lat.] A giddiness; a sense of turning in the head.—*Vertigo* is the appearance of visible objects that are without motion, as if they turned round, attended with a fear of falling, and a dimness of sight. *Quincy*.—The forerunners of apoplexy are dulcets, *vertigos*, tremblings. *Arbutnot*.—

That old *vertigo* in his head,
Will never leave him till he's dead; *Swift*.

(2.) *VERTIGO*. See *MEDICINE*, *Index*.

VERTON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Loire; 4½ miles NE. of Nantes.

VERTOT D'ARDEUR, Rene Aubert de, a celebrated historian, was born of a noble family in

G g g g Normandy,

Normandy, in 1655. At 16 years of age he became Franciscan friar; afterwards he entered into the order of the Præmonstratenses, in which he had several benefices; and at length was a secular ecclesiastic. He became secretary to the dukes of Orleans, member of the Academy of Inscriptions, and historiographer of Malta. He died at Paris in 1735. His principal works are, 1. The History of the Revolution of Sweden. 2. The Revolutions of Portugal. 3. The Revolutions of the Romans. 4. The History of Malta. These works are translated into most of the languages of Europe.

VERTUE, George, a celebrated engraver, born in London, in 1684. His engravings are mostly portraits. He wrote a History of Painters, which was published by Horace Walpole, in 3 vols. 4to. He died in 1757.

(1.) **VERTUIL**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Charente, 3 miles S. of Ruffec, and 20 N. of Angoulême.

(2.) **VERTUIL**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, 6 miles NE. of Tonneins.

VERTUMNUS, in mythology, a god who presided over gardens and orchards, honoured among the Egyptians, from whom the worship of this deity was transmitted to the Romans. Ovid has described the various forms assumed by this deity, in order to obtain the love of Pomona. Some have supposed that Vertumnus, whose name they derive *a vertendo*, because he had power to change his form at pleasure, marked the year and its variations; and thus they say he pleased Pomona, by bringing the fruits to maturity. Accordingly, Ovid says, that he assumed the form of a labourer, reaper, vine-dresser, and old woman, to represent the four seasons, spring, summer, autumn, and winter. Vertumnus had a temple near the market place at Rome, being represented as one of the tutelary deities of the merchants. The commentators on Ovid say, that he was an ancient king of Etruria, who, by his diligent and successful cultivation of fruits and gardens, obtained the honour of being ranked among the gods.

VERTUS, a town of France, in the dep. of Marne, 15 miles SW. of Chalons, and 22 S. of Reims.

(1.) * **VERVAIN**. **VERVINE**. *n. f.* [*verveine*, Fr. *verbena*, Lat.] A plant.—

She nightshade strows to work him ill,
Therewith the *vervain*, and her dill,
That hindereth witches of their will. *Drayton*.
Some scattering pot-herbs here and there he found,
Which, cultivated with his daily care,
And bruis'd with *vervain*, were his frugal fare. *Drayton*.

(2.) * **VERVAIN**. *mallow. n. f.* A plant. It hath the whole habit of the mallow or althæa; but differs from it in having its leaves deeply divided. *Miller*.

(3.) **VERVAIN**, in botany. See **VERBENA**.

VERUDA, an island of Austria, in the Adriatic, near the coast of Istria, 4 miles S. of Pola.

* **VERVELES** *n. f.* [*vervelle*, Fr.] Labels tied to a hawk. *Ainsworth*.

VERULÆ, a town of Italy, possessed by the **HERNICI**. *Liv.* 9. C. 42.

VERVIERS, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege; 17 miles ESE. of Liege.

* **VERVINE**. See **VERVAIN**, N° 1.

VERVINS, a town of France, in the dep. of Aisne; famous for a treaty between Henry IV. of France, and Philip II. of Spain, in 1698, 110 m. N. of Paris. *Lon.* 4. o. E. *Lat.* 49. 50. N.

VERULAM, *Lord*. See **BACON**, N° 2.

VERULAMIUM, an ancient town of England, in Hertfordshire, near St Albans, built by the Romans. It was destroyed in the wars between the Britons and Saxons. It was a chief town of the **CATTI**.

VERUMONTANUM, in anatomy, a small eminence near the passages where the semen is discharged into the urethra.

VERUS, Lucius **Ælius** Aurelius Cejonius, emperor of Rome, the son of **Ælius** by Domitia Lucilla, was adopted by Marcus Aurelius as his colleague; and was sent into Syria, out of which he drove the Parthians, for which he had a triumph. (See **PARTHIA**, § 11.) He died in his 39th year. He was a prince of dissolute manners.

(1.) * **VERY**. *adj.* [*veray*, or *verai*, French; whence *veray* in ancient English. It has its degrees *verier* and *veriest*.] 1. True; real.—He with his *very* heart despiseth me. *Shak.*—In *very* deed as the Lord liveth. 1 *Sam.*—O that in *very* deed we might behold it. *Dryd.* 2. Having any qualities, commonly bad, in an eminent degree; complete; perfect; mere.—They who had drunk of Cicero's cup, were turned into *very* beasts. *Davies*.—

There, where *very* desolation dwells. *Mil.*
3. To note the things emphatically or eminently.

'Tis an ill office for a gentleman;
Especially against his *very* friend. *Shak.*

Was not my love
The *verier* wag o' th' two? *Shak.*

—The *very* knowledge of former times passes but for ignorance in a better dress. *South*.—Cloath'd down to the *very* wrists, and up to the *very* chin. *Addis*. 4. Same, emphatically.—Roses display'd, doth fall that *very* hour. *Shak.*—These *very* cocks *L'Esfrang.*—So catholick a grace is charity, that whatever time is the special opportunity of any other Christian grace, that *very* time is also the special opportunity of charity. *Spratt*.

(2.) * **VERY**. *adv.* In a great degree; in an eminent degree.—The Greek orator was so *very* famous for this. *Addis*.—That bold challenge was thought *very* strange. *Lefley*.

VERZINO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, 3 miles SW. of Umbriatico.

VERZUOLO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late marquise of Salluzzo, in a fertile soil, and fine climate, near the Vratia. It has a castle, walls, and towers. It is 2½ miles S. of Saluzzo.

VERZY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Marne, 9 miles SE. of Reims.

VESALIUS, Andrew, M. D. a physician and anatomist, born at Brussels about 1512. He studied physic at Paris under James Sylvius; but applied himself chiefly to anatomy, which was then very little known, dissections being esteemed unlawful and impious. About 1537 the republic

of Venice made him professor in the university of Padua, where he taught anatomy for 7 years; Charles V. called him to be his physician, as he was also to Philip II. of Spain; but having opened the body of a Spanish gentleman, it is said, before life was extinct, the relations complained to the inquisition, and it required interest to allow him to expiate his offence by a pilgrimage to Palestine. He was shipwrecked on his return, and thrown upon the island of Zante, where he perished, in 1562. He was author of several works, the principal of which is *De humani corporis fabrica*.

VESCAVATO, a town of Corsica.

VESCIA, an ancient town of Campania. *Liv.* 8. c. 11.

VESCOVIO, a town of Italy, in Sabina: 12 miles S. of Narni.

VESCOVO, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra: 14 miles SW. of Amalfi.

VESELIZE, a town of France, in the dep. of Meurthe, on the Prenon, 13 miles SW. of Nanci, and 162 SE. of Paris. Lon. 6. 10. E. Lat. 48. 28. N.

VESENTIO, an ancient town of Gaul, now called BESANCON.

VESENTIUM, a town of Etruria.

* To VESICATE. *v. a.* [*vesica*, Lat.] To blister.—Celsus proposes, that in all these internal wounds, the external parts be *vesicated*. *Wifem.*—I saw the cuticular *vesicated*. *Wifem.*

* VESICATION. *n. f.* [from *vesicare*.] Blistering; separation of the cuticle.—I defended the *vesication* with pledgets. *Wifem.*

VESICATORIUM, a BLISTER: an application of an acrid nature made to any part of the body, in order to draw a flux of humours to that part, and thus elevate the scarf-skin into a blister.

* VESICATORY. *n. f.* [*vesicatorium*, technical, Latin.] A blistering medicine.

* VESICLE. *n. f.* [*vesicula*, Lat.] A small cuticle, filled or inflated.—The humour is contained in a *vesicle* or little bladder. *Brown.*—The lungs are made up of such air pipes and *vesicles* interwoven with blood-vessels. *Ray.*

* VESICULAR. *adj.* [from *vesicula*, Lat.] Hollow; full of small interstices.—A muscle is a bundle of *vesicular* threads. *Cbeysne.*

VESIKE, a river of France, running into the Lignon, near its junction with the Loire.

VESLE, two rivers of France; 1. in the dep. of the Aisne; which runs into the Aisne, near Veilly; 2. running into the Saine, opposite Varonec.

VESLETS, a town of France, in the dep. of Aisne, and late Soissonnois; 10 m. from Soissons.

(1.) VESOUL, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Saone, and ci-devant prov. of Franche Comte. It is seated at the foot of the mountain, (N° 2.) near the Dugeon; 22 miles N. of Besaçon, and 200 SE. of Paris. Lon. 6. 8. E. Lat. 47. 30. N.

(2.) VESOUL, a mountain of France, in the dep. of Upper Saone.

VESPA, the WASP; a genus of insects belonging to the order of hymenoptera. The mouth consists of two jaws without any proboscis: the superior wings are plaited; the eyes are lunar; and there is a sharp sting in the tail. There are 239 species; 3 of which are natives of Britain, viz.

1. *VESPA COARCTATA*, the *small wasp*; has

black antennæ, yellowish at the base; the head is black with a yellow spot between the antennæ, and another at the base of the upper lip. Each segment of the abdomen is bordered with yellow. It is about half an inch long. The history, as well as the manners of this species, are the same as those of the common wasp; but their buildings are on a different construction. Their nest is fastened to the branch of a tree with a kind of band; and is in bigness from the size of an orange to an egg. Wood reduced to paper is the material part of it; which if it were of a ruddy colour, might be taken for a large opening rofe. It is covered over with a varnish impenetrable by water.

2. *VESPA CRABO*, the HORNET. It has tawny antennæ; the segments of the abdomen are black on the anterior part, and yellow on the posterior, with two black spots on each. Its length is an inch; it builds in hollow trees. Its cakes or combs are composed of a substance like coarse paper, or rusty parchment. It is very voracious, devouring other insects, and even bees.

3. *VESPA VULGARIS*, the *common wasp*. The male has seven yellow segments on the abdomen, with a black triangle on each: The head is yellow, and the antennæ long. The upper lip of the female is yellow, the antennæ short; there are six segments of the abdomen with two lateral black spots on each. M. Reaumur and Dr Derham agree in distinguishing three sorts of wasps; viz. the queens or females, the males, and the common labouring wasps, called *mules*, or *neuters*, which, according to Reaumur, are neither males nor females, and consequently barren. The queens, of which there is a great number, are much longer in the body, and larger than any other wasp: they have a large heavy belly, corresponding in size to the prodigious quantity of eggs with which they are charged. The males are less than the queens, but longer and larger than the common wasps, which are the smallest of the species: they have no stings, with which both the queens and common wasps are furnished. There are in one nest 200 or 300 males, and as many females: but their number depends on the size of the nest: and Dr Derham observed, that the males were bred, or at least mostly resided, in the two cells or partings, between the combs, next to the uppermost cell. The antennæ or horns of the male wasps are longer and larger than those of either of the other sorts: but the chief difference consists in their parts of generation, which are altogether different from those of other wasps. The males are the labourers belonging to a nest, and are employed in procuring materials for the nests and in constructing them, and also in furnishing the other wasps, and the young, with provisions. At the beginning of winter, the wasps destroy all the eggs, and all the young ones without exception: all the males and males, which have been employed in this work, being unfurnished with provisions, perish; and none survive except some few females, which, according to Reaumur, were fecundated in October, and raise a new colony in the beginning of spring. In spring a new commonwealth is founded by a single female impregnated during the autumn, and that has weathered out the severity of the winter. It digs a hole in a dry

G g g g soil,

soil, contrives itself a sinuous inlet, or else it takes up with the dwelling place of a mole, where it hastily builds a few cells and deposits its eggs. Within 20 days, they have gone through the different states of larvæ, chrysalids, and turned to wasps. Nature all-wise provides for every thing. The male wasps are the only ones that labour at laying the foundation of the republic. The first eggs that are hatched prove to be neuter wasps. No sooner are they come into existence, but they fall to work, enlarge the hole, and go about upon wood, lattice work, and window sashes, in search of materials for buildings. With their teeth they cut, hack, and tear off small fibres of wood, which they moisten with a liquor they disgorge, and then convey them to the work-shop. Other labourers are in waiting for them, who with those materials set about the construction of the wasp nest, which is commonly round, and made of materials resembling fine paper. The common covering of it, which is formed of several leaves or layers, with intermediate spaces, is pierced by two holes at a distance from one another, one of which is used for the entrance of the wasps, and the other only for their exit. The space within this covering is cut by a number of horizontal planes, with intervals between them of the size of about half an inch: they are suspended from one another by ligaments; and attached to the covering by their edges: they all have hexagonal cells in their lower surface. The eggs of the wasp are of an oblong form, and resemble those of a common fly, but they are larger; they are always fastened to the angles of a cell, never to the sides of it. They are usually placed single; it is very rare to find two in one cell; and, if they are laid so, it seems that only one succeeds; for there is never found more than one worm in a cell. The heads of all the nymphs are turned toward the centre of the comb, and their tails go obliquely downward toward the base of the cell. They are continually seen opening their mouths, and moving their forcipes, seeming ever hungry, and impatiently waiting for food from their parents. The cells are left open till the nymph is at its full growth; then the wasps cover it over with a thin lid, under which the worm undergoes its transformation; and as soon as it is arrived at the wasp-state, it eats its way through this thin cover, and comes to work with the rest. The elder brothers, or first hatched insects, take amazing care of those born after them, by proportioning their food to the delicacy of their stomach. First, it consists of the juice of fruits and meats; afterwards it is the carcasses of insects. The caterers provide for the labourers. Each one takes his own portion; there is no dispute, no fighting. The republic grows daily more numerous, living in profound peace. Every individual, as soon as he has acquired sufficient strength, flies away to the fields. They then become a gang of banditti. During the period of plenty, the wasps bring all the booty to the nest, and share it amongst them. Towards the month of October provisions begin to run short: The neuters and males tear from their cradles the eggs, the larvæ, the chrysalids, and the new-born insects, without showing mercy

to any. They next fight against one another. Frosts and rains throw them into a state of languor, and they almost all perish, some few females alone excepted, which in the ensuing spring become founders of new republics.

(1.) VESPASIAN, the 10th emperor of Rome; remarkable for his clemency and other virtues. See ROME, § 30.

(2.) VESPASIAN, TITUS. See ROME, § 31; and TITUS, N° 4.

(1.) * VESPER, *n. f.* [Lat.] The evening star; the evening.—These signs are black *Vesper's* pageants. *Shak.*

(2.) * VESPERS, *n. f.* without singular, [from *vesperus*, Latin.] The evening service of the Roman church.

VESPERTILIO, the BAT; a genus of quadrupeds, belonging to the order of *primates*. All the teeth are erect, pointed, near each other; and the first 4 are equal. The fore-feet have the toes connected by a membrane expanded into a kind of wings by which the creature is enabled to fly. There are 28 species, of which 4 are natives of Britain. The most remarkable are,

1. VESPERTILIO MURINUS, common bat; has a tail: the lips and nose are simple; and the ears are smaller than the head. It inhabits Europe, and is found in Britain. This animal flies only during the night, living chiefly on moths: when it lights on the ground, it is unable to rise again till it has crawled to some height: it remains torpid during winter, revives in the beginning of the spring, and comes abroad in the dusk of the evening. This species is two inches and a half long; when full grown, and about nine inches in extent; the fur is of a mouse-colour, tinged with reddish; it generally skims near the ground, with an uneven jerking flight; and often seeking for knots and other aquatic insects, flies close by the surface of water. They breed in summer, and are preyed on by owls. Bats are very voracious, if proper food is to be had; and though moths and other insects be their natural and common food, yet if flesh, whether raw or roasted, fresh or corrupted, comes in their way, they devour it with greediness. In this country they appear early in spring, flying about only in the evenings; but are sometimes roused from their torpidity by a warm day or two during winter, and will then venture out in quest of food, but recommence their state of hybernation whenever the cold returns: They retire at the end of summer into caves, ruined houses, or the roofs and eaves of houses, where they remain suspended by the hind legs, and enveloped in their wings, generally in large numbers. Bats may be caught by means of the flower cups of bur-dock, whitened and thrown up in the way of their flight; they are attracted by the whiteness, and the hooks of the bur, sticking to their membranous wings, making them fall to the ground. Bats have been subjected to some cruel experiments, by the Abbe Spallanzani and M. de Jurine; from which it appears, 1st, That the eyes of the bat are not indispensably necessary to it for finding its way; 2d, That the organ of hearing appears to supply that of sight in the discovery of bodies, and to furnish these animals with dis-

nt sensations to direct their flight and enable them to avoid those objects that may present themselves.

2. *VESPERTILIO NOCTULIS*, hath the nose lightly bilobated; ears small and rounded; on the chin a minute verruca; hair reddish ashy-colour; length of the rump 2 inches eight-tenths; all one inch seven-tenths; extent of wings 13 inches; inhabits Great Britain and France; flies high in search of food, not skimming near the ground. A gentleman informed Mr Pennant, that he saw taken, under the eaves of Queen's College, Cambridge, in one night, 185 of these animals; the second night, 63; the third night, 5; and that each that was measured had 15 inches extent of wings.

3. *VESPERTILIO PERUVIANUS*, the *Peruvian bat*, hath a head like a pug-dog; large straight-pointed ears; two canine teeth, and two small cutting teeth between each, in each jaw, the tail is inclosed in the membrane which joins to each hind-leg, and is also supported by two long cartilaginous ligaments involved in the membrane: colour of the fur, iron grey: body equal to that of a middle sized rat; extent of the wings, two feet five inches.

4. *VESPERTILIO SPECTRUM*, or *specfre*, with a long nose; large teeth; long, broad, and upright ears: at the end of the nose a long conic erect membrane, bending at the end, and flexible; hair on the body cinereous, and pretty long: wings full of ramified fibres; the membrane extends from hind leg to hind leg; no tail; but from the rump extend three tendons, terminating at the edge of the membrane. By Seba's figure the extent of the wings are two feet two inches; from the end of the nose to the rump, $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches. They inhabit South America; live in the palm trees; grow very fat; called *vampyre*, by M. de Buffon, who supposes it to be the species that suck human blood.

5. *VESPERTILIO VAMPIRUS*, the *VAMPIRE*, or *Ternate bat*, with large canine teeth; 4 cutting teeth above, the same below; sharp black nose; large naked ears; the tongue is pointed, terminated by sharp aculeated papillæ; talons very crooked, strong, and compressed sidewise; no tail; the membrane divided behind quite to the rump; head of a dark ferruginous colour; on the neck, shoulder, and under side, of a much lighter and brighter red; on the back the hair shorter, dusky, and smooth; the membranes of the wings dusky. They vary in colour; some being entirely of a reddish brown, others dusky. These monsters inhabit Guinea, Madagascar, and all the islands from thence to the remotest in the Indian Ocean. They fly in flocks, and perfectly obscure the air with their numbers; they begin their flight from one neighbouring island to another immediately on sun-set, and return in clouds from the time it is light till sun-rise. They live on fruits; and are so fond of the juice of the palm-tree, that they will intoxicate themselves with it till they drop on the ground. It is most likely, from the size of their teeth, they are carnivorous. Mr Edwards relates, that they will dip into the sea for fish. They swarm like bees; hanging by one another from the trees in great

clusters. The Indians eat them, and declare the flesh to be very good: they grow excessively fat at certain times of the year. The French who live in the Isle de Bourbon boil them in their bouillon to give it a relish. The negroes have them in abhorrence. Many are of an enormous size: Beckman measured one, whose extent from tip to tip of the wings was 5 feet 4 inches; and Dampier another, which extended farther than he could reach with outstretched arms. Their bodies are from the size of a pullet to that of a dove: their cry is dreadful, their smell rank, their bite, resistance, and fierceness great, when taken. The ancients had some knowledge of these animals. Herodotus mentions certain winged wild beasts like bats, that molested the Arabs who collected the cassia, to such a degree, that they were obliged to cover their faces, all but their eyes, with skins. It is very probable, as M. de Buffon remarks, it was from such relations that poets formed their fictions of *HARPIES*. Linnæus gives this species the title of *vampyre*; conjecturing it to be the kind which draws blood from people in their sleep. M. de Buffon denies it; ascribing that faculty only to the *SPECTRUM*, N^o 4. But there is reason to imagine that this thirst after blood is not confined to the bats of one continent, nor to one species; for Bontius and Nieuhoff inform us, that the bats of Java seldom fail attacking persons who lie with their feet uncovered, whenever they can get access; and Gumilla, after mentioning a greater and less species found on the banks of the Oronque, declares them to be equally greedily after human blood. Persons thus attacked have been known to be near passing from a sound sleep into eternity. The bat is so dexterous a bleeder, as to insinuate its aculeated tongue into a vein without being perceived, and then suck the blood till it is satiated; all the while fawning with its wings, and agitating the air in that hot climate in so pleasing a manner, as to lull the sufferer into a still sounder sleep. It is therefore very unsafe to rest either in the open air, or to leave open any entrance to these dangerous animals; but they do not confine themselves to human blood; for M. Condamine says, that in certain parts of America, they have destroyed all the great cattle introduced there by the missionaries. See *Plate CCCXXIX. fig. 3.*

* *VESPERTINE*. *adj.* *vespertinus*, Lat.] Happening or coming in the evening; pertaining to the evening.

VESPRIN, a town and bishop's see of Hungary; taken by Count Tilly in 1683, and retaken by Count Mercy in 1684. Its fortifications were razed in 1701. It is 16 miles SW. of Stuhlweissenburg, and 33 SSE. of Raab.

VESPUTIUS. See *AMERICUS*.

VESSA, a town of Sicily.

VESSAUX, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardeche, 9 miles SW. of Privas.

(1.) * *VESSEL*. *n. f.* [*vasselle*, Fr. *vas*, Latin.] x. Any thing in which liquids, or other things are put.—

For Banquo's issue have I filled my mind,
Put rancours in the vessel of my peace,
Only for them.

—If you have two vessels to fill, and you empty one

Shak.
one

one to fill the other, there still remains one *vesfel* empty. *Burnet*. 2. The containing parts of an animal body.—Of these *vesfels* are constituted the organs of the body. *Arbutnot*.—Another cause of a wasting ulcer in the lungs, is, the disruption of a *vesfel*. *Blackmore*. 3. Any vehicle in which men or goods are carried on the water.—They had *vesfels* to transport themselves. *Rakigh*.—The Phœnicians first invented open *vesfels*. *Heylyn*.—The *vesfel* is represented as stranded. *Addis*.—

From storms of rage, and dangerous rocks of pride,

Let thy strong band this little *vesfel* guide.
It was thy hand that made it, through the tide
Impetuous of this life, let thy command
Direct my course, and bring me safe to land.

Prior.

Now secure the painted *vesfel* glides,
The fun-beams trembling on the floating tides.

Pope.

4. Any capacity; any thing containing.—

I have my fill

Of knowledge, what this *vesfel* can contain.

Milt.

5. [In theology.] One relating to God's household.—The few chosen *vesfels*. *Hammond*.

(1.) *VESSEL*. *n. f.* A general name given to the different sorts of ships which are navigated on the ocean, or in canals and rivers. It is, however, more particularly applied to those of the smaller kind, furnished with one or two masts. See *SHIP*, § 3, 19.

* *To VESSEL*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To put into a vessel; to barrel.—Take earth and *vesfel* it, and in that set the seed. *Bacon*.

* *VESSETS*. *n. f.* A kind of cloth commonly made in Suffolk. *Bailey*.

* *VESSICNON*. *n. f.* [among horsemen.] A windgall, or soft swelling on the inside and outside of a horse's hoof. *Diſt*.

* *VEST*. *n. f.* [*vestis*, Latin.] An outer garment.—

O'er his lucid arm

A military *vest* of purple flowed. *Milton*.

When the queen in royal habits drest,

Old mystick emblems grace th' imperial *vest*.

Smith.

* *To VEST*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dress; to deck; to enrobe.—

The verdant fields with those of heaven may vie,

With either *vested*, and a purple sky. *Dryd*.

Light! Nature's resplendent robe,

Without whose *vesting* beauty all were wrapt
In gloom. *Thomson*.

2. To dress in a long garment.—

Just Simeon and prophetic Anna spoke

Before the altar and the *vested* priest. *Milton*.

3. To make professor of; to invest; it has *with* before the thing possessed.—*Vested with* power over them. *Locke*.—

Had I been *vested with* the monarch's power,
Thou must have sigh'd, unlucky youth! in vain.

Prior.

4. To place in possession; with *in* before the possessor.—Entirely *vested in* the parliament. *Clarend*.—Empire was *vested in* him. *Locke*.

(1.) *VESTA*, in pagan worship, the same as Cybele. See *CYBELLE*, and *OPS*.

(2.) *VESTA*, in pagan worship, the goddess FIRE, was the daughter of Saturn and Ops and the sister of Ceres. She was so much in with chastity, that on Jupiter's ascending throne and offering to grant whatever she desired the only desired the preservation of her virgin which she obtained.—*Vesta* was not represented in her temple by any image.

(1.) * *VESTAL*. *adj.* [*vestalis*, Latin.] Denotes pure virginity.—

Her *vestal* livery is but sick and green;

And none but fools do wear it. *Sh*

(2.) * *VESTAL*. *n. f.* [*vestalis*, Latin.] A woman consecrated to *Vesta*; a pure virgin.—

Women are not

In their best fortunes strong, but want
perjure

The ne'er touch'd *vestal*.

How happy is the blameless *vestal*'s lot!

The world forgetting, by the world forgot. *P*

(3.) The *VESTALS*, among the ancient Romans were priestesses of the goddess *Vesta*, and had perpetual fire committed to their charge; there were at first only four in number, but afterwards increased to six; and it does not appear that the number ever exceeded six, among whom was superior to the rest, and called *vestalis maxima*. The *vestals* were chosen from six to ten years of age, and obliged to strict continency for 30 years the first 10 of which were employed in learning ceremonies of religion, the next 10 in the performance of them, and the 10 last in teaching them to the younger *vestals*. The habit of the *vestal* consisted of an head-dress, called *infula*, which clove to the head, and from whence hung certain laces called *vitta*; a kind of surplice made of white linen, and over it a purple mantle with long train to it.

VESTALIA, in Roman antiquity, a festival celebrated in honour of the goddess *Vesta*, on the 5th of the ides of June; i. e. on the 9th of the month.

(1.) *VESTIBLE*. See *ARCHITECTURE*, § 30

(2.) * *VESTIBULE*. *n. f.* [*vestibulum*, Latin.] The porch or first entrance of a house.

* *VESTIGE*. *n. f.* [*vestigium*, Latin.] Footstep; mark left behind in passing.—The truth passes slightly that they must use great subtilty to trace its *vestiges*. *Harvey*.

VESTINCHA, a town of Bosnia, 44 miles S. Birac, and 68 S. of Novi.

VESTITZA, a town of European Turkey, in the Morea, 44 miles ENE. of Chiarenza.

* *VESTMENT*. *n. f.* [*vestimentum*, Latin.] Garment; part of dress.—That so mean a thing as a *vestment* should withdraw their hearts from the service of God. *Hooker*.—Those sable *vestments* and that bright aspect. *Waller*.—*Vestments* suitable to the persons. *Dryden*.

(1.) * *VESTRY*. *n. f.* [*vestiaire*, Fr. *vestiarium* Latin.] 1. A room pendant to the church, in which the sacerdotal garments, and consecrated things are repositied.—The chalice from the robb'd *vestry* brings. *Dryden*. 2. A parochial assembly commonly convened in the vestry.—They created

the new senators, *vestry* elders, without any amendment of the word. *White*.—The common-council are chosen every year by the *vestry*. *rend*.—Where constables will not summon us *vestries*. *Blunt to Pope*.

2.) VESTRY is also a meeting consisting of the minister, church-wardens, and chief men of most parishes, who make a parish vestry. By custom are select vestries, being a certain number of persons chosen to have the government of the parish, make rates, and take the accounts of church-wardens, &c.

* VESTURE. *n. f.* [*vesture*, old French; *vestura*, Italian.] Garment; robe.—Her envious *vesture* seditiously fight repelling. *Fairfax*.—Cæsar's *vesture* wounded. *Shak.*—Should from her *vesture* chance steal a kiss. *Shak.*—There polish'd chests emboister'd *vestures* grac'd. *Pope*. 2. Dress; habit; external form.—This muddy *vesture* of decay. *Shak.*—Rocks, apparel'd with a *vesture* of plants. *Newton*.

VESUBIA, a river of the French empire, in the p. of the Po; and late Piedmontese, which runs to the Var, 8 miles N. of Nice.

VESULUS, a mountain of Liguria, among the Alps, at the source of the Po, now called VISO.

VESUVIAN, in mineralogy, white garnet of Vesuvius. See MINERALOGY, Part II. Ch. IV. l. 1. Ord. 1. Gen. IX. Sp. 3.

VESUVIUS, a celebrated volcano of Italy, 6 miles E. of Naples. This mountain has two tops; one of which only goes by the name of *Vesuvius*, the other being now called SOMMA; but Sir William Hamilton is of opinion, that the latter is that the ancients called *Vesuvius*. The perpendicular height of Vesuvius is only 3700 feet, though the ascent from the foot to the top is three Italian miles. One side of the mountain is well cultivated and fertile, producing great plenty of vines; but the south and west sides are entirely covered with cinders and ashes; while sulphureous smoke constantly issues from the top, sometimes attended with the most violent explosions of stones, the emission of great streams of lava, and all the other attendants of a most formidable volcano. The first of these eruptions recorded in history took place in the year 79: at which time the two cities of POMPEII and Herculaneum were entirely buried under the stones and ashes thrown out. Incredible mischief was also done to the neighbouring country, and numbers of people lost their lives, among whom was PLINY the Elder. It is the opinion of the best judges, however, that this eruption was by no means the first that had ever happened. The very streets of those cities which were at that time overwhelmed are unquestionably paved with lava. Since that time 30 different eruptions have been recorded, some of which have been extremely violent. In 1538, a mountain, three miles in circumference and a quarter of a mile in perpendicular height was thrown up in the course of one night. In 1766, Sir William Hamilton, began to observe the phenomena of this mountain; and since that time the public has been favoured with more exact and authentic accounts of the various changes which have taken place in Vesuvius than what were to be had before. The first great

eruption taken notice of by this gentleman was that of 1767, which though very violent, was mild in comparison with that of 1538. From 1767 Vesuvius never ceased for ten years to send forth smoke, nor were there many months in which it did not throw out stones, scorice, and cinders; which, increasing to a certain degree, were usually followed by lava; so that from the year 1767 to 1779 there were nine eruptions, some of them very considerable. In the month of August that year, however, an eruption took place, which, for its extraordinary and terrible appearance, may be reckoned among the most remarkable of any recorded concerning this or any other volcano. During the whole of July the mountain continued in a state of fermentation. Subterraneous explosions and rumbling noises were heard; quantities of smoke were thrown up with great violence, sometimes with red-hot stones, scorice, and ashes; and towards the end of the month these symptoms increased to such a degree as to exhibit, in the night the most beautiful fire-works. On Thursday 5th August the volcano appeared most violently agitated; a white and sulphureous smoke issued continually and impetuously from its crater, one puff seeming to impel another; so that a mass of them was soon accumulated, to appearance, four times the height and size of the volcano itself. These clouds of smoke were exceedingly white, resembling an immense accumulation of bales of the whitest cotton. In the midst of this very white smoke vast quantities of stones, scorice, and ashes were thrown up to the height of 2000 feet; and a quantity of liquid lava, seemingly very heavy, was lifted up just high enough to clear the rim of the crater, and take its way down the sides of the mountain. This lava, having run violently for some hours, suddenly ceased, just before it had reached the cultivated parts of the mountain, near four miles from the spot whence it issued. The heat, all this day, was intolerable at the towns of Somma and Ottaviano; and was sensibly felt at Palma and Lauri, which are much farther off. Reddish ashes fell so thick on the two former, that the air was darkened, so that objects could not be distinguished at the distance of ten feet. Long filaments of a vitrified matter, like spun glass, were mixed, and fell with these ashes; several birds in cages were suffocated, and the leaves of the trees in the neighbourhood of Somma were covered with white and very corrosive salt. About 12 at night, on the 7th, the fermentation of the mountain seemed greatly to increase. Our author was watching the motions of the volcano from the mole at Naples, which has a full view of it. Several glorious picturesque effects had been observed from the reflection of the deep red fire within the crater of Vesuvius, and which mounted high amongst those huge clouds on the top of it: when a summer storm, called in that country a *tropea*, came on suddenly, and blended its heavy watery clouds with the sulphureous and mineral ones, which were already like so many other mountains piled up on the top of the volcano. At this moment a fountain of fire was shot up to an incredible height, casting so bright a light, that the smallest objects were clearly distinguishable at any place within

within six miles or more of Vesuvius. The black stormy clouds, passing swiftly over, and at times covering the whole or a part of the bright column of fire, at other times clearing away and giving a full view of it, with the various tints produced by its reverberated light on the white clouds above, in contrast with the pale flashes of forked lightning that attended the tropea, forming such a scene as no power of art can express. One of the king's gamekeepers, who was out in the fields near Ottaviano while this storm was at its height, was surprised to find the drops of rain scald his face and hands; a phenomenon probably occasioned by the clouds having acquired a great degree of heat in passing through the above-mentioned column of fire. On the 8th the mountain was quiet till towards 6 P. M. when a great smoke began to gather over its crater; and about an hour after a rumbling subterraneous noise was heard in the neighbourhood of the volcano; the usual throws of red-hot stones and scorix began and increased every instant. The crater, viewed through a telescope, seemed much enlarged by the violence of last night's explosions, and the little mountain on the top was entirely gone. About 9, a most violent report was heard at Portici and its neighbourhood, which shook the houses to such a degree as made the inhabitants run out into the streets. Many windows were broken, and walls cracked by the concussion of the air on this occasion, though the noise was but faintly heard at Naples. In an instant a fountain of liquid transparent fire began to rise, and gradually increasing, arrived at last at the amazing height of 10,000 feet and upwards. Puffs of smoke, as black as can possibly be imagined, succeeded one another hastily, and accompanied the red-hot, transparent, and liquid lava, interrupting its splendid brightness here and there by patches of the darkest hue. Within these puffs of smoke, at the very moment of emission, a bright but pale electrical fire was observed playing briskly about in zig-zag lines. The wind was SW. and, though gentle, was sufficient to carry these puffs of smoke out of the column of fire; and a collection of them by degrees formed a black and extensive curtain behind it; in other parts of the sky it was perfectly clear, and the stars bright. The fiery fountain, of such immense magnitude, on the dark ground just mentioned, made the finest contrast imaginable; and the blaze of it reflected from the surface of the sea, which was at that time perfectly smooth, added greatly to this sublime view. The lava, mixed with stones and scorix, having risen to the amazing height already mentioned, was partly directed by the wind towards Ottaviano, and partly falling, still red-hot and liquid, upon the top of Vesuvius, covered its whole cone, part of that of the summit of Somma, and the valley between them. The falling matter, being nearly as inflamed and vivid as that which was continually issuing fresh from the crater, formed with it one complete body of fire, which could not be less than two miles and a half in breadth, and of the extraordinary height above mentioned, cast a heat to the distance of at least six miles round. The brushwood on the mountain of Somma was soon in a blaze, and the flame

of it being of a different colour from the deep red of the matter thrown out by the volcano, and from the silvery blue of the electrical fire, still added to the contrast of this most extraordinary scene. The black cloud, increasing greatly, once bent towards Naples, and threatened the city with speedy destruction; for it was charged with electrical fire, which kept constantly darting about in bright zig-zag lines. This fire, however, rarely quitted the cloud, but usually returned to the great column of fire whence it proceeded; though once or twice it was seen to fall on the top of Somma, and set fire to some dry grafs and bushes. Fortunately the wind carried back the cloud just as it reached the city, and had begun to occasion great alarm. The column of fire, however, still continued, and diffused such a strong light, that the most minute objects could be discerned at the distance of ten miles or more from the mountain. Mr Morris informed our author, that at Sorrento, which is 12 miles distant from Vesuvius, he read the title-page of a book by that volcanic light. All this time the miserable inhabitants of Ottaviano were involved in the utmost distress and danger by the showers of stones which fell upon them, and which, had the eruption continued for a longer time, would most certainly have reduced their town to the same situation with Herculaneum and Pompeii. The mountain of Somma, at the foot of which the town of Ottaviano is situated, hides Vesuvius from the view of its inhabitants; so that till the eruption became considerable, it was not visible to them. On Sunday night, when the noise increased, and the fire began to appear above the mountain of Somma, many of the inhabitants flew to the churches, and others were preparing to quit the town, when a sudden and violent report was heard; soon after which, they found themselves involved in a thick cloud of smoke and ashes; a horrid clashing noise was heard in the air, and presently fell a vast shower of stones and large pieces of scorix, some of which were of the diameter of 7 or 8 feet, which must have weighed more than 100 lb. before they were broken, as some of the fragments which Sir William Hamilton found in the streets still weighed upwards of 60 lb. When these large vitrified masses either struck against one another in the air, or fell on the ground, they broke in many pieces, and covered a large space of ground with vivid sparks of fire, which communicated their heat to every thing that was combustible. These masses were formed of the liquid lava; the exterior parts of which were become black and porous by cooling in their fall through such a vast space; whilst the interior parts, less exposed, retained an extreme heat, and were perfectly red. In an instant, the town and country about it were on fire in many parts, for there were several straw huts in the vineyards, which had been erected for the watchmen of the grapes; all of which were burnt. A great magazine of wood in the heart of the town was all in a blaze; and had there been much wind, the flames must have spread universally, and all the inhabitants would have been burnt in their houses; for it was impossible for them to stir out. Some, who attempted it with pillows, tables, chairs, the tops of wine casks, &c. on their heads

were either knocked down or soon driven back to their close quarters under arches and in the cellars of their houses. Many were wounded, but only two persons died of their wounds. To add to the horror of the scene, incessant volcanic lighting was whirling about the black cloud that surrounded them, and the sulphureous smell and heat would scarcely allow them to draw their breath. In this dreadful situation they remained about 25 minutes, when the volcanic storm ceased all at once, and Vefuvius remained fullen and silent. Some time after the eruption had ceased, the air continued greatly impregnated with electrical matter. The duke of Cottofiano told our author, that having, about half an hour after the great eruption had ceased, held a Leyden bottle, armed with a pointed wire, out at his window at Naples, it soon became considerably charged. But whilst the eruption was in force, its appearance was too alarming to allow one to think of such experiments.—He was informed also by the prince of Monte Mileto, that his son, the duke of Populi, who was at Monte Mileto the 8th of August, had been alarmed by the shower of cinders that fell there; some of which he had sent to Naples weighing 2 oz.; and that stones of an ounce weight had fallen upon an estate of his ten miles farther off. Monte Mileto is about 30 miles from the volcano. The Abbé Cagliani also related, that his sister, a nun in a convent at Manfredonia, had written to inquire after him, imagining that Naples must have been destroyed, when they, at so great a distance, had been alarmed by a shower of ashes which fell on the city at 11 P. M. so much as to open all the churches, and go to prayers. As the great eruption happened at 9, these ashes must have traveled 100 miles in 2 hours. Nothing could be more dismal than the appearance of Ottaiano after this eruption. The houses were unroofed, half buried under the black scoriz and ashes; all the windows towards the mountain were broken, and some of the houses themselves burnt; the streets choked up with ashes, in some narrow places, not less than 4 feet thick; and a few of the inhabitants who had just returned, were employed in clearing them away, and piling them up in hillocks, to get at their ruined houses. The palace of the prince of Ottaiano is situated on an eminence above the town, and nearer the mountain. The steps leading up to it were deeply covered with volcanic matter; the roof was totally destroyed, and the windows broken, but the house itself, being strongly built, had not suffered much. An incredible number of fragments of lava were thrown out during the eruption, some of which were of immense magnitude. The largest measured by Sir William Hamilton was 108 feet in circumference, and 17 in height. This was thrown at least a quarter of a mile clear of the mouth of the volcano. Another, 66 feet in circumference, and 19 in height, being nearly of a spherical figure, was thrown out at the same time, and lay near the former. This last had the marks of being rounded, nay, almost polished, by continual rolling in torrents or on the sea shore. Our author conjectures that it might be a spherical volcanic salt, such as that of 45 feet in circumference mentioned by M. de St Fond, in his *Treatise of*

VOL. XXII. PART II.

Extinguished Volcanoes. A third of 16 feet in height, and 92 in circumference, was thrown much farther, and lay in the valley between Vefuvius and the Hermitage. It appeared also, from the large fragments that surrounded this mass, that it had been much larger while in the air. Vefuvius continued to emit smoke for a considerable time after this great eruption, so that our author was apprehensive that another would soon ensue; but from that time nothing comparable to the above has taken place. From the time of this great eruption, to 1786, our author kept an exact diary of the operations of Vefuvius, with drawings, showing, by the quantity of smoke, the degree of fermentation within the volcano. The operations of the subterraneous fire, however, appear to be very capricious and uncertain. One day there will be the appearance of a violent fermentation, and the next every thing will be calmed; but whenever there has been a considerable ejection of scoriz and cinders, it has been a constant observation, that the lava soon made its appearance, either by boiling over the crater, or forcing its way through the crevices in the conical part of the mountain. In the year 1794 there was a very tremendous eruption, and the mischief done was very considerable; the lava covered and totally destroyed five thousand acres of rich vineyards and cultivated land, and drove the inhabitants of Torre del Greco from the town, a great part of the houses being either buried, or so injured as to be uninhabitable. The damage done in the vineyards by the ashes was also immense. The writer of this was on the top of Vefuvius in the month of May, 1801; the mountain was perfectly quiet, with smoke issuing from a few crevices like the smoke of a small fire. The effects of the eruption in 1794 were very visible, especially in Torre del Greco. A very violent eruption has been mentioned in the papers about two years ago, but we have no authentic description, either of its nature or of its effects. Sir William Hamilton observes, that the inhabitants of Naples in general pay so little attention to the operations of this volcano, that many of its eruptions pass unnoticed by at least two thirds of them. At the same time we know from undoubted evidence and enquiry on the spot, that during a violent eruption which seems to threaten danger to the city, the Neapolitans carry their clamours and their superstition to almost an incredible height; going in troops to their churches, and particularly addressing themselves to their tutelar saint Januarius. It is very probable, however, that the moment the danger is over they forget it. It is remarkable to observe, with what readiness and *sans froid* they inhabit the towns and villas on the brow of the mountain, and how quickly they return to spots which have suffered the most severely. Torre del Greco exhibited in 1801 the appearance of a ruined town; but the inhabitants were living in it in perfect security; a church had been completely overwhelmed, *i. e.* covered with lava, leaving about the height of two moderate stories of the steeple visible. To this they were at that time adding a new church, which was nearly completed. We were assured upon the spot, that in the eruption 1794, the lava flowed down slowly like a river into the sea; that

H h h h

when

when it was opposed by walls or houses, it accumulated and covered them, unless it found an easy vent elsewhere. It was added, and we firmly believe it, that the accumulated mass of liquid rock continued hot for a full twelvemonth. The inhabitants are not much alarmed by a stream of lava, which moves slowly, from which they can always remove themselves, and carry off their moveable property; the great danger consists in the clouds of burning ashes, which fly to a great distance, and the fall of which can neither be anticipated nor avoided. In 1794, we were told that one night, an immense mass of matter issued with prodigious force from the crater, and rose to a great perpendicular height; it for the most part fell down into the crater again, leaving a considerable hollow, which in 1802 was already covered with a slight vegetable mould.

(1.) * **VETCH**. *n. f.* [*vicia*, Latin.] A plant with a papilionaceous flower, producing a legume.—Where *vetches*, pulse, and tares have stood. *Dryden*.—An *ervum* is a sort of *vetch*, or small pea. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) **VETCH**, in botany. See *VICIA*, and *RURAL ECONOMY*, Part I. *Scd.* VI.

(3.) **VETCH**, BUSH. See *RURAL ECONOMY*, Part I. *Scd.* VI. § 4.

(4.) **VETCH**, LIQUORICE. } See *RURAL ECO-*

(5.) **VETCH**, MILK. } *NOMY*, Part I. *Scd.* VI. § 1.

(6.) **VETCH TARE**. See *TARGIONIA*.

VETCHLING, *n. f.* in botany. See *LATHYRUS*, N° II; and *RURAL ECONOMY*, Part I. *Scd.* VI. § 2.

* **VETCHY**. *adj.* [from *vetch*.] Made of vetches; abounding in vetches; consisting of vetch or pease straw.—There may'st thou liege in a *vetchy* bed. *Spenser*.

(1.) * **VETERAN**. *adj.* Long practised in war; long experienced.—Fifty thousand *veteran* soldiers.—Thy temper'd ardour, and thy *veteran* skill. *Thomson*.

(2.) * **VETERAN**. *n. f.* [*veteranus*, Latin.] An old soldier; a man long practised in any thing.—The longest practised *veterans*. *Hooker*.—*Veterans* which had been injured to service. *Addison*.—The hardy *veteran* with tears resigns. *Addison*.—Regarded as *veterans* in the beau monde. *Addison*.

* **VETERINARIAN**. *n. f.* [*veterinarius*, Lat.] One skilled in the diseases of cattle.—That a horse has no gall, is received by good *veterinarians*. *Brown*.

VETERINARY ART. See *FARRIERY*.

VETERITZA, a river of Servia, which rises in mount Keradoch, and runs into the Morava.

VETERNA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria; 9 miles SW. of Driftra.

VETLIANSKOL, a town and fort of Russia, on the Volga.

(1.) **VETLUGA**, a river of Russia, in Kazan-skoë, running into the Volga, near Kozmodemiansk.

(2.) **VETLUGA**, a town of Kostrom, on the above river, 140 miles E. of Kostrom.

VETRALIA, a town of Italy, in Patrimonio.

VETSCHA, a town of Lusatia, 48 miles N. of Dresden.

VETTICUTTY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic, 12 miles WNW. of Trichinopoly.

VETTINGEN, a town of Switzerland, in the electorate of Baden, 1½ m. S. of Baden.

VETTONA, an ancient town of Umbria.

VETTONES, an ancient nation of Spain. *It.* 3. 378.

VETULONIA, a city of Etruria, famous for its hot baths.

VETURIA, the mother of *CORIOLANUS*.

VEVAY, a town of Switzerland, in Berne, near the lake of Geneva, and the chief town of the Vaudois. It has a college and 2 churches. It was taken in 1474, and 1436. Hats and cheese are the chief manufactures. It is 10 miles E. of Lausanne. Lon. 24. 18. E. Ferro. Lat. 46. 31. N.

VEUDRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Allier; 13½ miles NW. of Moulins, and 11 N. of Cerrilly.

VEULLES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine; 9 miles E. of Cany, and 12 SW. of Dieppe.

VEUVEY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cote d'Or; 12 miles NW. of Beaune.

(1.) * **To VEX**. *v. a.* [*vexo*, Lat.] 1. To plague; to torment; to harass.—Do poor Tom some charity, whom the foul fiend *vexes*. *Shak.*—She pressed him daily, so that his soul was *vexed* unto death. *Judges*.—And *vex* the guilty train. *Dryden*.—Ten thousand torments *vex* my heart. *Prior*. 2. To disturb; to disquiet.—As mad as the *vex* sea. *Shak.*—White curl the waves, and the *vex*'d ocean roars. *Pope*. 3. To trouble with slight provocations.

(2.) * **To VEX**. *v. n.* To fret; to be on tenterhooks; to be uneasy.—

He drunk his wine, and *vex*d, and ravished
His food for mere vexation. *Chapman*.

* **VEXATION**. *n. f.* [from *vex*.] 1. The act of troubling.—O that husband!—My supreme crown of grief, and those repeated *vexations* of it! *Shak.* 2. The state of being troubled; uneasiness; sorrow.—*Vexation* almost stops my breath. *Shak.*—*Vexation* and pain. *Temple*. 3. The cause of trouble or uneasiness.—Your children were *vexation* to your youth. *Shak.* 4. An act of harassing by law.—He may not well call it an unjust *vexation*. *Bacon*. 5. A slight teasing trouble.

* **VEXATIOUS**. *adj.* [from *vexation*.] 1. Afflictive; troublesome; causing trouble.—Continual *vexatious* wars. *South*.—*Vexatious* thoughts still found my flying mind. *Prior*. 2. Full of uneasiness.—He leads a *vexatious* life. *Digby*. 3. Teasing; slightly troublesome.

* **VEXATIONOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *vexatious*.] Troublesomely; uneasily.

* **VEXATIONOUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *vexatious*.] Troublesomeness; uneasiness.

* **VEXER**. *n. f.* [from *vex*.] He who vexes.

VEXILLARIJ, in antiquity, signals. See *SIG-NAL*, § 5.

VEXILLUM, in botany; the upper petal of a pea-bloom, or butter-fly-shaped flower, which is generally larger than any of the others.

VEXIN, a decadant province of France, situated on the banks of the Epte: It was divided into 1. *VEXIN FRANÇOIS*, now included in the dep.

f the Oife; its chief towns were PONTOISE, baumont, and MAGNY :

2. VEXIN NORMAND, now included in the dep. f the Eure. Gisors was the capital.

VEOXE, an island of Denmark, on the N. coast f Laland. Lon. 11. 43. E. Lat. 54. 28. N.

VEYNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Alps, 12 miles W. of Gap, and 12 NNE. f Serres.

VEZ DE MARRAN, a town of Spain in Leon; miles N. of Toro.

VEZEDERINA, a town of European Turkey, Bulgaria; 26 miles SE. of Viddir.

VEZELAY, a town of France, in the dep. of le Yonne; 7½ miles W. of Avalon. In 1560, it was defended by the Calvinists against a siege of Charles IX.

VEZELIZE, a town of France, in the dep. of fourth; 12 miles S. of Nancy. Lon. 23. 45. E. erro. Lat. 48. 29. N.

VEZENOBRE, a town of France, in the dep. f Gard, 6 miles SSE. of Alais.

VEZERE, a river of France, which runs into the Dodegne, at Limeuil.

VEZINES, a town of France, 4½ miles N. of Connerre.

(1.) VEZINS, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire: 6 miles W. of Vihiers.

(2.) VEZINS, a town of France, in the dep. of le Aveiron; 6 miles SW. of Severac.

VEZOUZE, a river of France, in the dep. of le Meurthe, which runs into the Meurthe, 3 miles elow Luneville.

VEZZANO, PIETROSO, a town of Corfica, 3 miles SE. of Corte.

UFFENHEIM, a town of Franconia, in Ansbach, 18 miles SSE. of Wirtemberg.

UFFINIAC, a town of France, in the dep. of le North Coasts, 3 miles SE. of St Brieux.

UFHOLZ, a town of France, in the dep. of le Upper Rhine, 15 miles SSW. of Colmar, and 3 NNW. of Altkirch.

UFNAU, an island of Switzerland, in the lake f Zurich.

UFTER-GETTEN, a mountain of Switzerland, the canton of Berne.

UGENTO, a town of Naples, in Otranto, 7½ miles W. of Alexano.

UGEST, a town of the ci-devant Great Pond, in the late Palatinate of Rawa, now in S. russia, 6 miles SE. of Rawa.

UGH, a town of Hungary, near the Thieffe, 15 miles N. of Zegedin, and 67 SW. of Debrecn.

UGIE, a river of Aberdeenshire, which rises 3 miles from the coast, in 2 streams called *Strichen* and *Deer*, which unite 5 miles from the coast. runs into the sea at Peterhead, and is navigable a mile and a half above its mouth.

* UGLILY. *adv.* [from *ugly*.] Filthily; with deformity; in such a manner as to raise dislike.

* UGLINESS. *n. f.* [from *ugly*.] 1. Deformity; contrariety to beauty.—All turned now to dreadful *ugliness*. *Spenser*.—Old age and *ugliness*. *ryden*. 2. Turpitude; loathsomeness; moral pravity.—The *ugliness* of sin. *South*.

* UGLY. *adj.* [This word was anciently written *ugly*; whence Mr *Dier* ingeniously deduces

it from *ouphlike*; that is, like an *ouph elf*, or *goblin*. In Saxon *oga* is terror; and in Gothic *ogan* is to fear.] Deformed; offensive to the sight; contrary to beautiful; hateful.—

He hath a daily beauty in his life,
That makes me *ugly*. *Shak.*

So full of *ugly* fights, of ghastly dreams. *Shak.*
These *ugly* headed monsters? *Milton*.

UI, a river of Russia, which runs into the Ir-tisf, near Malanova, in Tobolskoi.

VIACUS. See HERMES, N° 3.

VIADANA, a town of Italy, in the dep. of the Mincio, and ci-devant duchy of Mantua, 23 m. SSW. of Mantua, and 10 SW. of Quastella.

VIADRUS, an ancient name of the ODER. See SURVUS.

* VIAL. *n. f.* [*vi-ale*.] A small bottle.—Gods! from your sacred *vials*, pour your grace. *Shak.*—Take you this *vial*. *Shak.*—Another lamp inclosed in a glass *vial*. *Wilkins*.—A thin *vial*, well stop-ped up. *Addison*.—Mixed in the same *vial*. *Addi-*

* To VIAL. *v. a.* To inclose in a *vial*.—This she with precious *vial'd* liquors heals. *Milton*.

VIALE, a town of France, in the dep. of Avei-ron, on the Tarn, 9 miles SW. of Milhaud.

VIALES, in mythology, a name given among the Romans to the gods who had the care and guard of the roads and highways.

VIAMON, a town of Brasil, in the province of Rio de Janeiro.

(1.) VIANA, a mountain of Portugal, in Alentejo, 3 miles S. of Evora.

(2.) VIANA, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 12 miles S. of Evora.

(3, 4.) VIANA, 2 towns of Spain; 1. In Galicia, 30 miles SSE. of Orense; 2. In Navarre, on the Ebro, 16 SW. of Estello.

(5.) VIANA, a sea-port town of Portugal, in Entre-Duero-e-Minho, on the Lima, near its mouth, containing an hospital, 2 churches, 7 convents, and 7000 souls, 11 miles N. of Oporto.

* VIAND. *n. f.* [*vi-ande*, Fr. *vivanda*, Ital.] Food; meat dressed.—Still cuboarding the *viand*. *Shak.*—They've left their *viands* behind. *Shak.*—These *viands* pure. *Milton*.—From some sorts of food persons, in no necessity of using such *viands*, had better to abstain. *Ray*.—*Viands* of various kinds allure the taste. *Pope*.

VIANDEN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Forets, and a castle seated on a rock of a prodigious height, with a garrison. Its district comprehended 40 villages: the people make cloth and leather. It is 18 miles NNE. of Luxemburg.

UJANDINSKOE, a town of Russia, in Irkutskoe, on the Indigirda, 148 miles NNE of Zatchiversk.

VIANEN, or VYANEN, a town of Holland, in the dep. of Delft, and late prov. of Holland, 30 miles ENE. of Rotterdam.

VIANINO, a town of Italy, in Placentia, 20 miles S. of Placentia.

VIANO, a town of Italy, in Placentia, 13 m. S. of Placentia.

VIANOS, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 3 miles S. of Alcaraz.

VIAREDEN, a town of Brandenburg, 3 miles N. of Schwedt, and 48 NE. of Berlin.

VIA REGGIO, a sea port of Lucca.

VIAS, a town of France, in the dep. of Haut-Rhin, 6 miles NW. of Agde.

VIASDUM, a town of S. Prussia, in Rava, 15 miles N. of Rava.

(1.) * VIATICUM. *n. f.* [Latih.] 1. Provision for a journey. 2. The last rites used to prepare the passing soul for its departure.

(2.) VIATICUM, in Roman antiquity, an appellation given to all officers of any of the magistracies; as, *litors, accensi, scribes, criers.*

VIATKA, a river of Russia, which runs past Viatka, Orlov, Kotelnitch, &c. into the Kama, 40 miles E. of Kazan.

(2.) VIATKA, the capital of VIATSKOE, 624 miles E. of Petersburg, and 440 ENE. of Moskow.

VIATSKOE, a government of Russia; bounded N. by Vologodskoe, E. by Permiskoe, S. by Uphiinskoe, and Kazanskoe, and W. by Kostromskoe, 260 miles long, and from 80 to 180 broad.

VIAZMA, a town of Russia, in Smolenskoe, 76 miles ENE. of Smolensk.

VIAZNIKI, a town of Russia, in Uladimir, on the Kliazma, 52 miles E. of Uladimir.

VIAZORISKOI, a town of Russia, in Upha, on the Ural, 36 miles ESE. of Orenburg.

VIBEX, is sometimes used by physicians, for a black and blue spot in the skin occasioned by an efflux or extravasation of blood.

VIBIUS, SEQUESTER, a Latin writer, whose treatise De Fluminibus is extant; and was published by Oberlin, at Argent. in 8vo. 1778.

VIBO, a town of Italy, in Lucania, anciently called *Hippo*.

(1.) VIBORG, an ancient city of Denmark, in N. Jutland; 2 miles in circuit, with 3 churches, 6 miles N. of Hamborg. Lon. 9. 18. E. Lat. 36. 32. N.

(2.) VIBORG, a sea-port of Russia, on the gulf of Finland. It exports planks, tallow, pitch, and tar to Britain, 68 miles NW. of Petersburg.

VIBORSKOI, a prov. of Russia, bounded N. and W. by Finland, S. by the Gulf and Petersburg, E. by lake Ladoga and Olonetz, 152 miles long, and from 60 to 100 broad.

VIBRAIS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Sarte, 9 miles N. of Calais.

(1.) * To VIBRATE. *v. a.* [*vibro*, Lat.] 1. To brandish; to move to and fro with quick motion. 2. To make to quiver.—Breath vocalized, that is vibrated or undulated. Holder.

(2.) * To VIBRATE. *v. n.* 1. To play up and down, or to and fro.—Make it *vibrate* a little up and down. Boyle.—Do not all fixed bodies, when heated beyond a certain degree, emit light, and shine? And is not this emission performed by the vibrating motions of their parts? Newton. 2. To quiver.—The whisper *vibrates* on his sovereign's ear. Pope.

(1.) * VIBRATION. *n. f.* [from *vibro*, Latin.] The act of moving, or state of being moved with quick reciprocations, or returns; the act of quivering.—The fallies and vibrations of an harmless activity. South.—Do not the rays of light, in falling upon the bottom of the eye, excite vibrations in the tunica retina? Newton.—Mild vibrations sooth the parted soul. Thomson.

(2.) VIBRATION, in mechanics, a regular reciprocal motion of a body, as a pendulum.

VIBRATO, 'a river of Naples, in Abruzz Ultra; which runs into the Adriatic, 2 m. NNE. of Julia Nova.

VIBURNUM, in botany; a genus of plants of the class *pentandria*, order *trigynia*; and in the natural system, arranged under the 43d order, *di-morfe*. The calyx is quinquepartite and above the corolla divided into five laciniae; the fruit monospermous berry. There are 19 species; 3 of which are natives of Britain.

1. VIBURNUM LANTANA, common viburnum wayfaring, or plant meally tree, rises with woody stem, branching 20 feet high, having very pliant shoots covered with a lightish brown bark large heart-shaped, veined, serrated leaves, white and hoary underneath; and the branches terminated by umbels of white flowers, succeeded by bunches of red berries, &c.

2. VIBURNUM OPULUS, or *elder rose*; consisting of two varieties, one with flat flowers, the other globular. The former grows 18 or 20 feet high, branching opposite, of an irregular growth and covered with a whitish bark; large lobate or three-lobed leaves on glandulose footstalks, and large flat umbels of white flowers at the end of the branches, succeeded by red berries. The latter grows 15 or 18 feet high, branching like the other, garnished with large lobate, or three-lobed leaves, on glandular footstalks; and large globular umbels of white flowers at the ends of the branches, in great abundance. This tree when in bloom, exhibits a singularly fine appearance the flowers, though small, are collected numerously into large globular umbels round like a ball; hence it is sometimes called *snow-ball tree*.

3. VIBURNUM TINUS, common *laurestinus*, or evergreen viburnum; grows eight or ten feet high or more, branching numerously from the bottom upwards, assuming a close bushy growth, with the branches somewhat hairy and glandulous; very closely garnished with oval, wholly entire leaves, of a strong green colour, placed in pairs opposite; and whitish and red flowers, collected numerously in large umbellate clusters all over the plant, at the sides and ends of the branches, from January until March or April, exhibiting a most beautiful appearance. There are very many varieties. All the different species of viburnum, both deciduous and evergreen kinds, being of the tree kind, are woody and durable in root, stem, and branches. They may all be propagated by layers; and are of such hardy temperature, as to grow freely in the open ground all the year, in shrubberies and other hardy plantations.

(1.) VIC, a town of France, on the Seille, in the dep. of Meurthe, 197 miles E. of Paris.

(2.) VIC, a small town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Pyrennees, on the Adour, 11 miles N. of Tarbes.

(3.) VIC, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, somewhat decayed, but still containing handsome buildings. It is seated in a fine plain, near the Tav, 265 miles NE. of Madrid.

VICA PORA, a goddess at Rome, who presided over victory.

(1.) * VICAR.

(1.) * **VICAR.** *n. f.* [*vicarius*, Lat.] 1. The incumbent of an appropriated or impropriated benefice.—

Procure the *vicar*

To stay for me at church.

Shak.

—The *vicar* my defeat, and all the village see. *Dryden*.—What a contempt must he entertain, not only for his *vicar* at home, but for the whole clergy. *Swift*. 2. One who performs the functions of another; a substitute.—An archbishop may not only excommunicate and interdict his suffragans, but his *vicar-general* may do the same. *Ayliffe*.

(2.) **VICAR**, a person appointed as deputy to another, to perform his functions in his absence and under his authority.

(3.) **VICAR**, in the canon-law, denotes a priest of a parish, the predial tithes whereof are impropriated or appropriated; that is, belong either to a chapter, religious house, &c. or to a layman who receives them, and only allows the vicar the small tithes, or a convenient salary. See *PARSON*, § 2.

* **VICARAGE.** *n. f.* [from *vicar*.] The benefice of a vicar.—This gentleman lived in his *vicarage* to a good old age. *Swift*.

* **VICARIOUS.** *adj.* [*vicarius*, Lat.] Deputed; delegated; acting in the place of another.—The soul in the body is but a subordinate efficient, and *vicarious* and instrumental in the hands of the Almighty. *Hale*.—What can be more unnatural, than for a man to rebel against the *vicarious* power of God in his soul? *Norris*.

VICARS, John, writer of some virulent pamphlets against the Royalists in the civil wars, was born at London, and educated at Oxford. He became usher of the school in Christ's Hospital. He died in 1652.

* **VICARSHIP.** *n. f.* [from *vicar*.] The office of a vicar.

VICARY, Thomas, the first anatomical writer in English, was surgeon to Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary I. and Elizabeth, and chief surgeon of St Bartholomew's hospital. His book is entitled "A Treasure for Englishmen, containing the anatomy of Man's bodie," published in 1548.

(1.) * **VICE.** *n. f.* [*vicium*, Latin.] 1. The course of action opposite to virtue; depravity of manners; inordinate life.—

No spirit more grofs to love

Vice for itself.

Milton.

—The foundation of *vice* lies in wrong measures of good. *Locke*. 2. A fault; an offence. It is generally used for an habitual fault, not for a single enormity.—

No *vice*, so simple, but assumes

Some mark of virtue on its outward parts. *Shak.*

—Shall have more *vices* than it had before. *Shak.*

—The excess and defects do make *vices*, or such things as ought not to be. *Wilkins*.—Ungovern'd appetite a brutish *vice*. *Milton*.—The *vices* of the clergy. *Dryden*.—Proud views and vain desires are truly *vices* and corruptions. *Law*. 3. The fool, or punchinello of old shows.—

I'll be with you again

In a trice, like to the old *vice*,

Your need to sustain;

Who with dagger of lath, in his rage and his wrath,

Cries, ah, ah! to the devil.

Shak.

—His face made of brass, like a *vice* in a game. *Tusser*. 4. [*Vijis*, Dutch.] A kind of small iron press with screws, used by workmen.—He found that marbles taught him percussion; bottle screws, the *vice*; whirlingigs, the axis in peritrochio. *Arbutnot*. 5. Gripe; grasp.—If he come but within my *vice*. *Shak.* 6. [*Vice*, Latin.] It is used in composition for one, *qui vicem gerit*, who performs, in his stead, the office of a superior, or who has the second rank in command: as, a *viceroi*, *vicechancellor*.

(2.) **VICE**, in ethics, is ordinarily defined an elective habit, denoting either an excess or defect from the just medium wherein virtue is placed.

(3.) **VICE**, in smithery and other arts conversant in metals, a machine or instrument serving to hold fast any thing they are at work upon, whether it is to be beat, filed, or rivetted.

(4.) **VICE** is also used in the composition of divers words to denote the relation of something that comes instead or in the place of another; as *vice-admiral*, *vice-chancellor*, &c. are officers who take place in the absence of admirals, &c.

* To **VICE.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To draw by a kind of violence.—To *vice* you to't. *Shak.*

* **VICEADMIRAL.** *n. f.* [*vice* and *admiral*.] 1. The second commander of a fleet.—The *viceadmiral* was in the middle of the fleet. *Knolles*. 2. A naval officer of the second rank.

* **VICEADMIRALTY.** *n. f.* [from *viceadmiral*.] The office of a viceadmiral.—The *viceadmiralty* is exercised by Mr Trenanion. *Carew*.

* **VICEAGENT.** *n. f.* [*vice* and *agent*.] One who acts in the place of another. A vassal Satan hath made his *viceagent*. *Hooker*.

* **VICECHANCELLOR.** *n. f.* [*vicecancellarius*, Latin.] The second magistrate of the universities,

* **VICED.** *adj.* [from *vice*.] Vitious; corrupt. Not used.—Some high-*vic'd* city. *Shak.*

* **VICEGERENCY.** *n. f.* [from *vicegerent*.] The office of a vicegerent; lieutenantcy; deputed power.—The authority of conscience stands upon its *vicegerency* and deputation under God. *South*.

(1.) * **VICEGERENT.** *n. f.* [*vicem gerens*, Lat.] A lieutenant; one who is intrusted with the power of the superior, by whom he is deputed.—Remember thou art God's *vicegerent*. *Bacon*.—Employ it in unshaken duty to God's *vicegerent*. *Spratt*.—The type and true *vicegerent* of thy rage. *Dryden*.

(2.) * **VICEGERENT.** *adj.* [*vicegerens*, Latin.] Having a delegated power; acting by substitution.

Vicegerent son! To thee I have transferr'd
All judgment.

Milton.

VICEGRAD, a small town of Lower Hungary, on the Danube.

* **VICENARY.** *adj.* [*vicenarius*, Latin.] Belonging to twenty. *Bailyn*.

VICENTINO, or } a province in Italy, bound-
(1.) **VICENZA**, } ed on the N. by the Tiro-
lese, E. by Bassano, S. by Paduano, W. by the
ad-jacent Veronese, now in the department of
the *Mincio*, in the Italian kingdom. It is 40
miles

miles long, and 30 broad. It is partly hilly, partly flat; but very fertile in corn, fruit, and mulberry trees; 200 lb. of silk are made annually, sheep and black cattle are numerous. The mines abound with silver and iron. It contains 15 districts, 1 city, 13 towns and boroughs, 300 villages, and 108 communes. The total population, in 1797, was 286,000. The chief rivers are the *Astico*, *Timonchio*, *Cerison*, *Tergola*, and *Baebiglione*.

(2.) **VICENZA**, the capital of **VICENTINO**, with a bishop's see. It has handsome houses, fine squares, palaces and churches. There is an academy which meets in the Olympic Theatre, a master-piece of Palladio's. It is in a fine plain between the *Bachiglione*, and *Rerone*, 13 miles W. of Padua, 31 W. of Venice, and 133 N. of Rome. Lon. 11. 43. E. Lat. 45. 26. N.

* **VICEROY**, *n. f.* [*vicereis*, French.] He who governs in place of the king with regal authority.—Shall I be call'd but *viceroys* of the whole? *Shak.*—Mendoza, *viceroys* of Peru. *Bacon*.—The *viceroys* is generally absent. *Swift*.

* **VICEROYALTY**, *n. f.* [from *viceroys*.] Dignity of a viceroy.—These parts furnish out *viceroys* royalties for the grandees. *Addison*.

* **VICETY**, *n. f.* [Of this word I know not well the meaning or original: a *vice* thing is now called in vulgar language, *point vice*, from the French *point devise*, or *point de vice*; whence the barbarous word *vicety* may be derived.] Nicety; exactness. A word not used.—

With the peafish nicety,

And old Sherewood's *vicety*.

B. Jonson.

VIC FEZENSAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Gers, on the Douze, 15 miles W. of Auch.

VICHERY, a town of France, in the dep. of Vosges, 9 miles NW. of Mirecourt.

VICHI, a town of France, in the dep. of Allier, on the Allier, famous for its mineral springs. It is 180 miles S. by E. of Paris.

VICHO, a town of Naples, on the coast, almost destroyed by an earthquake, in 1694.

VICHY. See **VICHI**.

VICIA, in botany: A genus of plants of the class *diadelphia*, and order of *decandria*; and in the natural system arranged under the 32d order, *Papilionacea*. The stigma is bearded transversely on the lower side. There are 20 species, 7 of which are natives of Britain. The most important of these are,

1. **VICIA CRACCA**, tufted vetch. It has a stem branched, three or four feet long. Leaves pinnated; pinnæ generally ten or twelve pair, lance-shaped, downy. Stipulæ entire. Flowers purple, numerous, pendulous, in imbricated spikes. It is also reckoned an excellent fodder for cattle.

2. **VICIA FABA**, or common garden bean. It is a native of Egypt. It is too well known to require description.

3. **VICIA SATIVA**, common vetch, or tare. The stalks are round, weak, branched, about two feet long. Pinnæ five or seven pair, a little hairy, notched at the end. Stipulæ dentated. Flowers light and dark purple, on short pedicels, generally two together; pods erect; seeds black. It is known to be an excellent fodder for horses.

4. **VICIA SEPIUM**. See **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part I. Sect. VI. § 4.

* **VICINAGE**, *n. f.* [*vicinia*, Latin.] Neighbourhood; places adjoining.

* **VICINAL**, *adj.* [*vicinus*, Lat.] Near; nei-

* **VICINE**. } bouring.—Other *vicine* pass *Glauville*.

* **VICINITY**, *n. f.* [*vicinus*, Latin.] 1. Neighbourhood; state of being near.—There is a *vicinity* between agents and patients. *Hale*.—The abundance and *vicinity* of country seats. *Swift*. 2. Neighbourhood.—He shall fix the wandering parties in their old *vicinity*. *Rogers*.—Gravity must be carried them to the *vicinity* of the sun. *Beattie*.

VICIOLA, a river of Naples, in Abruzzo, which runs into the Trontino at Teramo.

VICIOSAS ISLES, in the bay of Honduras.

* **VICIOUS**, *adj.* [from *vici*.] See **VITIUM**. Devoted to vice; not addicted to virtue.—His *vicious* race. *Milton*.

* **VICISSITUDE**, *n. f.* [*vicissitudo*, Latin.] Regular change; return of the same things in the same succession.—Grateful *vicissitude*, like day and night. *Milton*.—The rays of light are alternately disposed to be reflected or refracted for *vicissitudes*. *Newton*.—The *vicissitude* of seasons. *Woodew*. 2. Revolution; change.—The *vicissitude* of good and bad fortune. *Atterbury*.—Revolve the sad *vicissitude* of things. *Gifford*.

VIC LE COMPTE, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, with mineral springs. It is seated near the Illoar, 230 miles S. of Paris.

(1. 2.) **VICO**, 2 towns of Naples: 1. in Capitanata, 14 miles W. of Velle; 2. in Lavoro, 1 miles NW. of Sorrento.

(3.) **VICO**, a town of Corsica.

* **VICONTIELS**. In law *vicontiel* rents are farms, for which the sheriff pays a rent to the king, and makes what profit he can of them. *Vicontiel* writs are such writs as are triable in the county court, before the sheriff. *Bailey*.

VICOVARO, a town of the Italian kingdom, formerly in the territories of the Pope, near the Teverone, 40 miles NE. of Rome. Lon. 13. 1. E. Lat. 42. 30. N.

* **VICTIM**, *n. f.* [*vicima*, Latin.] 1. A sacrifice; something slain for a sacrifice.—Be sacrific'd as *victims* to his ghost. *Denb*.—And on the *victim* pour the ruddy wine. *Dryden*.—The *victim* ox, and snowy sheep prepar'd. *Addis*. 2. Something destroyed.—Behold where age's wretched *victim* lies. *Prior*.

(1.) * **VICTOR**, *n. f.* [*viclor*, Latin.] 1. Conqueror; vanquisher; he that gains the advantage in any contest. *Viclor* is seldom used with a genitive; we say the conqueror of kingdoms, not the *viclor* of kingdoms; and never but with regard to some single action or person: as we never say, Cæsar was in general a great *viclor*, but that he was *viclor* at *Pbarfalia*. We rarely say Alexander was *viclor* of Darius, though we say he was *viclor* at *Arbela*; but we never say he was *viclor* of *Perfia*.—

This strange race more strange conceits did yield;

Who *viclor* seem'd, was to his ruin brought;
Who seem'd o'erthrown, was mistress of the field.

—Both tugging to be *victors*, breast to breast. *Shak*.—Although the *viclor*, we submit to Cæsar. *Shak*.

What stroke shall bruise the victor's heel.
And how the victors fall. *Denham.*—In
 the *victors* from the vanquish'd fly. *Waller.*
 And him who should be *victor*, makes the slave.
Yden.—Heaven will not leave me in the *victor's*
 hand. *Addison.* 2. *Pope* has used this word in a
 punner perhaps unauthorised.

There *victor* of his health, his fortune,
 friends,

And fame, this lord of useless thousands ends.

Pope.

(2.) *VICTOR*, Sextus Aurelius, a Roman histo-
 rian, who flourished under the emperors Constan-
 tine and Julian. Ammianus Marcellus says, that
 Constantine made him consul, and honoured him
 with a brazen statue; although, he was born of
 poor and supposed African parents. Two books
 of his are extant: one *De viris illustribus urbis*
romæ; the other, *De Caesaribus*. The best edit.
Victor is that of Pitiscus, 8vo. Utr. 1696; and
 at Antuzenius, 4to. Amst. 1733.

VICTORIA, 1. a town of New Mexico, 2. an
 island on the coast of Brazil. 3. An ancient Ro-
 man name of PERTH.

VICTORINA, a matron, who led the Roman
 armies against the emperor Gallienus. See *ROME*,
 73.

VICTORINUS. See *STRIGELIUS*.

* *VICTORIOUS*. *adj.* [*victorieux*, French.] 1.
 conquering; having obtained conquest; superi-
 or in contest.—Victory doth more often fall by
 rout of the vanquished, than by the valour of
 the *victorious*. *Hayward.*—The son returned *victor-
 ous* with his saints. *Milton.*—Who twice *victori-
 ous* did our navy see. *Dryden.* 2. Producing con-
 quest.—And curs'd for ever this *victorious* day.
Pope. 3. Betokening conquest.—Now are our
 brows bound with *victorious* wreaths. *Shak.*

* *VICTORIOUSLY*. *adv.* [from *victorious*.]
 With conquest; successfully; triumphantly.—
 That grace will carry us *victoriously* through all
 difficulties. *Hammond.*

* *VICTORIOUSNESS*. *n. f.* [from *victorious*.]
 The state or quality of being victorious.

(1.) *VICTORIUS*, Benedict, physician, was
 born at Faenza, about 1482. He was professor
 at Bologna, and died about 1560. He wrote *De
 morbo Gallico*, 8vo, and some other works.

(2.) *VICTORIUS*, Lionel, a medical professor at
 Bologna; wrote on Infantile Diseases, 8vo; and
 died 1520.

(3.) *VICTORIUS*, Peter, a commentator on the
 ancients, was born at Florence, 1499, where he
 was professor of rhetoric, and member of the se-
 nate. He died 1585.

(1.) * *VICTORY*. *n. f.* [*victoria*, Latin.] Con-
 quest; success in contest; triumph.—He whin'd
 and roar'd away your *victory*. *Shak.*—With *victo-
 ry*, triumphing o'er his foes. *Milt.*—It is a *victory*
 over the most refractory passions. *Taylor.*

(2.) *VICTORY*, in mythology, is represented by
 herself as the daughter of Styx and Pallas; (See
STYX, N° 2.) and Varro calls her the daughter of
Heaven and Earth. The Romans erected a temple
 to her, where they prayed for success to their
 arms. They painted her in the form of a woman,
 clad in cloth of gold. In some medals, she is re-
 presented flying in the air, holding a laurel crown

in one hand, and a palm in the other; but in
 others she stands on a globe.

(3.) *VICTORY*, CAPS, is the NW. point of the
 Straits of Magellan, at the opening into the S.
 Pacific Ocean. Lon. 76° 40' W. Lat. 52° 15' S.

* *VICTRESS*. *n. f.* [from *victor*.] A female
 that conquers. Not used.—She shall be sole *vic-
 tress*; Caesar's Caesar. *Shak.*

* *VICTUAL*. *VICTUALS*. *n. f.* [*victualles*, Fr.
vittanaglia, Italian.] Provisions of food; stores for
 the support of life; meat; sustenance. *Chapman.*
 has written it as it is colloquially pronounced.—
Visuals and fresh water. *Abbot.*—You had musty
visuals. *Shak.*—And in a good large knapsack,
visuals store. *Chapman.*—He was not able to keep
 that place three days for lack of *visual*. *Kneller.*
 —Unprovided of tackling and *visual*. *K. Charles.*

* *To VICTUAL*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To store
 with provision for food.—I must go *visual* Or-
 leans forthwith. *Shak.*

* *VICTUALLER*. *n. f.* [from *visuals*.] 1. One
 who provides victuals.—The English *victuallers*
 surceased not to bring all things necessary. *Hayes.*
 —Their conquest half is to the *victualler* due.
King. 2. One who keeps a house of entertainment.

(1.) *VIDA*, the ancient name of Cremona.

(2.) *VIDA*, Mark Jerome, bishop of Alva, in
 Monterrat, and one of the most excellent Latin
 poets that have appeared since the Augustine age,
 was born at Cremona in 1470. He was made bi-
 shop of Alva in 1552. He wrote hymns, eclogues,
 and poems, in Latin; and in prose, dialogues, sy-
 nodical constitutions, letters, and other pieces.
 He died in 1566, soon after his being made bishop
 of Cremona. The best edit. of his poems is that
 of Oxford, 3 vols 8vo.

* *VIDELICET*. *adv.* [Lat.] To wit; that is.
 This word is generally written *viz*.

VIDEN, a town of Bulgaria, on the Danube.

VIDUCASSES, an ancient people of Norman-
 dy.

* *VIDUITY*, *n. f.* [from *viduus*, Lat.] Widow-
 hood.

(1.) * *To VIE*. *v. a.* [Of this word the etymo-
 logy is very uncertain.] 1. To show, or practise
 in competition.—They *vie* power and expe-
 nce with those that are too high. *L'Estr.*—You *vie*
 happiness in a thousand diversions. *Boylston.* 2. In
 this passage the meaning seems to be, to add; to
 accumulate.—

She hang about my neck, and kiss and kiss
 She *vied* so fast,

That in a twink she won my heart to love. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To VIE*. *v. n.* To contest; to contend;
 to strive for superiority.—The younger sons may
 be enabled to *vie* with the best of their family.
 —May with the proudest Tyrian purple *vie*. *Add.*
 —While each to be the loudest *vies*. *Swift.*

VIELICZA. See *SALT*, § 11, 12.

VIELLO. See *MUSIC*, § 43.

VIEN, a small river which runs through Vienna.

(1.) *VIENNA*, the capital of the circle of Aus-
 tria, in Germany, and of the whole German em-
 pire. The city is not of very great extent, but is
 strongly fortified, and contains upwards of 250,000
 inhabitants. The streets, in general, are narrow,
 and the houses built high. Some of the public
 buildings are magnificent. The chief of them are the

the imperial palace, the library, and the museum; the palaces of the princes Lichenstein, Eugene, &c. Vienna was twice ineffectually besieged by the Turks; namely, in 1589 and 1683. * At the latter period, the siege was raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland, who totally defeated the Turkish army before the walls of this place. The arms of Napoleon, however, were more successful in 1805, as he entered the city in triumph on the 12th Nov. No houses without the walls are allowed to be built nearer to the glacis than 600 yards; so that there is a circular field of that breadth all around the town, which has a very beautiful effect. The suburbs contain about 70,000 inhabitants. The cathedral is built of free stone, is 114 yards long, and 48 broad, and the steeple is 447 feet high. Joining to this church is the archbishop's palace, the front of which is very fine. The university had several thousand students. Beside this, there is the academy of Lower Austria; and the archducal library is much frequented by foreigners, as it contains above 100,000 printed books, and 10,000 manuscripts. The academy of painting is remarkable for the fine pictures it produces. The archducal treasury, and a cabinet of curiosities of the house of Austria, are great rarities. The inhabitants, in general, live in a splendid manner. There is a fort of harbour on the Danube, where there are magazines of naval stores, and ships have been fitted out to serve on that river against the Turks. Vienna is an archbishop's see. It is seated at the place where the river Vion or Wien falls into the Danube, 30 miles W. of Presburg, 350 NNE. of Rome, 520 SE. by E. of Amsterdam, 565 E. of Paris, and 680 ESE. of London. Lon. 16. 28. E. Lat. 48. 13. N.

(2.) VIENNA, a post town on the E. coast of Maryland, Dorchester county; W. side of the Nanticoke, about 15 miles from its mouth.

(3.) VIENNA, capital of Green county, Kentucky.

(1.) VIENNE, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of Iſere, on the Rhone. It trades in wine, silk, and cutleries. Near Vienna is produced the famous Cote Rotie wine. It is 265 miles SE. of Paris.

(2.) VIENNE, a river of France, which rises in the dep. of Correza, and falls into the Loire between Chinon and Samur.

(3.) VIENNE, a department of France, bounded on the N. and NE. by that of Indre and Loire, on the E. by that of Indre, on the S. by those of Charente and Upper Vienne, and on the W. by the dep. of the Two Sevrès. It comprehends a part of the ci-devant province of Poitou, and is about 65 miles long, and 38 broad at a medium. Poitiers is the capital.

(4.) VIENNE, UPPER, a department of France, bounded on the N. by those of Vienne and Indre, on the E. and SE. by the dep. of Creuse, on the SW. by that of Dordogne, and on the W. by that of Charente. It contains the ci-devant province of Limosin; and is about 55 miles long from N. to S. and from 25 to 43 broad. Limoges is the chief city.

VIERZON, an ancient town of France, on the

Cher and Yevre, in the dep. of the Cher, famous for its forges; 100 miles SW. of Paris.

VIESTI, a small town of Naples.

VIETA, Francis, a mathematician, born at Fontenay in 1540. He was the first who used letters in algebra to designate known quantities. He also made corrections on the calendar, and improvements in geometry. He died in 1603. His works were published, Paris, 1646, 1 vol. folio.

* VIEW, *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Prospect.—Pretty, and full of view. *Shak.*—Vast and indefinite view. *Wotton.*—The walls of Pluto's palace are in view. *Dryden.*—Cut wide views through mountains to the plain. *Pope.* 2. Slight; power of beholding.—

I go, to take for ever from your view,
Both the lov'd object, and the hated too. *Dryd.*
—A clear view. *Locke.*—Full in my view set all the bright abode. *Pope.* 3. Intellectual fight; mental ken.—Some faint resolution I've in view. *Milton.* 4. Act of seeing.—

But straight his view
Confirms that more than all he fears is true.

Denham.
5. Sight; eye.—Objects near our view. *Locke.* 6. Survey; examination by the eye.—Surveying nature with too nice a view. *Dryd.* 7. Intellectual survey.—If the mind takes a view of the connection of ideas. *Locke.* 8. Space that may be taken in by the eye; reach of sight.—When now the Trojan navy was in view. *Dryd.* 9. Appearance; show.—Which, by the splendour of her view. *Waller.* 10. Display; exhibition to the sight or mind.—To give a right view of this mistaken part of liberty. *Locke.* 11. Prospect of interest.—No man sets about any thing, but upon some view or other. *Locke.* 12. Intention; design.—With that view he makes all his reflections. *Atterb.*—With a view to commerce. *Arb.*—Fisher seconded the cardinal upon the same views. *Waterland.*

* To VIEW, *v. a.* [from *veu*, from *voir*, or *voir*.] 1. To survey; to look on by way of examination.—Go, and view the country. *Jos.*—His own works and their works at once to view. *Milton.*—View not this spire, by measures giv'n. *Prior.*—When e'er we view some well proportion'd dome. *Pope.* 2. To see; to perceive by the eye.—

They here with eyes aghast
View'd first their lamentable lot. *Milton.*
—No more I hear, no more I view. *Pope.*

* VIEWER *n. s.* [from *view*.] One who views.
* VIEWLESS, *adj.* [from *view*.] Unseen; not discernible to the sight.—To be imprison'd in the viewless winds. *Shak.*—

Each stair mysteriously was meant, nor stood
There always, but drawn up to heav'n sometimes,

Viewless. *Milton.*
—Repas'd, and viewless mix'd with common air.
Pope.—Their feet half viewless quiver in the skies.
Pope.

UIG, a parish of Scotland, in the SW. district of the isle of Lewis, in Ross-shire. It is about 15 miles long and 13 broad.—The coast of Loch Roag, an arm of the sea which runs into the middle of the parish, every where affords safe harbours for ships of any burden, and following its windings,

is upwards of 60 miles round. It is studded with islands, and abounds with fish, which, with the manufacture of kelp, constitutes the chief source of the livelihood of the inhabitants. The coasts only are cultivated. There is a Druidical place of worship entire, the remains of a nunnery, and a Danish fort or dun. In 1793, the population was 1898; increase 586 since 1755.

VIGAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Gard, 25 miles NW. of Nîmes.

VIGEAUNS, ST., a parish in Forfarshire, on the sea coast, to the NE. of Arbroath, and comprehending great part of the suburbs of that town. It is 7 miles long, and from 3 to 4 broad, containing 9385 acres, all of which, except about 700 or 800 of muir and plantation, are arable. The soil is very various, but on the whole fertile. One part of the coast, which is high and rocky, has some astonishing caverns. In 1801, the population was 4931; increase 3341 since 1755.

* **VIGESIMATION**. *n. f.* [*vigefimus*, Latin.] The act of putting to death every twentieth man. *Bailey*.

VIGEVANO, a town of Italy, in the dep. of Olona, and formerly the residence of the dukes of Milan. Seated on the Tessino with a strong castle, 15 miles SW. of Milan.

(1.) * **VIGIL**. *n. f.* [*vigilia*, Lat.] 1. Watch; devotions performed in the customary hours of rest.—So they in heaven their odes and *vigils* tun'd. *Milt.*—Shrines! where their *vigils* pale-eyed virgins keep. *Pope*. 2. A fast kept before a holiday. —Will yearly on the *vigil* feast his neighbours. *Shak.*—And that, which on the Baptists *vigil* stands. *Harte*. 3. Service used on the night before a holiday.—The *vigils* are to be celebrated that night before them. *Stillingfleet*.—To sing their *vigils* for th' ensuing day. *Dryd.* 4. Watch; forbearance of sleep.—Yet Hymen may perforce her *vigils* keep. *Waller*.—The *vigils* of the card-table. *Addison*.

(2.) **VIGIL**, in church history, is the eve or next day before any solemn feast; because then Christians were wont to watch, fast, and pray, in their churches.

(3.) **VIGILS OF PLANTS**, a term under which botanists comprehend the precise time of the day in which the flowers of different plants open, expand, and shut. All plants which flower the same day, in the same place, do not open and shut precisely at the same hour. Some open in the morning, as the lip flowers, and compound flowers with flat spreading petals; others at noon, as the mallows; and a third set in the evening, or after sunset, as some geraniums and opuntias; the hour of shutting is equally determined. Of those which open in the morning, some shut soon after, while others remain expanded till night. The hours of opening, like the time of flowering, seem to vary, according to the species of the plant, the temperature of the climate, and that of the season. Flowers, whose extreme delicacy would be hurt by the strong impressions of an ardent sun, do not open till night; those which require a moderate degree of heat to elevate their juices; in other words, whose juices do not rise but in the morning or evening, do not expand till then; whilst those

which need a more lively heat for the same purpose, expand at noon when the sun is in his meridian strength. Hence it is, that the heat of the air being greater betwixt the tropics than elsewhere, plants which are transported from those climates into the cold or temperate climates of Europe, expand their flowers much later than in their native soil. Thus, a flower which opens in Senegal, will not open at the same season in France and England till eight or nine, nor in Sweden till ten. Linnaeus distinguishes by the general name of *solar* (*flores solares*), all those flowers which observe a determinate time in opening and shutting. These flowers are again divided, from certain circumstances, into three species, or kinds: 1. Equinoctial flowers (*flores equinoctiales*) are such as open and shut at all seasons, at a certain fixed or determinate hour. 2. Tropical flowers (*flores tropici*) are such whose hour of opening is not fixed at all seasons, but accelerated or retarded according as the length of the day is increased or diminished. 3. Meteorous flowers (*flores meteorici*) are such whose hour of expansion depends upon the dry or humid state of the air, and the greater or less pressure of the atmosphere. Of this kind is the Siberian snow-thistle, which shuts at night if the ensuing day is to be clear and serene, and opens if it is to be cloudy and rainy. In like manner the African marigold, which in dry serene weather opens at six or seven in the morning, and shuts at 4 o'clock in the afternoon, is a sure indication that rain will fall during the course of the day, when it continues shut after seven.

* **VIGILANCE**. *n. f.* [*vigilance*, Fr. *vigilant*.] * **VIGILANCY**. *n. f.* [*vigilantia*, Latin.] 1. Forbearance of sleep.—The strong passion for his country should have given him *vigilance*. *Broome*. 2. Watchfulness; circumspection; incessant care.—Shall Henry's conquest, Bedford's *vigilance*? *Shak.*—His continual *vigilance*. *Wotton*.—Of these the *vigilance* I dread. *Milt.*—The sagacity and *vigilance* of the dog. *Ray*. 3. Guard; watch.—That guard and most unusual *vigilance*. *Shak.*

In at this gate none pass

The *vigilance* here plac'd. *Milton*. * **VIGILANT**. *adj.* [*vigilans*, Latin.] Watchful; circumspect; diligent; attentive.—That *vigilant* and erect attention of the mind. *Hooker*.—Take your places, and be *vigilant*. *Shak.*—As he was *vigilant* in such cases. *Clarendon*.

* **VIGILANTLY**. *adv.* [from *vigilant*] Watchfully; attentively; circumspectly.—Observed so *vigilantly*. *Hayward*.

VIGILIUS, an African prelate, and polemical writer, who flourished about A. D. 484. His works were printed at Dijon, 1665, 4to.

VIGNAMONT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege; 2 miles N. of Huy. Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 50. 34. N.

VIGNOLE, James Baroggio, architect, was born at Vignola, in 1507. He died at Rome, 1573. He wrote a treatise on the five orders of architecture, 3 vols 4to.

VIGO, a sea-port town of Spain, in Galicia, with an old castle and a fort. It is seated in a fertile country by the sea side. It is famous for the

III great

great victory gained by the English and Dutch fleets, under Sir J. Rook, over the French. (See ENGLAND, § 72.) Lon. 8. 21. W. Lat. 42. 3. N.

* **VIGOROUS**. *adj.* [from *vigor*, Lat.] Forcible; not weakened; full of strength and life.—At sea successful, *vigorous* and strong! *Wall*.—Their appetite returns always fresh and *vigorous*. *Atterb*.—*Vigorous* and successful. *Davenant*.

* **VIGOROUSLY**. *adv.* [from *vigour*.] With force; forcibly; without weakness.—With his one so *vigorously* he pres'd. *Dryden*.—If the fire burns bright and *vigorously*. *South*.—That prince whose cause you espouse so *vigorously*. *Swift*.

* **VIGOROUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *vigour*.] Force; strength.—Excellent sufferance and *vigorousness*. *Taylor*.

* **VIGOUR**. *n. f.* [*vigor*, Latin.] 1. Force; strength.—Wou'd utmost *vigour* raise, and rais'd unite. *Milton*.—And of their wonted *vigour* left them drain'd. *Milt*.—*Vigour* soon returns. *Milt*.—Immortal *vigour*. *Milt*.—The *vigour* of this arm was never vain. *Dryd*. 2. Mental force; intellectual ability. 3. Energy; efficacy.—In fruitful earth his beams their *vigour* find. *Milton*.—The earth's attractive *vigour* to explain. *Blackmore*.

VIHIERS, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine; 163 miles SW. of Paris.

VILAINE, a river of France, which rises in the dep. of the Maine, waters Vitre and Rennes, divides the dep. of Morbihan from that of the Lower Loire, and enters the bay of Biscay below Roche Bernard.

* **VILE**. *adj.* [*vil*, Fr. *vili*, Latin.] 1. Base; mean; worthless; sordid; despicable.—*Vile* and despicable. *Hooker*.—Rather than I would be so *vile* esteem'd. *Shak*.—Shall be my brother; be he ne'er so *vile*. *Shak*.—O ye Pegaian nymphs, that hating *viler* things. *Dray*.—The inhabitants account gold but as *vile* a thing. *Abbot*.—*Vile* man, begot of clay, and born of dust. *Fair*.—The *vilest* of weeds. *Bentley*. 2. Morally impure; wicked.—Restor'd by thee, *vile* as I am. *Milton*.

* **VILED**. *adj.* [from *vile*, whence *revile*.] Abusive; scurrilous; defamatory.—Who used *vil'd* speeches against king Edward. *Hayward*.

* **VILELY**. *adv.* [from *vile*.] Basely; meanly; shamefully.—The Volscians *vilely* yielded the town. *Shak*.—Depriv'd of funeral rites, and *vilely* dragg'd. *A. Philips*.

* **VILENESS**. *n. f.* [from *vile*.] 1. Baseness; meanness; despicableness.—His *vileness* us shall never awe. *Dray*.—The essential *vileness* of matter. *Creech*.—The *vileness* of the clay. *Swift*. 2. Moral or intellectual baseness.—Then, *vileness* of mankind. *Prior*.

* **VILIFIER**. *n. f.* [from *vilify*.] One that vilifies.

* **TO VILIFY**. *v. a.* [from *vile*.] 1. To debase; to degrade; to make vile.—Themselves they *vilify'd*.—To serve ungovern'd appetite. *Milton*. 2. To defame; to make contemptible.—To hear his sovereign *vilify'd*. *Dray*.—All methods to *vilify* his person. *Addis*.—To deprecate and *vilify*. *Addis*.

* **VILL**. *n. f.* [*vill*, French; *villa*, Latin.] A village; a small collection of houses. Little in use. In every manor, town, or *vill*. *Hale*.

(1.) * **VILLA**. *n. f.* [*villa*, Latin.] A country seat.—*Villas* and palaces. *Addison*.—A furnish'd

villa stands, propos'd for sale. *Harris*.—Whether you call them *villa*, park or chace. *Pope*.

(2.) **VILLA ARAGONENSE**, a town of Sardinia.

(3.) **VILLA DE CONDE**, a sea-port of Portugal, in Entre Duero-e-Minho.

(4.) **VILLA DE HORTA**, chief town and port of Fyal one of the Azores. Lon. 28. 36. W. Lat. 38. 32. N.

(5.) **VILLA DE MOSE**, a town of new Spain, in Tabasco, on a river of the same name.

(6.) **VILLA DEL REY**, a town of Spain, in Estremadura.

(7.) **VILLA FLOR**, a town of Portugal, in Tral-os montes.

(8—11.) **VILLA FRANCA**, 1. a seaport of the French empire, in the dep. of Maritime Alps, 3 miles E. of Nice. 2. A town of Italy, in the dep. of the Minicio, and ci-devant Veronese, 10 miles S. of Verona. 3. The capital of St Michael, one of the Azores. Lon. 25. 35. W. Lat. 37. 30. N. 4. A town of Spain, in Estremadura, on the Tormes, 37 miles E. of Salamanca.

(12.) **VILLA FRANCA DE PENADES**, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.

(13, 14.) **VILLA HERMOSA**, 1. A town of Spain in Valencia: 2. A town of Mexico.

(15, 16.) **VILLA NOVA**: 1. A town of Portugal, in Entre-Duero-e-Minho: on the Duero, opposite Oporto: 2. A town of Brasil, 170 miles W. of Porto Seguro.

(17.) **VILLA NOVA D'ASTI**, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late Piedmontese; 10 miles W. of Turin.

(18.) **VILLA PANDA**, a town of Spain, in Leon.

(19—21.) **VILLA REAL**, 1. A town of Spain, in Valencia: 2. A seaport of Mexico, on the gulf so named, 200 miles E. of Mexico. Lon. 103. 36. W. Lat. 20. 0. N. 3. A town of Portugal, in Tral-os Montes.

(22, 23.) **VILLA RICA**, 1. A town of Chili: 2. A seaport of New Spain, in the gulf of Mexico, 200 miles E. of Mexico. Lon. 103. 36. W. Lat. 20. 0. N.

(24, 25.) **VILLA VICIOSA**, 1. A large town of Portugal, in Alentejo, with a handsome palace. It is 83 miles SE. of Lisbon, in Lon. 7. 16. W. Lat. 38. 36. N. 2. A seaport of Spain, in Asturias, on the bay of Biscay, 22 miles NE. of Oviedo.

VILLAC, a town of Carinthia, 18 miles NE. of Brixen.

* **VILLAGE**. *n. f.* [*village*, French.] A small collection of houses in the country, less than a town.—Or pelted *villages*, sheep-cots, and mills. *Shak*.—The early *village* cock. *Shak*.—Like the *village* curs. *Shak*.—The country *villages* were burnt down to the ground. *Kneller*.—Those *village* words give us a mean idea of the thing. *Dryd*.—In the vile habit of *village* slave. *Pope*.

* **VILLAGER**. *n. f.* [from *village*.] An inhabitant of the village.—Brutus had rather be a *villager*. *Shak*.—I shall appear some harmless *villager*. *Milt*.—Every *villager* doth not know. *Locke*.

* **VILLAGERY**. *n. f.* [from *village*.] District of villages.—That fright the maidens of the *villagery*. *Shak*.

(1.) * **VILLAIN**. *n. f.* [*villain*, Fr. *villains*, low Latin.] 1. One who held by a base tenure.—Being in condition of slaves and *villains*. *Darwin*.

A wicked wretch.—A dozen armed knights, or rather *villains*. *Sidney*.—Abhorred villain! unnatural, detested, brutish villain! *Shak.*—Who names me traitor, villain-like he lies. *Shak.*—He was stabbed to the heart by the hand of a villain. *Shak.*—Calm thinking *villains*, whom no faith could fix. *Pope*.

(2.) VILLAIN, or VILLEIN, in our ancient customs, denotes a man of servile or base condition, viz. a bond-man or servant.

VILLALPANDUS, John Baptist, Jesuit, who died in 1608. He wrote a comment on Ezekiel, 3 vols. fol. 1596, and an Exposition of St Paul's Epistles.

* VILLANAGE. *n. f.* [from *villain*.] 1. The state of a villain; base servitude.—No wretchedness is like to sinful villanage. *Spenser*.—Tenants in villanage. *Davies*. 2. Baseness; infamy.—But infamy and villanage are thine. *Dryden*.

VILLANETTE. See Music, § 152.

* To VILLANIZE. *v. a.* [from *villain*.] To debase; to degrade; to defame.—Could never villanize his father's fame. *Dryd.*—Debasing and villanizing of mankind. *Bentley*.

* VILLANOUS. *adj.* [from *villain*.] 1. Base; vile; wicked. 2. Sorry; in a familiar sense.—Thou art my son; a villanous trick of thine eye doth warrant me. *Shak.* 3. It is used by *Shakespeare* to exaggerate any thing detestable.—With foreheads villanous low. *Shak.*

* VILLANOUSLY. *adv.* [from *villanous*.] Wickedly; basely.—He villanously flew Selymes. *Kneller*.

* VILLANOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *villanous*.] Baseness; wickedness.

* VILLANY. *n. f.* [from *villain*; *villonnie*, old French.] 1. Wickedness; baseness; depravity; gross atrociousness.—

Trust not those cunning waters of his eyes; For villany is not without such a rheum. *Shak.*—The commendation is not in his wit, but in his villany. *Shak.* 2. A wicked action; a crime. In this sense it has a plural.—No villanies or flagitious action. *South*.—Such villanies rous'd Horace into wrath. *Dryden*.—

VILLARET, Claude, born at Paris 1715. He was first an actor then became an author. He continued Velly's history of France, and wrote a treatise on acting, and a tract on the mind of Voltaire. He died in 1766.

VILLARS, Lewis Hector, peer and marshal of France, and grandee of Spain, was born at Moulins in 1653. After distinguishing himself on various occasions in the army, he was made marshal-de-camp in 1690, and was sent against Marlborough, but was defeated at Malplaquet, and dangerously wounded. He was appointed plenipotentiary for concluding a peace at Rastadt in 1714. In 1733 he was sent into Italy where he took Pifighione, and died at Turin 1734.

* VILLATICK. *adj.* [*villatius*, Lat.] Belonging to villages.—Same villatick fowl. *Mil.*

(1.) VILLE DIEU, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel, 18 miles SE. of Constance, an unsuccessful expedition was made upon it, in 1792.

(2—4.) VILLE FRANÇE, 1st, a town of France

on the Aveiron, in the dep. of the Aveiron, 260 miles S. of Paris. 2d. A town in the dep. of the Eastern Pyrenees on the Tet, 300 miles S. of Paris. Lon. 2. 25. E. Lat. 42. 25. N. 3d. A town in the dep. of Rhone and Loire, fortified on the Morgan, 18 miles NW. of Lyons.

(5.) VILLE JUIEVE, a town 4 miles S. of Paris, on the great road to Lyons.

VILLEMUR, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne, on the Tarne, 12 miles from Toulouse.

(1.) VILLENA, the Marquis of, a Spanish poet, was of the royal house of Arragon, and lived in the beginning of the 15th century. He translated the *Æneis* into verse, and Dante into prose, and wrote a book on the *Gaya Scientia*, in which he describes the ceremonies of the Troubadours.

(2.) VILLENA, a town of Murcia.

(1.) VILLENAGE, in law. The folk-land or estates held in villenage, was a species of tenure not strictly feudal, Norman, or Saxon; but mixed and compounded of them all; and which also on account of the heriots that usually attend it, may seem to have somewhat Danish in its composition. Under the Saxon Government there were as Sir William Temple speaks, a sort of people in a condition of downright servitude, used and employed in the most servile works, and belonging, both they, their children, and effects, to the lord of the soil, like the rest of the cattle or stock upon it. These seem to have been those who held what was called the *folkland*, from which they were removable at the lord's pleasure. On the arrival of the Normans here, it seems not improbable, that they, who were strangers to any other than a feudal state, might give some sparks of enfranchisement to such wretched persons as fell to their share, by admitting them, as well as others, to the oath of fealty; which conferred a right of protection, and raised the tenant to a kind of estate superior to downright slavery, but inferior to every other condition. This they called *villanage*, and the tenants *villains*. These villains, belonging principally to the lords of manors, were either villains *regardant*, that is, annexed to the manor or land; or else they were *in gross*, or at large, that is, annexed to the person of the lord, and transferable by deed from one owner to another. They could not leave their lord without his permission; but, if they ran away, or were purloined from him, might be claimed and recovered by action, like beasts or other chattels. They held indeed small portions of land by way of sustaining themselves and families; but it was at the mere will of the lord, who might dispossess them whenever he pleased; and it was upon villain services, that is to carry out dung, to hedge and ditch the lord's demesnes, and any other the meanest offices: and their services were not only base, but uncertain both as to their time and quantity. A villain could acquire no property, either in lands or goods; if he purchased either, the lord might seize them to his own use; unless he contrived to dispose of them again before the lord had seized them. In many places also a fine was payable to the lord, if the villain presumed to marry his daughter to any one without leave from the lord:

and, by the common law, the lord might also bring an action against the husband for damages for thus purloining his property. For the children of villeins were also in the same state of bondage with their parents; whence they were called in Latin *nativi*, which gave rise to the female appellation of a villein, who was called a *neife*. In case of a marriage between a freeman and a neife, or a villein and a free woman, the issue followed the condition of the father, being free if he was free, and villein if he was villein; contrary to the maxim of the civil law, that *partus sequitur ventrem*. But no bastard could be born a villein, because by another maxim of our law he is *nullius filius*; and as he can gain nothing by inheritance, it were hard that he should lose his natural freedom by it.

The law, however, protected the persons of villeins against atrocious injuries of the lord: for he might not kill or maim his villein; though he might beat him with impunity. Villeins might be enfranchised by manumission. In process of time they gained considerable ground on their lords; and in particular strengthened the tenure of their estates to that degree, that they came to have in them an interest in many places full as good, in others better than their lords. For the good-nature and benevolence of many lords of manors having, time out of mind, permitted their villeins and their children to enjoy their possessions without interruption, in a regular course of descent, the common law, of which custom is the life, now gave them title to prescribe against their lords; and, on performance of the same services, to hold their lands, in spite of any determination of the lord's will. For though in general they are still said to hold their estates at the will of the lord, yet it is such a will as is agreeable to the custom of the manor; which customs are preserved and evidenced by the rolls of the several courts baron in which they are entered, or kept on foot by the constant immemorial usage of the several manors in which the lands lie. And as such tenants had nothing to show for their estates but these customs, and admissions in pursuance of them entered on those rolls, or the copies of such entries witnessed by the steward, they now began to be called *tenants by copy of court roll*, and their tenure itself a *copyhold*.

(2.) **VILLENAGE, PRIVILEGED**, a species of tenure otherwise called *villein socage*. See **TENURE**. Ancient demesne consists of those lands or manors which, though now perhaps granted out to private subjects, were actually in the hands of the Crown in the time of Edward the Confessor, or William the Conqueror, and so appear to have been, by the great survey in the exchequer, called *doomsday-book*. The tenants of these lands, under the crown, were not all of the same order or degree. Some of them, as Britton testifies, continued for a long time pure and absolute villeins, dependent on the will of the lord; and common copyholders in only a few points. Others were in a great measure enfranchised by the royal favour; being only bound in respect of their lands to perform some of the better sort of villein services; but those determinate and certain; as, to plough the king's land for so many days, to sup-

ply his court with such a quantity of provender and the like; all of which are now changed into pecuniary rents; and in consideration hereof they had many immunities and privileges granted them; as, to try the right of their property in peculiar court of their own, called a *court ancient demesne*, by a peculiar process denominated a writ of right close; not to pay toll or tax, not to contribute to the expences of knights of the shire; not to be put on juries, and the like. These tenants, therefore, though their tenure was absolutely copyhold, yet have an interest equivalent to a freehold: for though their services were of a base and villeinous original, yet the tenants were esteemed in all other respects to be high privileged villeins; and especially for that their services were fixed and determinate, and that they could not be compelled, (like pure villeins) to relinquish those tenements at the lord's will, or to hold them against their own: *et ideo* (as Bracton) *dicuntur liberi*. Lands holding by this tenure are therefore a species of copyhold, and as such preferred and exempted from the operation of the statute of Charles II. Yet they differ from common copyholds, principally in the privileges before mentioned: as also they differ from freeholders by one especial mark and distinction, villenage, noted by Bracton, and remaining to this day, viz. that they cannot be conveyed from man to man by the general common-law conveyances of feoffment, and the rest; but must pass by surrender to the lord or his steward, in the manner of common copy-holds; yet with this difference, that, in the surrenders of these lands in ancient demesne, it is not used to say, "to hold at the will of their lord," in their copies; but only, "to hold according to the custom of the manor."

(1.) **VILLENEUVE**, Gabrielle Susannah Barbot, DE, novel writer, was the widow of a French Lieut. Col. Her novels are numerous. She died in 1755.

(2, 3.) **VILLENEUVE**, 1. A small town of France in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, on the Lot, 17 miles N. of Agen. 2. A town in the dep. of Gard, 23 miles NW. of Nîmes.

(4.) **VILLENEUVE DE BORA**, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardeche, 12 miles NW. of Viviers.

VILLENGEN, a town of Suabia, in Brisgau, in the Black Forest, 28 miles E. by S. of Friburg.

VILLERS COTERETS, a town of France, in the dep. of Oise, 11 miles SW. of Soissons.

* **VILLI**. *n. s.* [Latin.] In anatomy, are the same as fibres; and in botany, small hairs like the grain of plush or flax, with which, as a kind of excrecence, some trees do abound. *Quincy*.

VILLIA, a town and river of Verragua in Guatemala, in Mexico, about 71 miles from Nata.

(1.) **VILLIERS**, George, D. of Buckingham, was born at Brooksbury, 1592. He became a very great favourite of James I. who advanced him to his dignity of duke, and made him a knight of the garter, lord high admiral, and master of the horse, and gave him the disposal of all places in church and state. He retained the same place in the favour of Charles I. but the people detested him. He took the command of an expedition for the

the relief of Rochelle, instead of which he made a descent on the Isle of Rhé and lost the greater part of his troops. A new expedition was planned, but he was stabbed by a Lieut. Fellow, when at Portsmouth ready to embark, 23d Aug. 1628.

(2.) VILLIERS, George, D. of Buckingham, son of the preceding, was born in 1627. He was educated at Cambridge, and on the breaking out of the civil wars, served the king with great zeal, till the ruin of the royal cause, when he went abroad. He afterwards accompanied Charles II. to Scotland, and was with him at the battle of Worcester, when he had the good fortune to escape. By marrying the daughter of lord Fairfax, he recovered a principal part of his estate before the restoration, when he was made a lord of the bed-chamber, member of the privy-council, and master of the horse. But entering into a conspiracy against the king, he lost his places. He afterwards recovered the royal favour, and was sent ambassador to France. He died in 1688. He wrote the celebrated comedy of the *Rehearsal*, and some poems. His morals were very dissipated.

* VILLOUS. *adj.* [*villosus*, Latin.] Shaggy; rough; furry.—The inward *villos* coat of the stomach. *Arb.*

VILVORDE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant, 7 miles NE. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 31. E. Lat. 50. 56. N.

VIMINALIS, one of the 7 hills Rome stood on.

* VIMINEOUS. *adj.* [*vimineous*, Lat.] Made of twigs.—As in the hive's *vimineous* dome. *Prior.*

VINCA, in botany: A genus of plants of the class *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 30th order, *Contorta*. The corolla is twisted; there are two erect follicles; the seeds are naked. There are five species; only two of which are natives of Britain.

(1.) VINCA MAJOR, great periwinkle. It has a woody, erect stem; leaves broader and sharper pointed; pedicles of the flowers straight, and calyx as long as the tube; otherwise like the next.

(2.) VINCA MINOR, small periwinkle, has a woody, creeping, slender, crooked stem; leaves long, oval, entire, pointed, opposite, glossy. Flowers single, on long curved pedicles from the ax. of the leaves, which are large and blue.

(1.) VINCENT, Thomas, a divine who continued to preach regularly during the plague. He died in 1671. He wrote *God's terrible voice* in the city by plague and fire; an *Explanation of the Catechism*, and other religious books.

(2.) VINCENT, Nathaniel, non-conformist, wrote the *Conversion of a Sinner*, and the *Day of Grace*, 2vo; several sermons and other pious books. He died in 1697.

(3.) VINCENT, ST, a town of Spain in Old Castile.

(4.) VINCENT, ST, one of the Cape de Verd islands. It is uninhabited; but on the NW. side is a bay where ships find wood, water, and turtle. There is plenty of saltpetre.

(5.) VINCENT, ST, the most southerly captainship of Brazil. The capital is inconsiderable,

with a poor harbour. Lon. 45. 10. W. Lat. 23. 40. S.

(6.) VINCENT, ST, a town on the coast of Brazil in Amiaz island, in the bay of All Saints. Lon. 46. 30. W. Lat. 24. 15. S.

(7.) VINCENT, ST, one of the windward Caribbee islands. St Vincent was long a neutral island; but, at the peace of 1763, the French agreed that the right to it should be vested in the English; who, in the sequel, at the instance of some rapacious planters engaged in an unjust war against the Caribbees, who inhabited the windward side of the island, and who were obliged to consent to a peace, by which they ceded a very large tract of valuable land to the crown. The consequence of this was, that in the American war, in 1779, they greatly contributed to the reduction of this island by the French, who, however, restored it by the peace of 1783. Since that time it has continued in the possession of Great Britain. During the revolutionary war, the Caribs revolted; and, assisted by the French, spread desolation over the whole island. By the exertions of the governor, however, and the British forces in the West Indies, the revolt was quelled. St Vincent is in length about 24 miles, and about 18 in breadth; in circumference between 60 and 70. The climate is very warm. The country is in general hilly, in some places mountainous, but interspersed with a variety of pleasant valleys, and some luxuriant plains, the soil being everywhere very fertile. Few islands of its extent are so well watered. The inhabitants raise all kind of ground provisions in plenty, and with little trouble. The rivers and sea supply them with a variety of fish. They have abundance of excellent fruits, and very fine timber, fit for almost every use. It lies between Lon. 61. 10. and 61. 18. W. and between Lat. 13. 5. and 13. 19. N. about 60 miles W. of Barbadoes.

(8.) VINCENT, ST, DE LA PAZES, OF ONDA, a town of Popayan, S. America, 25 miles E. of San Sebastian.

(9.) VINCENT, ST, PORT, on the coast of Chili, in the S. Pacific Ocean.

(10.) VINCENT'S FORT, in the NW. territory of N. America, on the E. side of the Washita, 150 miles from its mouth. Lon. 90. 7. W. Lat. 39. 15. N.

VINCENTIUS, one of the Christian Fathers, A. D. 434. His works are best edited by Baluzius, Paris, 1699.

VINCI, Leonard, DA, was born in the castle of Vinci near Florence in 1445. Verocchio was his master, whom he soon excelled, as he did all the painters of his time. At Milan he founded his celebrated school of painting. He was also an excellent architect, and constructed the famous aqueduct which supplies Milan with water. From that place he went to Florence, where he laboured with Michael Angelo, in ornamenting the grand council chamber. At the invitation of Francis I. he visited the French court, where he died in the arms of that monarch, in 1510. He composed a great number of discourses on curious subjects; but none of them have been published but his *Treatise on the Art of Painting*.—
For

For his anatomical knowledge, see *ANATOMY*, *Index*.

* **VINCIBLE**. *adj.* [from *vincere*, Lat.] Conquerable; superable.—Not *vincible* in spirit. *Hagward*.—Because 'twas absolutely in my power to have attended more heedfully, there was liberty in the principle, the mistake which influenced the action was *vincible*. *Norris*.

* **VINCIBLENESS**. *n. f.* [from *vincible*.] Liability to be overcome. *Dick*.

* **VINCTURE**. *n. f.* [*vincitura*, Latin.] A binding. *Bailey*.

VINCULUM, in algebra, a character in form of a line, or stroke drawn over a factor, divisor, or dividend, when compounded of several letters or quantities, to connect them, and shows that they are to be multiplied or divided, &c. together by the other term. Thus $d \times a + b - c$ shows that d is to be multiplied into $a + b - c$.

VINDALIUS, a writer in the age of Augustus, who wrote 10 books on agriculture.

VINDELICI, an ancient people of Germany, between the head of the Rhine and the Danube, **VINDELICIA**, their country, forms now part of Suabia, and Bavaria, and Augsburg was their chief town. *Augusta Vindelicorum*.

* **VINDEMIAL**. *adj.* [*vindemia*, Latin.] Belonging to a vintage.

* **To VINDEMIATE**. *v. n.* [*vindemia*, Lat.] To gather the vintage.—Now *vindemiate*, and take your bees towards the expiration of this month. *Evelyn*.

* **VINDEMIATION**. *n. f.* [*vindemia*, Latin.] Grape-gathering. *Bailey*.

VINDEX, Julius, a governor of Gaul, who revolted against Nero, and on being defeated, slew himself.

* **To VINDICATE**. *v. a.* [*vindicco*, Lat.] 1. To justify; to support; to maintain.—Where the respondent denies any proposition the opponent must directly *vindicate* and confirm that proposition. *Watts*. 2. To revenge; to avenge.—Whether to *vindicate* or punish infidelity? *Bacon*.—To exact subjection, and *vindicate* rebellion. *Pearson*.—His justice is concerned to *vindicate* the affront. *Tillotson*.—To *vindicate* on Athens thy disgrace. *Dryden*. 3. To assert; to claim with efficacy.—Never any touch'd upon this way, which our poet justly has *vindicated* to himself. *Dryden*.—From all the world shall *vindicate* her trade. *Dryden*. 4. To clear; to protect from censure.—*Vindicated* from our neglect by the greatest signs and wonders. *Hammond*.—And *vindicate* the ways of God to man. *Milton*.

* **VINDICATION**. *n. f.* [*vindication*, Fr. from *vindicare*.] Defence; assertion; justification.—This is no *vindication* of her conduct. *Broome*.

* **VINDICATIVE**. *adj.* [from *vindicare*.] Revengeful; given to revenge.—He's more *vindicative* than jealous love. *Shak*.—*Vindicative* persons live the life of witches, who, as they are mischievous, so end they unfortunate. *Bacon*.—The evaporations of a *vindicative* spirit. *Howell*.—What is censorious or *vindicative*? *Spratt*.—A passion purely *vindicative*. *L'Estrange*.

* **VINDICATOR**. *n. f.* [from *vindicare*.] One who vindicates; an assertor.—A jealous *vindicator* of Roman liberty. *Dryden*.

* **VINDICATORY**. *adj.* [from *vindicator*.] Punitive; performing the office of vengeance.—*Vindicatory* punishments to take vengeance of his sins. *Bramhall*. 1. Defensory; justificatory.

VINDICIUS, the slave who discovered the plot for the restoration of Tarquin. He was amply rewarded and made a citizen of Rome.

* **VINDICTIVE**. *adj.* [from *vindicta*, Latin.] Given to revenge; revengeful.—I am *vindictive* enough to repel force by force. *Dryden*.—Augustus was of a nature too *vindictive*. *Dryden*.—Suit not reparative, but *vindictive*. *Kettlewell*.

(1.) * **VINE**. *n. f.* [*vinca*, Latin.] The plant that bears the grape.—The flower consists of many leaves placed in a regular order, and expanding in form of a rose; the ovary, which is situated in the bottom of the flower, becomes a round fruit, full of juice, and contains many small bones in each. The tree is climbing, sending forth claspers at the joints, by which it fastens itself to what plant stands near it, and the fruit is produced in bunches. The species are, 1. The wild vine, commonly called the claret grape. 2. The July grape. 3. The Corinth grape, vulgarly called the currant grape. 4. The parsley leav'd grape. 5. The miller's grape. This is called the Burgundy in England; the leaves of this sort are very much powdered with white in the spring, from whence it had the name of miller's grape. 6. Is what is called in Burgundy, Pineau, and at Orleans, Auverna; it makes very good wine. 7. The white Chasselas, or royal muscadine; it is a large white grape; the juice is very rich. 8. The black chasselas, or black muscadine; the juice is very rich. 9. The red chasselas, or red muscadine. 10. The burlake grape. 11. The white muscat, or white Frontinac. 12. The red Frontinac. 13. The black Frontinac. 14. The damask grape. 15. The white sweet water. 16. The black sweet water. 17. The white muscadine. 18. The raisin grape. 19. The Greek grape. 20. The pearl grape. 21. The St Peter's grape, or hesperian. 22. The malmsey grape. 23. The malmsey muscadine. 24. The red Hamburgh grape. 25. The black Hamburgh, or warmer grape. 26. The Switzerland grape. 27. The white muscat, or Frontinac of Alexandria; called also the Jerusalem muscat, and gros muscat. 28. The red muscat, or Frontinac of Alexandria. 29. The white melic grape. 30. The white morillon. 31. The Alicante grape. 32. The white Auvernat. 33. The grey Auvernat. 34. The raisin muscat. The late duke of Tuscany, who was very curious in collecting all the sorts of Italian and Greek grapes into his vineyards, was possessed of upwards of three hundred several varieties. *Miller*.—The vine-prop elm, the poplar never dry. *F. Queen*.—Under his own vine. *Shak*.—The captain left of the poor to be vindexers. 2 *Kings*.—Depending vines the shelving cavern screen. *Pope*.

(2.) **VINE**, in botany. See *Vitis*.

* **VINEFRETTER**. *n. f.* [from *vine* and *fret*.] A worm that eats vine leaves. See *APHIS* and *PUCERON*.

(1.) * **VINEGAR**. *n. f.* [*vinagre*, Fr.] 1. Wine grown four; eager wine.—*Vinegar* is made by setting the vessel of wine against the hot sun.

Bacon.

Bacon.—Heav'n's blest beams turns *vinegar* more
four. *Pope*. 2. Any thing really or metaphorically
four.—And other of such *vinegar* aspect. *Shak*.

(2.) VINEGAR, ACETUM, an agreeable acid and penetrating liquor, prepared from wine, cyder, beer, and other liquors; of considerable use, both as a medicine and a sauce. The word is French, *vinaigre*; formed from *vin*, "wine;" and *aigre*, "sour." See ACETUM, and CHEMISTRY, *Index*. Wine and other vinous liquors are changed into vinegar by the acetous fermentation, which is nothing more than the acidification or oxygenation of wine, produced in the open air by means of the absorption of oxygen. Vinegar is composed of hydrogen and carbon united together in proportions not yet ascertained, and changed into the acid state by oxygen. As vinegar is an acid, we might conclude from analogy, that it contains oxygen; but this is put beyond doubt by direct experiments. In the first place, we cannot change wine into vinegar without the contact of air, containing oxygen; secondly, this process is accompanied by a diminution of the air in which it is carried on from the absorption of its oxygen; and, thirdly, wine may be changed into vinegar by any other means of oxydation. Independent of the proofs which these facts furnish of the acetous acid being produced by the oxygenation of wine, an experiment made by Mr Chaptal, professor of chemistry at Montpellier, gives a distinct view of what takes place in the process. He impregnated some water with about its own bulk of carbonic acid gas, procured from beer vats in fermentation; and placed this water in a cellar, in vessels communicating with the air, and in a short time the whole was converted into acetous acid. This carbonic acid gas, procured from beer vats in fermentation, is not perfectly pure, but contains a great quantity of alcohol in solution; wherefore water impregnated with it contains all the materials necessary for forming the acetous acid. The alcohol furnishes hydrogen and one portion of carbon; the carbonic furnishes oxygen, and the rest of the carbon; and the air of the atmosphere furnishes the rest of the oxygen necessary for changing the mixture into acetous acid. From this observation it follows, that nothing but hydrogen is wanting to convert carbonic acid into acetous acid; or, more generally, that, by means of hydrogen, and according to the degree of oxydation, carbonic acid may be changed into all the vegetable acids: and, on the contrary, that, by depriving any of the vegetable acids of their hydrogen, they be converted into carbonic acid.

(3.) VINEGAR CONCENTRATED. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(4.) VINEGAR, EGGS IN. See ANIMALCULE, N° 9.

(5.) VINEGAR, METHOD OF MAKING. The process indicated by Boerhaave is still the most frequently used. It consists in fixing two casks in a warm room or place. Two false bottoms of basket-work are fixed at a certain distance from the bottom, upon which the refuse of grapes and vine twigs are placed. One of these tuns is filled with wine, and the other only half filled. The fermentation begins in this last; and, when

it is in full action, it is checked by filling the cask up with wine out of the other. The fermentation then takes place in the last-mentioned cask, that remained half filled; and this is checked in the same manner by pouring back the same quantity of liquid out of the other: and in this way the process is continued till the vinegar is made, which is usually in about 15 days. When the fermentation develops itself, the liquid becomes heated and turbid; a great number of filaments are seen in it; it emits a lively smell; and much air is absorbed, according to the observation of the Abbé Rozier. A large quantity of lees is formed, which subsides when the vinegar becomes clear. This lees is very analogous to the fibrous matter. Vinegar is purified by distillation. The first portions which pass over are weak; but soon afterwards the acetous acid rises, and is stronger the later it comes over in the distillation. This fluid is called *distilled vinegar*; and is thus cleared of its colouring principle, and the lees, which are always more or less abundant. Vinegar may likewise be concentrated by exposing it to the frost. The superabundant water freezes, and leaves the acid more condensed.

(6.) VINEGAR, METHOD OF MAKING BEER. Take a middling sort of beer, indifferently well hopped; into which, when it has worked well and grown fine, put some rape, or hulks of grapes, usually brought home for that purpose; mash them together in a tub; then letting the rape settle, draw off the liquid part, put it into a cask, and set it in the sun as hot as may be; the bung being only covered with a tile, or slate-flone: and in about 30 or 40 days it will become a good vinegar, and may pass in use as well as that made of wine, if it be refined, and kept from turning musty. Or thus:—To every gallon of spring-water add three pounds of Malaga raisins; which put into an earthen jar, and place them where they may have the hottest sun from May till Michaelmas; then pressing all well, tun the liquor up in a very strong iron-hooped vessel, to prevent its bursting: it will appear very thick and muddy when newly pressed; but will refine in the vessel, and be as clear as wine. Thus let it remain untouched for three months before it is drawn off, and it will prove excellent vinegar.

(7.) VINEGAR, METHOD OF MAKING CYDER. The cyder (the meanest of which will serve the purpose) is first to be drawn off fine into another vessel, and a quantity of the must of apples to be added: the whole is set in the sun, if there be convenience for it; and at a week or nine days end it may be drawn off.

(8.) VINEGAR, METHOD OF MAKING WINE. Any sort of vinous liquor being mixed with its own faces, flowers, or ferment, and its tartar first reduced to powder; or else with the acid and austere stalks of the vegetable from whence the wine was obtained, which hold a large proportion of tartar; and the whole being kept frequently stirring in a vessel which has formerly held vinegar, or set in a warm place full of the steams of the same, will begin to ferment anew, conceive heat, grow sour by degrees, and soon after turn into vinegar. The remote subjects of acetous fermentation

mentation are the same with those of vinous; but the immediate subjects of it, are all kinds of vegetable juices, after they have once undergone that fermentation which reduces them to wine: for it is absolutely impossible to make vinegar of must, the crude juice of grapes, and other ripe fruits, without the previous assistance of vinous fermentation. The proper ferments for this operation, whereby vinegar is prepared, are, 1. The faeces of all acid wines. 2. The lees of vinegar. 3. Pulverized tartar, especially that of Rhenish wine, or the cream or crystals thereof. 4. Vinegar itself. 5. A wooden vessel well drenched with vinegar, or one that has long been employed to contain it. 6. Wine that has often been mixed with its own faeces. 7. The twigs of vines, and the stalks of grapes, currants, cherries, or other vegetables of an acid austere taste. 8. Bakers' leaven, after it is turned acid. 9. All manner of ferments, compounded of those already mentioned.

(9.) VINEGAR, SALT OF. See CHEMISTRY, Index.

VINER'S ISLANDS, in Hudson's bay, lies NE. of the mouth of Albany river.

VINES, Richard, nonconformist, was a member of the Westminster assembly. He was a frequent preacher before Parliament. He died in 1655, several of his Sermons have been printed.

(1.) * VINEYARD. *n. f.* [*wingeard*, Saxon.] A ground planted with vines.—And give our vineyards to a barbarous people. *Shak.*—Some had surfeited in the vineyards. *Clarendon.*

(2.) VINEYARD SOUND, on the SE. coast of Massachusetts, in the straits between the Elizabeth Islands, and Martha's vineyard.

VINGORIA, a Dutch settlement in the peninsula of Indostan, on the coast of Concan, N. of Goa.

* VINNEVED, or *Finney*, *adj.* Mouldy. *Ainsf.*

VINNIUS, Arnold, professor of law at Leyden, was born at Holland, 1588, and died 1657. He wrote a commentary on the Institutes of Justinian, 2 vols. 4to, and another on the ancient law writers, 8vo.

VINNY, or FINNY, a small river of Angushire, which rises near Forfar, and joins the LUNAN at the church of Kinkell.

* VINTAGE. *n. f.* [*vinage*, Fr.] The produce of the vine for the year.—The best wines are in the driest vintages. *Bac.*—And half the vintage of the year our own. *Waller.*

* VINTAGER. *n. f.* [from *vintage*.] He who gathers the vintage. *Ainsworth.*

VINTAIN, a town of Africa, situated about two miles up a creek on the S. side of the Gambia. It is much resorted to by Europeans, on account of the great quantities of bees wax which are brought thither for sale. Lon. 15. 56. W. Lat. 13. 9. N.

VINTIMIGLIA, an ancient town of Italy, in Genoa, with a small harbour at the mouth of the rivers Bibera and Rotta, 70 miles SW. of Genoa.

* VINTNER. *n. f.* [from *vinum*, Latin.] One who sells wine.—The *vintner* may draw what religion he pleases. *Howek.*—The *vintner* destroys more lives than any malignant disease. *Swift.*

* VINTRY. *n. f.* The place where wine is sold. *Ainsworth.*

VIO, Thomas DE. See CAJETAN.

(1.) * VIOL. *n. f.* [*violle*, Fr. *viola*, Italian.] A stringed instrument of musick.—An unstringed *ol*, or a harp. *Shak.*—To strain a string, stop with the finger, as in the necks of lutes and *viol*. *Bac.*—Some strain the *viol* best. *Drayt.*—Of lute or *viol*, still more apt for mournful things. *Milt.*

(2.) VIOL, a musical instrument of the same form with the VIOLIN, and, like that struck with a bow. See MUSIC, § 46, 48.

VIOLA, in botany, a genus of plants of the class *syngnesia*, order *monogynia*; in the natural system arranged under the 29th order, *Campanulæ*. The calyx is pentaphyllous; the corolla five petaled, irregular, with a nectarium behind, horse shaped; the capsule is above the germen, three valved, monoclocular. There are 28 species; five of which are natives of Britain. The most important are,

1. VIOLA ODORATA, purple sweet violet, has leaves heart-shaped, notched; flowers deep purple, single; creeping scions. The flowers of this plant, taken in the quantity of a dram or two, are said to be gently purgative or laxative, and, according to Bergius and some others, they possess an anodyne and pectoral quality.

2. VIOLA PALUSTRIS, March violet. The leaves are smooth, reniform, two or three on each footstalk; flowers pale blue, small, inodorous. An infusion of the flowers is an excellent test of the presence of acids and alkalis.

3. VIOLA TRICOLOR, pansies, HEART'S-EASE or three faces under a hood. The stems are diffuse, procumbent, triangular; the leaves oblong, cut at the edges; stipule dentated; the flowers purple, yellow, and light blue; inodorous.

* VIOLABLE. *adj.* [from *violabilis*, Lat.] Such as may be violated or hurt.

* VIOLACEOUS. *adj.* [from *viola*, Lat.] Resembling violets.

VIOLAIS. See MUSIC, § 46.

* To VIOLATE. *v. a.* [*violo*, Latin.] 1. To injure; to hurt.—Employed to *violate* the sleep of those. *Milt.*—May mix with bliss, and yet not *violate*. *Dryd.*—To know, what known will *violate* thy peace. *Pope.* 2. To infringe; to break any thing venerable.—

Some of violated vows

'Twixt the souls of friend and friend. *Shak.*

—Those offences in general *violate* reason. *Hook.*

—Those reasonings *violating* common sense. *Beattie.*

3. To injure by irreverence.—I would *violate* my own arm rather than a church. *Brown.*—Forbidden to *violate* the sacred fruit. *Milton.* 4. To ravish; to deflower.—The Sabine's *violated* charms. *Prior.*

* VIOLATION. *n. f.* [*violatio*, Latin.] 1. Infringement or injury of something sacred or venerable.—The wilful *violation* of oaths. *Hooker.*—Men considered the *violation* of an oath a great crime. *Addis.* 2. Rape; the act of deflowering.—Of hot and forcing *violation*. *Shak.*

* VIOLATOR. *n. f.* [*violator*, Lat.] 1. One who injures or infringes something sacred.—Sacrilegious *violators* of churches. *South.* 2. A ravisher.—An hypocrite, a virgin *violator*. *Shak.*—The *violator*'s upbraidings and insults. *Clarissa.*

* VIOLENCE. *n. f.* [*violentia*, Lat.] 1. Force; strength applied to any purpose.—And blown

with restless violence about. *Shak.*—The violence of this conflict. *Milt.* 2. An attack; an assault; murder.—She, as it seems, did violence on herself. *Shak.* 3. Outrage: unjust force.—The whole earth fill'd with violence. *Milton.* 4. Eagerness; vehemence.—That seal you ask for with such violence. *Shak.* 5. Injury; infringement.—Offering violence to all records. *Burnet.* 6. Forcible desolation.

* **VIOLENT.** *adj.* [*violentus*, Latin.] 1. Forcible; acting with strength.—A violent cross wind blows. *Milton.* 2. Produced, or continued by force.—The posture is unnatural and violent. *Burnet.* 3. Not natural, but brought by force.—Violent or shameful death their due reward. *Milt.* 4. Assailant; acting by force.—Some violent hands were laid on Humphry's life. *Shak.* 5. A foe subtle or violent. *Milton.* 5. Unseasonably vehement.—We might be reckoned fierce and violent. *Hook.*—Such violence shall not take heaven, but hell by force. *Dec. of Piety.* 6. Extorted; not voluntary.—Vows made in pain, as violence and void. *Milton.*

* **VIOLENTLY.** *adv.* [from *violens*.] With force; forcibly; vehemently.—

Temp'rately proceed to what you would
Thus violently redress. *Shak.*
—Flame burneth violently. *Bacon.*—Ancient privileges must not be exacted violently. *Taylor.*

(1.) * **VIOLET.** *n. f.* [*violette*, Fr. *viola*, Latin.] A flower.—When daisies pied, and violets blue. *Shak.*—And in the violet embroider'd vale. *Milt.*—It alters not our simple idea, whether we think that blue be in the violet itself, or in our mind only. *Löcke.*

(2.) **VIOLET**, in botany. See **VIOLA**.

(3.) **VIOLET CRAB**, in zoology. See **CANCER**, N° 15.

(1.) * **VIOLIN.** *n. f.* [*violon*, Fr. from *viol.*] A fiddle; a stringed instrument of musick.—Praise with violins and lutes. *Sandys.*—Sharp violins. *Dryd.*

(2.) **VIOLIN**, or **FIDDLE**, a musical instrument mounted with four strings or guta, and struck or played with a bow. The style and sound of the violin is the gayest and most sprightly of all other instruments; and hence it is of all others the fittest for dancing. Yet there are ways of touching it, which render it grave, soft, languishing, and fit for church or chamber music.—It generally makes the treble or highest parts in concerts. Its harmony is from fifth to fifth. Its play is composed of brass, counter-tenor, tenor, and treble; so which may be added, a fifth part; each part has four fifths, which rise to a greater seventeenth. See **MUSIC**, § 46, 48.

* **VIOLIST.** *n. f.* [from *viol.*] A player on the viol.

(1.) * **VIOLONCELLO.** *n. f.* [Ital.] A stringed instrument of music.

(2.) **VIOLONCELLO**, of the Italians, is properly our fifth violin; which is a little bass violin, half the size of the common bass violin, and the strings bigger and longer in proportion: consequently its sound is an octave lower than our bass violin; which has a noble effect in concerts.

(1.) * **VIPER.** *n. f.* [*viperæ*, Latin.] 1. A serpent of that species which brings its young alive, of which many are poisonous.—A viper came out. *Vql. XXII. PART II.*

of the heat. *As.*—The viper's deadly teeth shall pierce his skin. *Sandys.*—Viper-catchers are no more afraid of the bite of a viper, than of a common puncture. *Derham.* 2. Any thing mischievous.—Where is this viper. *Shak.*

(2.) **VIPER**, in zoology. See **COLUBER**, **POISON**, and **SERPENT**.

* **VIPERINE.** *adj.* [*viperinus*, Lat.] Belonging to a viper.

* **VIPEROUS.** *adj.* [*vipereus*, Lat. from *viper.*] Having the qualities of a viper.—Civil dissention is a viperous worm. *Shak.*—This viperous traitor. *Shak.*—Some viperous critic may bereave. *Dau.*

(1.) * **VIPER'S BUGLOSS.** *n. f.* [*echium*, Latin.] A plant.—Each flower is succeeded by four seeds, which are in form of a viper's head. *Miller.*

(2.) **VIPER'S BUGLOSS.** See **ECHIUM**.

(3.) * **VIPER'S GRASS.** *n. f.* [*scorzonera*, Latin.] A plant.

(4.) **VIPER'S GRASS.** See **SCORZONERA**.

VIQUE, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.

VIRACOCCHA. See **DELUGE**, § 7.

* **VIRAGO.** *n. f.* [Latin.] 1. A female warrior; a woman with the qualities of a man.—Melpomene is represented like a virago or manly lady. *Peacbam.*—To arms! to arms! the fierce virago cries. *Pope.* 2. It is commonly used in detestation for an impudent turbulent woman.

VIRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados, on the Vire, 130 miles W. of Paris.

VIRECTA, in botany, a genus of plants of the class *pentandria*, and order of *monogynia*.

* **VIRELAY.** *n. f.* [*virrelay*, *virelai*, Fr.] A sort of little ancient French poem, that consisted only of two rhymes and short verses, with strops. *L'Atad.*

The mournful muse in mirth now lift ne mask,
As she was wont in youth and summer days;
But if thou algate lust like *virrelays*,
And looser songs of love to underlong. *Spenser.*

The band of flutes began to play,
To which a lady sung a *virelay*. *Dryden.*

* **VIRENT.** *adj.* [*virens*, Latin.] Green; not faded.—In these, yet fresh and virent, they carve out figures. *Brown.*

* **VIRGE.** *n. f.* [*virga*, Lat. better *verge*, from *verge*, Fr.] A dean's mace.—The silver virge with decent pride. *Swift.*

(1.) **VIRGIL**, or **PUBLIUS VIRGILIUS MARO**, prince of the Latin poets, was born at Andes, near Mantua, about 70 years B. C. His first years were spent at Cremona, whence he removed to Rome, when his country was partitioned out among the soldiers after the battle of Philippi. There, by means of his friend **MÆCENAS**, he was introduced to Augustus, who restored to him his estate. On this occasion he wrote his 1st Eclogue; and on completing the *Bucolica*, he wrote the *Georgica*. After these were finished, and had been read by Augustus, he began the *Æneid*, at the request of the emperor. The poet was engaged 11 years on this immortal work, but died without revising it, at Brundisium, B. C. 19, in the 52d year of his age. He left the greatest part of his property to Mæcenas, Tucca, and Augustus. His remains were interred on a spot in the road leading from Naples to Puteoli. He was of a remarkably timorous disposition. The best editions of Virgil, are Baskerville's 4to. Birmingham. 1757:

K k k k

the

the Variorum, 8vo. 1661; and Glasgow 12mo, 1758. This poet has been well translated into English by Dryden, Pitt, and Warton.

(1.) VIRGIL, Polydore, an historian, born at Urbino in Italy, was sent, in the beginning of the 16th century, by pope Alexander VI. as sub-collector of the Papal tax called *Peter-pence*, into this kingdom. Having gained the favour of Henry VIII. he was preferred step by step to the arch-deaconry of Wells. By order of that sovereign, he wrote a History of England in Latin, more elegant than faithful. Polydore continued in England during the whole reign of Henry VIII. and part of that of Edward VI. In 1550, he requested leave to revisit his native country. He was accordingly dismissed with a present of 300 crowns, and the privilege of holding his preferments to the end of his life. He died at Urbino in the year 1555. He wrote, also, 1. *De rerum inventioribus*; of which an English translation was published by Langley in 1663. 2. *De prodigiis et fortibus*. 3. *Episcoporum Anglie catalogus*. Manuscript. 4. *De vita perfecta*. Basil, 1546, 1553, 8vo. 5. *Epistola erudite*; and some other works.

(3.) VIRGIL, a military township of New York, in Onondago county.

VIRGILIAN HUSBANDRY, a term used by authors to express that sort of husbandry, the precepts of which are so beautifully delivered in Virgil's Georgics. The husbandry in England is Virgilian in general. In those parts of England along the southern coast, where the Romans principally inhabited, not only the practice, but the expressions, are in many respects the same with those of the ancient Romans, many of the terms used by the ploughmen being of Latin origin, and the same with those used by those people on the like occasions. And on a strict observation, more of Virgil's husbandry is at this time practised in England than in Italy itself. This change in the Italian husbandry is, however, much more to the credit of that people, than the retaining the Virgilian scheme is to ours.

(1.) * VIRGIN. *adj.* Besitting a virgin; suitable to a virgin; maidenly.—The *virgin* crimson of modesty. *Shak.*—What says the silver with her *virgin* hue? *Shak.*—The formal decencies of *virgin* shame. *Cowley.*—A *virgin* state of life. *Law.*

(2.) * VIRGIN. *n. f.* [*virge*, Fr. *virgo*, Latin.] 1. A maid; a woman unacquainted with men.—The best regarded *virgins* of our clime. *Shak.*—So *virgin*-like without. *Shak.*—The damsel was very fair, and a *virgin*. *Gen.*—An hypocrite, a *virgin* violator. *Shak.*—At which a *virgin* hides her face. *Cowley.* 2. A woman not a mother. Unusual.—

Likest to Ceres in her prime,
Yet *virgin* of Proserpina from Jove. *Milton.*
3. Any thing untouched or unmingled; any thing pure; as, *virgin* honey.—*Virgin* wax. *Boyle.*—*Virgin* earth. *Woodw.*—*Virgin* mould. *Derh.* 4. The sign of the zodiac in which the sun is in August.—Thence down again by Leo and the *Virgin*. *Milt.*

(3.) VIRGIN GORDA, one of the principal of the Virgin islands (N^o 4.) 12 miles E. of Tortula, about 18 miles in length.

(4.) VIRGIN ISLANDS, a group of small islands

in the W. Indies, E. of Porto Rico, in Long. 63. o. W. Lat. 18. 10. N.

(5.) VIRGIN MARY, CAPE OF, the NE. point of the entrance of the straits of Magellan. Long. 67. 54. W. Lat. 52. 32. S.

* To VIRGIN. *v. n.* [a cant word.] To play the virgin.—

A kiss

I carried from thee, my dear; and my true lip
Hath *virgin'd* it e'er since. *Shak.*

(1.) * VIRGINAL. *adj.* [from *virgin*.] Maidenly; pertaining to a virgin.—Of chastity and honour *virginal* Spens.

Tears *virginal*

Shall be to me even as the dew to fire. *Shak.*
—Conjugal or *virginal* chastity. *Hammond.*

(2.) * VIRGINAL. *n. f.* [more usually *virginals*.] A musical instrument, so called because commonly used by young ladies.—Harps and *virginals*. *Bacon.*

* To VIRGINAL. *v. n.* To pat; to strike as on the virginal. A cant word.—Still *virginalling* upon thy palm. *Shak.*

(1.) VIRGINIA. Her tragical story is recorded under ROME, § 20.

(2.) VIRGINIA, one of the United States of North America, is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by Pennsylvania and the river Ohio, on the west by the Mississippi, on the south by North Carolina. These boundaries include an area somewhat triangular of 121,525 miles, whereof 79,650 lie westward of the Alleghany mountains, and 57,034 westward of the meridian of the mouth of the Great Kanaway. The principle rivers in Virginia are, Roanoke, James river, which receives the Rivanna, Appamattox, Chickahominy, Nansemond, and Elizabeth rivers; York river, which is formed by the junction of Pamunky and Mettaponny rivers; Rappahannock, and Patomak. By the census taken in 1790, the population was 747,610, of whom 292,627 were slaves. The college of William and Mary is the only public seminary in Virginia. The buildings are of brick, sufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps 100 students. There are a number of flourishing academies in Virginia; one in Prince Edward county, one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in other places. The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are Presbyterians, who are the most numerous, and inhabit the western parts of the state; and Episcopalian, who are the most ancient settlers, and occupy the eastern and first settled parts of the state. Intermingled with these are great numbers of Baptists and Methodists. Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished men that have been active in effecting the important revolutions in America. The Virginians who are rich, are in general sensible, polite, and hospitable, and of an independent spirit. The poor are ignorant and abject; all are of an inquisitive turn, and in many other respects very much resemble the people in the eastern states. At almost every tavern or ordinary on the public road, there is a billiard table, a backgammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. The passion for cock-fighting is very great. The executive powers

owers are lodged in the hands of a governor chosen annually, and incapable of acting more than 3 years in 7. He is assisted by a council of 6 members. The judiciary powers are divided among several courts. Legislation is exercised by two houses of assembly, the one called the *House of Delegates*, composed of two members from each county, chosen annually by the citizens possessing an estate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or 25 acres with a house on it, or in a house or lot in some town. The other called the *Senate*, consisting of 24 members, chosen quadrennially by the same electors, who for this purpose are distributed into 24 districts. The concurrence of both houses is necessary to the passage of a law. They have the appointment of the governor and council, the judges of the superior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treasurer, register of the land office, and delegates to Congress. Before the last war, there was exported from this state, *communibus annis*, nearly as follows:

Articles.	Quantity.
Tobacco, . . .	55,000 hhds. of 1000 lb.
Wheat, . . .	800,000 bushels
Indian Corn, . . .	600,000 bushels
Shipping, . . .	
Masts, planks, skantling, shingles, staves, . . .	
Tar, pitch, turpentine, . . .	30,000 barrels
Peltry, viz. skins of deer, beavers, otters, muskrats, racoons, foxes, . . .	180 hhds. of 600 lb.
Pork, . . .	4,000 barrels
Flax seed, hemp, cotton, . . .	
Pit-coal, pig-iron, . . .	
Pease, . . .	5,000 bushels
Beef, . . .	1,000 barrels
Sturgeon, white fish, herring, . . .	
Brandy from peaches and apples, whisky, . . .	
Horses, . . .	

The amount of the above articles is 850,000l. Virginia money, or 607,142 guineas.

The whole country, before it was planted, was one continued forest, interspersed with marshes, which in the West Indies they call *savamps*. No country now produces greater quantities of excellent tobacco; and the soil is generally so sandy and shallow, that after they have cleared a fresh piece of ground out of the woods it will not bear tobacco after two or three years, unless cow-penosed and well dunged. Caves have been discovered among the mountains, which yield so much saltpetre, that 500,000 pounds might be collected annually. The forests yield oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypresses, sweet myrtles, chestnuts, hickory, live oak, walnut, dog-wood, alder, hazel, chinquapins, locust-trees, sassafras, elm, ash, beech, with a great variety of sweet gums and incense, which distil from several trees; pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, plank-timber, masts, and yards. Virginia yields also rice, hemp, Indian corn, plenty of pasture, with coal, quarries of stone, and lead and iron ore.

(3.) VIRGINIA, a town of Ireland, in Cavan, Ulster, on Lough Ramor, 40 miles from Dublin.

(1.) * VIRGINITY. *n. f.* [*virginitas*, Latin.] Maidenhead; unacquaintance with man.—The rich worth of your virginity. *Shak.*—Natural virginity of itself is not a state more acceptable to God. *Taylor.*

(2.) VIRGINITY, the test or criterion of a virgin; or that which entitles her to the denomination. See HYMEN.

VIRINSTOW, a village in Devonshire, SE. of Lustenecote.

VIRGO, in astronomy, one of the signs or constellations of the zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

VIRGULA DIVINATORIA, divining rod. See MINE, § 5.

VIRIATHUS, a shepherd of Lusitania, who from heading a gang of robbers, came to command a powerful army. He made war against the Romans for 14 years with success. Many generals, and Pompey himself, were beaten. Cæpio being sent against him, meanly bribed his servants to murder him.

VIRIDOMARUS, a young man of great power among the Ædui. Cæsar greatly honoured him, but he fought at last against the Romans.

* VIRILE. *adj.* [*virilis*, Lat.] Belonging to man; not puerile; not feminine.

* VIRILITY. *n. f.* [*virilité*, Fr. *virilitas*, Lat. from *virile*.] 1. Manhood; character of man.—The lady made generous advances to the borders of virility. *Rambler.* 2. Power of procreation.—Before they begat children, or gave any testimony of their virility. *Brown.*

VIRIPLACA, a goddess among the Romans, who presided over the peace of families.

* VIRMILION. *n. f.* Properly *vermilion*. A red colour.—With a vermilion dye his temples stain'd. *Roscommon.*

VIRTON, a town of France, in the dep. of Forre, 22 miles W. of Luxemburg. Lon. 5. 41. E. Lat 49. 36. N.

(1.) * VIRTUAL. *adj.* [*virtual*, Fr. from *virtue*.] Having the efficacy without the sensible or material part.—Metalline waters have virtual cold in them. *Bacon.*—Heat and cold have a virtual transition, without communication of substance. *Bacon.*

Do they mix

Irradiance? *virtual*, or immediate touch? *Milt.*—Fomented by his virtual pow'r, and warm'd. *Milton.*—Neither an actual or virtual intention of the mind. *Stillingfleet.*

(2.) VIRTUAL, or POTENTIAL; something that has a power or virtue of acting or doing. The term is chiefly understood of something that acts by a secret invisi ble cause, in opposition to actual and sensible.

* VIRTUALITY. *n. f.* [from *virtual*.] Efficacy.—In one grain of corn there lieth dormant a virtuality of many others. *Brown.*

* VIRTUALLY. *adv.* [from *virtual*.] In effect, though not materially.—They are virtually contained in other words still continued. *Hamm.*—The bulk of the people virtually gave their approbation. *Addison.*

* To VIRTUATE. *v. a.* [from *virtue*.] To make efficacious. Not used.—Potable gold should be

K k k k 2

be *virtuated* with a power of generating the essentials. *Harvey*.

(1.) * **VIRTUE**. *n. f.* [*virtus*, Latin.] 1. Moral goodness; opposed to *vice*.—Either I'm mistaken, or there is *virtue* in that Falstaff. *Shak.*—God must delight in *virtue*. *Addison*.—*Virtue* only makes our bliss below. *Pope*.—Through the veil of his vices we see a dawn of greatness and *virtue*. *Shak.* 2. A particular moral excellence.—In Belmont is a lady—Of wondrous *virtues*. *Shak.*—Remember all his *virtues*. *Addison*. 3. Medicinal quality.—All your unpublisch'd *virtues* of the earth. *Shak.*—The *virtuous* bezoar is taken from the beast that feedeth upon the mountains; and that without *virtue* from those that feed in the vallies. *Bacon*. 4. Medicinal efficacy.—An essay writer must practise the chymical method, and give the *virtue* of a full draught in a few drops. *Addison*. 5. Efficacy; power. Before *virtue* is used sometimes by and sometimes in; by in *virtue* is meant in consequence of the *virtue*.—There's a *virtue* in stones. *L'Estrange*.—Where there is a full purpose to please God, there, what a man can do, shall, by *virtue* thereof, be accepted. *South*.—By *virtue* of syllogism. *Locke*.—I his they shall attain, in *virtue* of piety. *Asterbury*.—He used to travel through Greece, by *virtue* of this fable. *Addison*. 6. Acting power.—Jesus knowing that *virtue* had gone out of him. *Mark*. 7. Secret agency; efficacy, without visible or material action.—Yet no part toucheth, but by *virtue's* touch. *Davies*. 8. Bravery; valour.—Trust to thy single *virtue*;—Discharge. *Shak.*—The conquest of Palestine, with singular *virtue* they performed. *Raleigh*. 9. Excellence; that which gives excellence.—Terence is thought the sole grace and *virtue* of the fable, the sticking in of sentences, as our poets do the forcing in of jests. *B. Jon.* 10. One of the orders of the celestial hierarchy.—Thrones, dominations, principdoms, *virtues*, pow'rs. *Milton*.—A winged *virtue* through th' etherial sky. *Tickel*.

(2.) **VIRTUE**, in ethics, a term used in various significations. In the general it denotes power, or the perfection of any thing, whether natural or supernatural, animate or inanimate, essential or accessory. But, in its more proper or restrained sense, *virtue* signifies a habit, which improves and perfects the possessor and his actions. See **MORAL PHILOSOPHY**.

* **VIRTUELESS**. *adj.* [from *virtue*.] 1. Wanting virtue; deprived of virtue. 2. Not having efficacy; without operating qualities.—Altogether silent, *virtueless*, and dead. *Raleigh*.—*Virtueless* the wisht all herbs and charms. *Fairfax*.—Some would make those glorious creatures *virtueless*. *Hakeworth*.

* **VIRTUOSO**. *n. f.* [Italian.] A man skilled in antique or natural curiosities; a man studious of painting, statuary, or architecture.—Methinks those generous *virtuosos* dwell in a higher region than other mortals. *Glanv.*—*Virtuosos*, the Italians call a man who loves the noble arts, and is a critic in them. And amongst our French painters, the word *vertueux* is understood in the same signification. *Dryden*.—The *virtuoso* of that time. *Tatler*.—The *virtuoso* of France. *Addison*.

* **VIRTUOUS**. *adj.* [from *virtue*.] 1. Morally

good; applied to persons and practices.—If his occasion were not *virtuous*. *Shak.*—*Virtuous* and holy, be thou conqueror. *Shak.*—Is wisest, *virtuouslest*, discreetest, best. *Milton*.—One *virtuous* rarely found. *Milton*.—For God's service, and all *virtuous* ends. *Kettlew.* 2. [Applied to women.] Chaste.—The modest wife, the *virtuous* creature. *Shak.* 3. Done in consequence of moral goodness. Love oft to *virtuous* acts inflames the mind. *Dryd.*—Consider how powerfully you are called to a *virtuous* life. *Lacu.* 4. Efficacious; powerful.—Wolves, with her *virtuous* drugs, so tame she made. *Chapm.*—With one *virtuous* touch, th' arch-chemic fun. *Milt.* 5. Having wonderful or eminent properties.—That *virtuous* steel he rudely snatch'd away. *Spens.*—Lifting up his *virtuous* staff on high. *Spens.*—He own'd that *virtuous* ring and glass. *Milton*. 6. Having medicinal qualities.—There is a *virtuous* bezoar, and another without virtue. *Bacon*.—*Virtuous* herbs. *Dryd*.

* **VIRTUOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *virtuous*.] In a virtuous manner; according to the rules of virtue.—The gods are my witnesses, I desire to do *virtuously*. *Sidney*.—They taught no less *virtuously* how to die. *Hooker*.—They that mean *virtuously*. *Shak.*—But our past life, when *virtuously* spent. *Darb.*—She has been *virtuously* educated. *Add.*

* **VIRTUOUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *virtuous*.] The state or character of being virtuous.—The love of Britomart, and *virtuousness* of Belphebe. *Spens.*

VIRTZ, a lake of Russia, in Riga, 40 miles round; 96 miles NNE. of Riga.

VIUELA, a town of Spain, in Aragon, 9 miles from Tarragona.

* **VIRULENCE**. *n. f.* [from *virulent*.] Men-

* **VIRULENCY**. *n. f.* [from *virulent*.] Malignancy of temper; bitterness.—*Virulency* and bitterness. *Decay of Piety*.—Unworthy malice and impotent *virulency*. *Fell.*—*Virulence*, instead of charity. *Add.*—Intemperance of speech, and *virulence* of pen. *Swift*.

(1.) * **VIRULENT**. *adj.* [*virulent*, Fr. *virulentus*, Latin.] 1. Poisonous; venomous. 2. Poisoned in the mind; bitter; malignant.

(2.) **VIRULENT**, a term applied to any thing that yields a virus; that is, a contagious or malignant pus.

* **VIRULENTLY**. *adv.* [from *virulent*.] Malignantly; with bitterness.

(1.) **VIS**, [Lat.] *n. f.* strength or force.

(2.) **VIS INERTIAE**. See **MECHANICS**, Part III. Sect. II.

(3.) **VIS MEDICATRIX NATURÆ**. See **MEDICINE**, Index.

VISAGAPATAM, a town of Hindoostan, in Cicacole, 50 miles W. of Cicacole, and 100 NE. of Rajamundy.

* **VISAGE**. *n. f.* [*visage*, Fr. *visagio*, Italian.] Face; countenance; look. It is now rarely used but with some ideas of dislike or horror.—Phebe's—Silver *visage*. *Shak.*—She'll flea thy wolfish *visage*. *Shak.*—The *visage* of offence. *Shak.*—With *visage* all inflam'd. *Milton*.—His goary *visage* down. *Milton*.—Love and beauty still that *visage* grace. *Waller*.

VISCERA, in anatomy, a term signifying the same with entrails; including the heart, liver, lungs,

lungs, spleen, intestines, and other inward parts of the body. See *ANATOMY INDEX*.

* *TO VISCERATE*. *v. a.* [*viscera*, Latin.] To embowel; to exentrate.

* *VISCAMUND*. See *FISCHAMUND*.

* *VISCID*. *adj.* [*viscidus*, Latin.] Glutinous; tenacious.

(1.) * *VISCIDITY*. *n. s.* [from *viscid*.] 1. Glutinousness; tenacity; ropiness.—This motion in some human creatures may be weak, in respect to the *viscid*ity of what is taken, so as not be able to propel it. *Arbuthnot*. 2. Glutinous concretion.—Catharticks of mercurials precipitate the *viscidities* by their stypticity. *Floyer*.

(2.) *VISCIDITY*, or } the quality of something
(1.) *VISCOSITY*, } that is vitcid or viscous;
that is, glutinous and sticky, like birdlime, which the Latins call by the name of *viscus*.

(2.) * *VISCOSITY*. *n. s.* [*viscosus*, Fr. from *viscosus*.] 1. Glutinousness; tenacity.—The air being mixed with the animal fluids, determines their condition as to rarity, density, *viscosity*, tenacity. *Arbuthnot*. 2. A glutinous substance.—Semenal *viscosities*. *Brown*.

(1.) * *VISCOUNT*. *n. s.* [*vicecomes*, Lat.] *Viscount* signifies as much as sheriff; between which two words there is no other difference, but that the one comes from our conquerors the Normans, and the other from our ancestors the Saxons. *Viscount* also signifies a degree of nobility next to an earl, which is an old name of office, but a new one of dignity, never heard of amongst us, till Henry VI. his days. *Cowel*.

(2.) *VISCOUNT* [*Vice Comes*], was anciently an officer under an earl, to whom, during his attendance at court, he acted as deputy to look after the affairs of the county. Now a viscount is created by patent as an earl is; his title is *Right Honourable*; his mantle is two doublings and a half of plain fur; and his coronet has only a row of pearls close to the circle.

* *VISCOUNTESS*. *n. s.* [from *viscount*. *Viscount* and *viscountess* are pronounced *vicount* and *vicountess*.] The lady of a viscount; a peeress of the fourth order.

* *VISCOUS*. *adj.* [*viscous*, Fr. *viscosus*, Lat.] Glutinous; sticky; tenacious.—Nitre severeth and divideth any thing that is foul and *viscous*. *Bacon*.—Holly is of so *viscous* a juice as they make bird-lime of the bark. *Bacon*.

VISCUM, in botany, a genus of plants of the class *diacia*, order *tetrandria*, and in the natural system arranged under the 48th order, *aggrigate*. The male calyx is quadripartite; the anther adheres to the calyx: the female calyx consists of four leaves; there is no style; the stigma is obtuse. There is no corolla; the fruit is a berry with one seed. There are 9 species; only one of which is a native of Britain, viz.

VISCUM ALBUM, or common MISSELTOW. It is a shrub growing on the bark of several trees, particularly the oak; the leaves are confugate and elliptical, the stem forked; the flowers whitish in the axils of the leaves. This plant was reckoned sacred among the druids. See *DRUIDS*, § 12.

VISET, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte; and late bishopric of Liege; 6 miles S. of Maestricht, and 8 N. of Liege.

WISEU, a town of Portugal, in Beira; 27 miles S. of Lamega, and 42 NE. of Coimbra.

VISHNOU, that person in the triad of the Bramins who is considered as the preserver of the universe. *Brahma* is the creator and *Siva* the destroyer; and these two, with Vishnou, united in some inexplicable manner, constitute *Brahme*, or the supreme god of the Hindoos. See *DELUGE*, § 6. *POLYTHEISM*, *MYTHOLOGY*, § 20.

VISAPOOR, a town of Hindoostan, capital of a prov. so named; 306 miles N. of Seringapatam.

* *VISIBILITY*. *n. f.* [*visibilité*, Fr. from *visible*.] 1. The state or quality of being perceptible by the eye.—The colours of outward objects brought into a darkened room, do much depend for their *visibility* upon the dimness of the light they are beheld by. *Boyle*. 2. State of being apparent, or openly discoverable; conspicuousness.—The perpetual *visibility* of the church. *Stillingfleet*.—The *visibility* and example of our virtues. *Rogers*.

(1.) * *VISIBLE*. *adj.* [*visible*, Fr. *visibilis*, Lat.] 1. Perceptible by the eye—

On this mount he appeared; under this tree stood *visible*. *Milton*.

—Each'thought was *visible*. *Dryden*.—The least spot is *visible* on ermine. *Dryd*.—Virtue made *visible* in outward grace. *Young*. 2. Discovered to the eye.—*Visible* spirits. *Shak*. 3. Apparent; open; conspicuous.—The factions at court were greater, or more *visible* than before. *Clarendon*.

(2.) * *VISIBLE*. *n. f.* Perceptibility by the eye.—*Visibles* work upon a looking-glass, and audibles upon the places of echo. *Bacon*.

* *VISIBleness*. *n. f.* [from *visible*.] State or quality of being visible.

* *VISIBLY*. *adv.* [from *visible*.] In a manner perceptible by the eye.—The day being *visibly* governed by the sun. *Holder*.—By the head we make known more *visibly* our supplications. *Dryd*.

VISIER, an officer or dignitary in the Ottoman empire, whereof there are two kinds; one called by the Turks *Vizier-azem*, that is, "grand visier," is the prime minister of state in the whole empire. He commands the army in chief, and presides in the divan or great council. Next to him are six other subordinate visiers, called *visiers of the bench*; who officiate as his counsellors or assessors in the divan.

VISIGNANO, a town in Istria; 21 miles N. of Rovignano.

VISIGOTHS, or *WESTERN GOTHS*. See *GOTHS*, ITALY, § 6; and SPAIN, § 11.

VISINA, a town in Istria; 42 miles SE. of Umago.

(1.) * *VISION*. *n. f.* [*vision*, Fr. *visio*, Lat.] 1. Sight; the faculty of seeing.—Anatomists, when they have taken off the dura mater, can then see, through the thinner coats, the pictures of objects lively painted thereon; and these pictures, propagated by motion along the fibres of the optic nerves into the brain, are the cause of *vision*. *Newton*.—The perfection of *vision*. *Newton*. 2. The act of seeing.—*Vision* in the next life is the perfecting of faith in this. *Hammond*. 3. A supernatural appearance; a spectre; a phantom.—No dreams, but *visions* strange. *Sidney*.—Last night the very gods shew'd me a *vision*. *Shak*.—
And

And, in a *vision*, full of majesty. *Shak.*—To call by *vision*, from his father's house. *Milton.* 4. A dream; something shewn in a dream. "A dream happens to a sleeping; a vision may happen to a waking man. A dream is supposed natural, a vision miraculous; but they are confounded.—'Twas but a *vision* still, and *visions* are but vain. *Dryden*—The *visions* of a dream. *Locke.*

(2.) *VISION*, in optics, the act of seeing or perceiving external objects by means of the organ of sight, the eye. See *ANATOMY, Index*; and *METAPHYSICS.*

(3.) *VISION.* From various experiments Mr Home considers the following facts to have been ascertained respecting vision: "1. That the eye has a power of adjusting itself to different distances when deprived of the crystalline lens; and therefore the fibrous and laminated structure of that lens is not intended to alter its form, but to prevent reflections in the passage of the rays through the surfaces of media of different densities, and to correct spherical aberration." 2. That the cornea is made up of laminae; that it is elastic, and when stretched is capable of being elongated one 11th part of its diameter, contracting to its former length immediately upon being left to itself. 3. That the tendons of the four straight muscles of the eye are continued to the edge of the cornea, and terminate, or are inserted, in its external laminae: their action will therefore extend to the edge of the cornea. 4. That in changing the focus of the eye from seeing with parallel rays to a near distance, there is a visible alteration produced in the figure of the cornea, rendering it more convex; and when the eye is again adapted to parallel rays, the alteration by which the cornea is brought back to its former state is equally visible."

(1.) * *VISIONARY.* *adj.* [*visionnaire*, Fr. from *vision*.] 1. Affected by phantoms; disposed to receive impressions on the imagination.—Or lull to rest the *visionary* maid. *Pope.* 2. Imaginary; not real; seen in a dream; perceived by the imagination only.—The hunter close pursu'd the *visionary* maid. *Dryd.*—Let me know whether I have the same place in the real heart, that I had in the *visionary* one. *Addison.*—Further *visionary* prospects. *Swift.*

(2.) * *VISIONARY.* } *n. f.* [*visionnaire*, Fr.] One whose imagination is disturbed.—This account exceeded all the Noctambuli or *visionaries* I have met with. *Turner.*—The lovely *visionary* gave him perpetual uneasiness. *Female Quixotte.*

* *VISIT.* *n. f.* [*visite*, Fr. from the verb.] The act of going to see another. A designed or accidental *visit*. *Watts.*—If this woman would make fewer *visits*. *Law.*

(1.) * *To VISIT.* *v. a.* [*visiter*, Fr. *visito*, Lat.] 1. To go to see.—You must go *visit* the lady that lies in. *Shak.*—Virgins *visited* by angel powers. *Pope.* 2. [In scriptural language.] To send good or evil judicially.—When God *visiteth*, what shall I answer him? *Job.*—Thou shalt be *visited* of the Lord with thunder. *Isa.*—God *visit* thee in good things. *Judith.*—Whenever God shall *visit* us with so fatal an event. *Swift.* 3. To salute with a pre-

sent.—Samson *visited* his wife with a kid. *Judges.* 4. To come to a survey, with judicial authority.—The bishop ought to *visit* his diocese every year in person. *Ayliffe.*

(1.) * *VISIT.* *v. n.* To keep up the intercourse of ceremonial salutations at the houses of each other.—*Visiting* on Sundays. *Law.*

* *VISITABLE.* *adj.* [from *visit*.] Liable to be visited.—All hospitals are *visitabile* by the king or lord chancellor. *Ayliffe.*

* *VISITANT.* *n. f.* [from *visit*.] One who goes to see another.—While the great *visitant* approach'd. *Miln.*—When the *visitant* comes again, he is no more a stranger. *South.*—Had been a *visitant* in Spain. *Arbut.*—Grieved that a *visitant* so long should wait. *Pope.*—Drusa receives her *visitants* in bed. *Young.*

* *VISITATION.* *n. s.* [*visito*, Lat.] 1. The act of visiting.—'Tis not a *visitation* fram'd, but forc'd. *Shak.*—Nothing but peace and gentle *visitation*. *Shak.* 2. Object of visits.

O flow'rs,
My early *visitation*, and my last. *Milton.*
3. [*Visitation*, Fr.] Judicial visit or perambulation.—Your grace, in your metropolitical *visitation*. *White.*—The arch-deacon's *visitation*. *Ayliffe.* 4. Judicial evil sent by God; state of suffering judicial evil.—That which thou dost not understand when thou readest, thou shalt understand in the day of thy *visitation*. *Taylor.* 5. Communication of divine love.—The most comfortable *visitations* God hath sent men from above. *Hooker.*

* *VISITATORIAL.* *adj.* [from *visitor*.] Belonging to a judicial visitor.—Some will have it, that an archdeacon does of common right execute this *visitatorial* power in his archdeaconry. *Ayliffe.*

* *VISITER.* *n. s.* [from *visit*.] 1. One who comes to see another.—The access of gentle *visitors*. *Shak.*—You see this confluence, this great flood of *visitors*. *Shak.*—They entertain their *visitors* with strange rambling discourses. *Harvey.*—I should hardly prevail to find one *visitor*. *Swift.* 2. [*Visiteur*, Fr.] An occasional judge; one who regulates the disorders of any society.—The *visitors* expell'd the orthodox. *Walton.*—Your charter claims him as your *visitor*. *Garth.*—Whatever abuses have crept into the universities, might be reformed by strict injunctions to the *visitors* and heads of houses. *Swift.*

VISITZ, a town of Austria, 14 miles E. of Waidhofen.

* *VISIVE.* *adj.* [*visif*, Fr. *visus*, Lat.] Formed in the act of seeing.—This happens when the axis of the *visive* cones, diffused from the object, fall not upon the same plane; but that which is conveyed into one eye is more depressed or elevated than that which enters the other. *Brown.*

VISNEA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the class of *Dodecandria*, and order of *Trigynia*.

VISNITZA, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 30 miles N. of Suzava.

* *VISNOMY.* *n. s.* [corrupted from *physiognomy*.] Face; countenance. Not in use.—

Each of the gods by his like *visnomy*
Eath to be known, but Jove above them all.

VISO, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 25 miles ESE. of Ciudad Real.

(1.) *VISON.*

(1.) **VISON**, a town of the French empire in the p. of Tanaro, and late duchy of Monterrat.

(2.) **VISON**, in zoology. See **MUSTELA**, N° 5.

* **VISOR**. *n. f.* [This word is variously written, *visard, visar, visor, vizard, vizor*. I prefer *visor*, as nearest the Latin *visus*, and concurring with *visage*, a kindred word; *visere*, Fr.] A mask used to disfigure and disguise. See **VIZARD**.—My weaker government since, makes you pull off the *visor*. *Sidney*.—You never saw so ill favoured a *visor*. *Sidney*.—By which deceit doth mask in *visor* fair. *Spenser*.—But that thy face is, *visor*-like, nchanging. *Shak*.—One *visor* remains. *Shak*.—The Cyclops might, perhaps, in their wars use a head-piece, or *visor*. *Broom*.—Swarms of knives he *visor* quite disface. *Young*.

* **VISOURED**. *adj.* [from *visor*.] Masked.—With *visor*'d falsehood and base forgery? *Milt*.

(1.) **UIST**, NORTH, one of the WESTERN ISLANDS of SCOTLAND, in Inverness-shire, between HARRIS on the N. and BENBECULA on the S.; from which last it is separated by a narrow channel, which is dry at low water. It is of a very irregular form; of about 20 miles long, and from 12 to 18 miles broad. That part of the coast which is washed by the Atlantic is inaccessible, except in very calm weather. On the E. coast, however, it has several safe harbours. On the E. coast the ground is hilly and barren. The W. and N. parts are low and level. The cultivated parts are pleasant and fertile. The lakes abound with trout, and are frequented by flocks of wild fowls. About 2000 black cattle and 1000 small horses are pastured on the hills. About 1200 tons of kelp are made annually. The island belongs to Lord M'Donald. The population, in 1793, of this island and parish, including those of ORINSAY, BORRERAY, VALLAY, GRAMSAY, and ILERAY, &c. was 3,218; the increase 1309 since 1755.

(2.) **UIST**, SOUTH, another of the HEBRIDES, in Inverness-shire, lies between BARRAY on the S. and BENBECULA, on the N; 32 miles long, and from 9 to 10 broad. The surface and soil are similar to those of N. Uist. The number of sheep is 7000, of horses 800, and of black cattle 500: 1100 tons of kelp are made. The population of this island, and parish, with those of ROWA, ERISKAY, and BENBECULA, in 1793, notwithstanding great emigrations, was 3,450; the increase 1241 since 1755. These islands belong to M'Donald of Clanranald and M'Donald of Boisdale.

* **VISTA**. *n. f.* [Ital.] View; prospect through an avenue.—The spacious hollow of the cupola, makes one of the beautifullest *vistas* that the eye can pass through. *Addis*.—Its *vistas* opens, and its alleys green. *Thomson*.

VISTULA, or **WISLA**, a large river of Poland, which taking its rise in the mountains S. of Silesia, visits Cracow, Warsaw, &c. and continuing its course northward, falls into the Baltic sea below Dantzic.

* **VISUAL**. *adj.* [*visuel*, Fr.] Used in sight; exercising the power of sight; instrumental to sight.—An eye thrust forth so as it hangs a pretty distance by the *visual* nerve, hath been without any power of sight; and yet, after being replaced, recovered sight. *Bacon*.—

Nor think my hurt offends me; for my fire Can soon repose in it the *visual* fire. *Chapman*.
Sharpen'd his *visual* ray. *Milton*.

Then purg'd with euphrasy and rue
The *visual* nerve. *Milton*.

VISZOLA, a town of Hungary, 12 miles N. of Bolefkó.

(1.) * **VITAL**. *adj.* [*vitalis*, Latin.] 1. Contributing to life; necessary to life.—'Tis *vital* spirits. *Sidney*.—The sun's mild lustre warms the *vital* air. *Pope*. 2. Relating to life.—

Let not Birdolph's *vital* thread be cut. *Shak*.
On the rock a scanty measure place

Of *vital* Bax, and turn the wheel a pace. *Dryd*.

3. Containing life.—*Vital* in every part. *Milt*.—

And *vital* virtue infus'd and *vital* warmth. *Milt*.

4. Being the seat of life.—The dart flew on, and pierc'd a *vital* part. *Pope*. 5. So disposed as to live. Little used, and rather Latin than English.

—Pythagoras and Hippocrates affirm the birth of the 7th month to be *vital*. *Brown*. 6. Essential; chiefly necessary.—Grief's *vital* part. *Bp. Corbet*.

(2.) **VITAL**, in physiology, an appellation given to whatever ministers principally to the constituting or maintaining life in the bodies of animals; thus the heart, lungs, and brain, are called *vital parts*; and the operations of these parts by which the life of animals is maintained are called *vital functions*.

VITALIANO, Donati, naturalist, was born in Padua, 1717, wrote *Saggio della storia naturale dell' Adriatico*, in 1750. His Sardinian majesty appointed him professor of botany and natural history at Turin. He sent him to visit Egypt, Syria, Palestine, Arabia, and the East Indies, to make observations and to collect the rarest productions of nature. The greatest part of this journey he performed, but died at Bassora, in 1763. He left in MS. two volumes in folio.

(1.) * **VITALITY**. *n. f.* [from *vital*.] Power of subsisting in life.—Motion, *vitality*, and operation. *Raleigh*.—Providence hath endued all seed with a lasting *vitality*. *Ray*.

(2.) **VITALITY OF THE BLOOD**. See **BLOOD**, § 12. and 13.

* **VITALLY**. *adv.* [from *vital*.] In such a manner as to give life.—The organical structure of human bodies, whereby they are fitted to live and move, and be *vitally* informed by the soul. *Bent*.

* **VITALS**. *n. f.* [Without the singular.] Parts essential to life.—

The silent, slow, consuming fires,

Which on my inmost *vitals* prey. *Philips*.

VITCHEGDA, a river of Russia, rising in Utiug, and running into the Dwina.

(1.) **VITEGRA**, a river of Russia, running into Lake Onegskoi, near Vitagra.

(2.) **VITEGRA**, a town of Russia, in Olonetskoi; at the S. end of lake Opezkoi, 88 miles E. of Olonetz.

* **VITELLARY**. *n. f.* [from *vitellus*, Lat.] The place where the yolk of the egg swims in the white.—The *vitellary* or place of the yolk is very high. *Brown*.

VITELLUS, emperor of Rome. See **ROME**, § 49.

VITELLUS, the yolk of an egg. See **EGG**.

VITEPSK, a town of Russia, in Polotskoi, on the Duna, taken from Poland, in 1654; 56 miles ESE. of Polotsk.

VITERBO, a town of Italy, in Patrimonio, 20 miles SE. of Orvieto, and 34 NNW. of Rome. It has 15,000 inhabitants, 16 churches, many palaces, and a very hot spring. Lon. 12. 26. E. Lat. 42. 15. N.

VITETZ, a town of Bosnia, 14 m. S. of Serajo.

VITEX, in botany, the *AGNUS CASTUS*, or **CHASTE TREE**, a genus of plants in the class of *Didymia*, and order of *Angiospermia*; ranking by the natural system in the 39th order, *Personate*.

* To **VITIATE**. *v. a.* [*vitio*, Lat.] To deprive; to spoil; to make less pure.—Before she was *vitiated* by luxury. *Bael. Kale*.—Speeches are often somewhat *vitiated*. *Holder*.—*Vitiated* humours. *Harvey*.—This will *vitiate* the taste of the readers. *Garth*.—A transposition of the order of the sacramental words, in some men's opinion, *vitiate*s baptism. *Ayliffe*.

* **VITIATION**. *n. f.* [from *vitiate*.] Deprivation; corruption.—The blood's *vitiation*. *Harvey*.

VITIGES, king of the Ostrogoths; See **ITALY**, § 10, 11.

VITIGUDINO, a town of Spain, in Leon.

* To **VITILITIGATE**. *v. n.* [*vitiosus* and *litigo*, Latin.] To contend in law litigiously and caviliously.

* **VITILITIGATION**. *n. f.* [from *vitiligitate*.] Contention; cavillation.—To leave your *vitiligation*. *Hudibras*.

* **VITIORITY**. *n. f.* [from *vitiosus*, Lat.] Depravity; corruption.—The corruption, perverseness, and *vitiosity* of man's will. *South*.

* **VITIOUS**. *adj.* [*vitiosus*, Fr. *vitiosus*, Latin.] 1. Corrupt; wicked; opposite to virtuous. It is rather applied to habitual faults, than criminal actions. It is used of persons and practices.—It is no *vitious* blot, murder, or foulness. *Shak*.—His *vitious* race. *Milton*.—Wit's what the *vitious* fears, the virtuous shun. *Pope*.—The common soldiers have the *vitious* example of their leaders. *Swift*. 2. Corrupt; having physical ill qualities.—*Vitious* language. *B. Jonson*.—Here from the *vitious* air and sickly skies. *Dryden*.

* **VITIOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *vitious*.] Not virtuously; corruptly.

* **VITIOUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *vitious*.] Corruptness; state of being vitious.—When we in our *vitiousness* grow hard. *Shak*.—What makes a governor justly despised is *vitiousness* and ill morals. *South*.

VITIS, in botany; A genus of the class *pentandria*, order *monogynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 40th order, *Personate*. The petals cohere at the top, and are withered; the fruit is a berry with five seeds. There are 11 species, the most important of which is

VITIS VINIFERA, or common *vine*, which has naked, lobed, sinuated leaves. There are many varieties, (see **VINE**, N° 1.) all propagated either from layers or cuttings, the former of which is greatly practised in England, but the latter is much preferable. In choosing the cuttings, you should always take such shoots of the last year's growth as are strong and well ripened; these should be cut from the old vine, just below the place where they

were produced, taking a knot, or piece of two year's wood to each, which should be pith smooth; then you should cut off the upper of the shoots, so as to leave the cutting about sixteen inches long. When the cuttings are made if they are not then planted, they should be covered with their lower part in the ground, in a soil, laying some litter upon their upper part to prevent them from drying: in this situation they may remain till the beginning of April; when they should be taken out and washed from filth they have contracted; and if very dry, stand with their lower parts in the water 6 hours, which will distend their vessels, and dilate them for taking root. If the ground be strong inclined to wet, open a trench where the cuttings are to be planted, which should be filled with lime rubbish, the better to drain off the moisture then raise the borders with fresh light earth at two feet thick, so that it may be at least a foot above the level of the ground: then open the border at about six feet distance from each other, put one good strong cutting into each hole, which should be laid a little sloping, that their tops incline to the wall; but it must be put in so deep as that the uppermost eye may be level with the surface of the ground. Having placed the cuttings in the ground, fill up the hole gently, press down the earth close about it, and raise a little hill just upon the top of the cutting, to cover the upper eye quite over, which will prevent it from drying. Nothing more is necessary but to keep the ground clear from weeds until the cuttings begin to shoot; at which time look after them carefully, and rub off any small shoots, fastening the first main shoot to the wall; continue to look after these once in three weeks during the summer, constantly rubbing off lateral shoots which are produced. The Michaelmas following, if the cuttings have produced strong shoots, prune them down to two eyes. In the spring after the weather is past, gently dig up the borders to level the earth; but be very careful, in doing this, not to injure the roots; also raise the earth up to the stems of the plants, so as to cover the old wood but not so deep as to cover either of the eyes the last year's wood. After this they will require no farther care until they begin to shoot; then nip off all weak dangling shoots, leaving no more than the two produced from the two eyes of the last year's wood, which should be fastened to the wall. From this time till the vines have done shooting look them over once in three weeks or a month, rub off all lateral shoots as they are produced, fasten the main shoots to the wall as they are tended in length; about the middle or latter end of July, it will be proper to nip off the tops of these two shoots, which will strengthen their lower eyes. As soon as the leaves begin to drop in autumn, prune these young vines again, leaving the buds to each of the shoots, provided they are strong; otherwise it is better to shorten them down to two eyes if they are good; for it is a very wrong practice to leave much wood upon young vines, or to leave their shoots too long, which greatly weakens the roots; then fasten them to the wall spreading them out horizontal each way, that there may be room to train the new shoots the following

owing summer, and in the spring the borders must be dugged as before. The uses of the fruit of the vine for making wine, &c. are well known. The vine was introduced by the Romans into Britain, and appears formerly to have been very common. From the name of *vineyard* yet adhering to the ruinous sites of our castles and monasteries, there seem to have been few in the country but what had a vineyard belonging to them. The county of Gloucester is particularly mentioned by Malmibury in the 12th century, as excelling all the rest of the kingdom in the number and goodness of its vineyards. In the earlier periods the Isle of Ely was expressly denominated the *Isle of Vines* by the Normans. Vineyards are frequently noticed in the descriptive accounts of Doomsday Book; and those of England are even mentioned by Bede as early as the commencement of the 8th century. Doomsday Book exhibits a particular proof that wine was made in England during the period preceding the conquest. And after the conquest the bishop of Ely appears to have received at least 3 or 4 tuns of wine annually, as tythes, from the produce of the vineyards in his diocese; and to have made frequent reservations in his leases of a certain quantity of wine for rent. A plot of land in London, which now forms East-Smithfield and some adjoining streets, was withheld from the religious house within Aldgate by four successive confablers of the Tower, in the reigns of William II. Henry I. and Stephen, and made by them into a vineyard. In the old accounts of rectorial and vicarial revenues, and in the old registers of ecclesiastical suits concerning them, the tythe of wine is an article that frequently occurs in Kent, Surrey, and other counties. And the wines of Gloucestershire, within a century after the conquest, were little inferior to the French in sweetness. The beautiful region of Gaul, which had not a single vine in the days of Cæsar, had numbers so early as the time of Strabo. The south of it was particularly stocked with them; and they had even extended themselves into the interior parts of the country: But the grapes of the latter did not ripen kindly. France was famous for its vineyards in the reign of Vespasian, and even exported its wines into Italy. The province of Narbonne was then covered with vines; and the wine-merchants of the country were remarkable for all the knavish dexterity of our modern brewers, tinging it with smoke, colouring it (as it was suspected) with herbs and noxious dyes, and even adulterating the taste and appearance with aloes. And as our first vines would be transplanted from Gaul, so most probably were those of the Allobroges in Franche Compté. These were peculiarly fitted for cold countries. They ripened even in the frosts of advancing winter. And they were of the same colour, and seem to have been of the same species, as the black Muscadines of the present day, which have lately been tried in the island, and found to be fittest for the climate. These were certainly brought into Britain a little after vines had been carried over all the kingdoms of Gaul, and about the middle of the 3d century; when the numerous plantations had gradually spread over the face of the latter, and must naturally have continued their progress into the former. The Romans, even nearly to

the days of Lucullus, were very seldom able to regale themselves with wine. Very little was then raised in the compass of Italy. And the foreign wines were so dear, that they were rarely produced at an entertainment; and when they were, each guest was indulged only with a single draught. But in the 7th century of Rome, as their conquests augmented the degree of their wealth, and enlarged the sphere of their luxury, wines became the object of particular attention. Many vaults were constructed, and good stocks of liquor deposited in them. And this naturally gave encouragement to the wines of the country. The Falernian rose immediately into great repute; and a variety of others, that of Florence among the rest succeeded it about the close of the century. And the more westerly parts of the European continent were at once subjected to the arms, and enriched with the vines, of Italy.

VITOSCHA, a mountain of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, near Romania, with warm baths at its foot.

VITRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Ille and Vilaine, and ci-devant prov. of Bretagne. It has a great trade in linen cloth, stockings, gloves, &c. It is seated on the Vilaine, 20 miles NE. of Rennes, and 32 SE. of St Malo. Lon. 1. 13. W. Lat. 48. 14. N.

(1.) * VITREOUS. *adj.* [*vitre*, Fr. *vitreus*, Lat.] Glassy; consisting of glass.—The cavity containing the vitreous humour. *Ray*.—This viscid phlegm seems to be the vitreous pituite of the ancients. *Arbuth.*

(2.) VITREOUS-ELECTRICITY. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*.

(3.) VITREOUS HUMOUR OF THE EYE. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

(4.) VITREOUS SPAR. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.*
* VITREOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *vitreous*.] Resemblance of glass.

VITRIFIABLE EARTH. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

VITREY, a town of France, in the department of Upper Saône, 6 miles W. of Jussey, and 17 E. of Langres.

VITRI. See VITRY.

* VITRIFICABLE. *adj.* [from *vitricate*.] Convertible into glass.

* To VITRIFICATE. *v. a.* [*vitrum* and *facio*, Lat.] To change into glass.—We have metals vitrified, and other materials. *Bacon*.

(1.) * VITRIFICATION. *n. f.* [*vitrication*, Fr. from *vitricate*.] Production of glass; act of changing, or state of being changed into glass.—For vitrification likewise, what metals will endure it? *Bacon*.—The vitrification of brick and metals. *Bacon*.—Minerals and metals capable of vitrification. *Boyle*.

(2.) VITRIFICATION, in chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and GLASS; and GLASS-MAKING.

(1.) VITRIFIED, *part. adj.* turned into glass.

(2.) VITRIFIED PORTS, a very singular kind of structures found in the Highlands and N. parts of Scotland, which appear to have been melted into a solid mass, resembling the lava of a volcano, which they are supposed to be, by many of the learned. Others suppose them to be works of art. See the arguments on both sides, in the

works of Messrs Williams, Barrington, and Frazer-Tyler, on this subject.

(1.) * **To VITRIFY.** *v. a.* [*vitriser*, Fr. *vitrum* and *facio*, Lat.] To change into glass.—Metals will *vitriify*. Bacon.—Iron-slag, *vitriified*, has in it cortices incompassing one another, like those in agates. Woodward.

(2.) * **To VITRIFY.** *v. n.* To become glass; to be changed into glass.—Animal substances calcined, will not *vitriify* in the fire. *Arbutnoot*.

VITRING, a town of Carinthia, 4 miles SW. of Clagenfurt.

(1.) * **VITRIOL.** *n. f.* [*vitriol*, Fr. *vitriolum*, Latin.] *Vitriol* is produced by addition of a metallic matter with the fossil acid salt. Woodward.—I rubbed it with the *vitriol* stone. *Wisem*.

(2.) **VITRIOL**, a compound salt, formed by the union of iron, copper, or zinc, with the sulphuric acid. It is of 3 colours, *white, blue, and green*, according to the metal. See CHEMISTRY. *Index*.

* **VITRIOLATE.** } *adj.* [*vitrioli*, Fr. from
* **VITRIOLATED.** } *vitriolum*, Latin.] Im-
pregnated with vitriol; consisting of vitriol.—Iron may be dissolved by any tart, salt, or *vitriolated* water. Bacon.—Which gave the water they impregnated a fair *vitriolate* colour. Boyle.

(1.) **VITRIOLIC ACID.** See SULPHURIC ACID, and CHEMISTRY. *Index*.

(2.) * **VITRIOLICK.** } *adj.* [*vitriolique*, French;
* **VITRIOLOUS.** } from *vitriolum*, Latin.]
Resembling vitriol; containing vitriol.—*Vitriolous* spirits fixed unto salt by the effluvia of steel. Brown.—These salts have a smack of a *vitriolick* taste. *Greav*.—By over-fermentation or long-keeping, wine becomes sharp as in hock, like the *vitriolick* acidity. *Floyer*.

VITRUVIUS POLLIO, Marcus, a very celebrated Roman architect, was, according to the common opinion, born at Verona, and lived in the reign of Augustus. His treatise on architecture is extant, of which there are several English translations.

(1.) **VITRY**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais: $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles SW. of Douay, and 9 NE. of Arras.

(2.) **VITRY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Paris, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles SSE. of Paris.

(3.) **VITRY, LE BRULE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Marne; 3 miles NE. of Vitry; (N° 4.) It was 3 times burnt, whence the epithet: 1st, in the 12th century by Count Chartres; 2d, by the English and Burgundians in the war with Charles VII. when 60 villages were burnt with it, in 1422: and 3dly by Charles V.

(4.) **VITRY LE FRANÇOIS**, a town of France, in the dep. of Marne, and late prov. of Champagne. It has a fine square, with a church in the middle, and a great trade in corn. It is seated on the Marne, 15 miles SE. of Chalons, 25 W. of Bar, and 100 E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 38. E. Lat. 48. 44. N.

VITTE. See INTULA.

VITTEAUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Cote d'Or, and ci-devant duchy of Burgundy, on the Braine, among mountains, abounding with marble; 27 miles W. of Dijon, and 12 SE. of Semur. Lon. 4. 27. E. Lat. 57. 20. N.

VITTORIA, a city of Spain, capital of Alava.

It is walled, and well built, with a fountain the middle of a large square; surrounded by trees. The merchants are rich, and trade wool, wines, hard-ware, &c. It is 33 SE. of Bilbao, and 155 N. of Madrid. Lon. 56. W. Lat. 42. 55. N.

* **VITULINE.** *adj.* [*vitulinus*, Latin.] Belonging to a calf, or to veal. *Bailey*.

* **VITUPERABLE.** *adj.* [*vituperabilis*, Latin.] Blame-worthy. *Ainsworth*.

* **To VITUPERATE.** *v. a.* [*vituperer*, Fr. *supers*, Latin.] To blame; to censure.

* **VITUPERATION.** *n. f.* [*vituperatio*, Latin.] Blame; censure.—Such a writing ought to be clean, and free from any cavil or *vituperation* rasure. *Ayliffe*.

VITUS'S DANCE, St. See MEDICINE, *Index*.
VIU, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Stura, and late prov. of Piedmont, on the Stura, 14 miles NW. of Turin.

* **VIVACIOUS.** *adj.* [*vivax*, Latin.] 1. Lived.—Tho' we should allow them their perpetual calm and equability of heat, they will not be able to prove, that therefore men would be *vivacious* as they would have us believe. *Bow*. 2. Spritely; gay; active; lively.

* **VIVACIOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [*vivacité*, French.]

* **VIVACITY.** } from *vivacious*.
Liveliness; spiriteliness.—He had a great *vivacity* in his countenance. *Dryden*. 2. Longevity; length of life.—Fables are raised concerning the *vivacity* of deer. *Brown*. 3. Power of living.—So *vivacious* is their *vivacity*. *Boyle*.

VIVAR, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 10 miles from Burgos.

VIVARAIS, a ci-devant province of France, Lower Languedoc; on the right bank of the Rhone, now included in the dep. of Audeche.

VIVARIO, a town of Corsica, 10 miles S. of Corte.

VIVARO, an island in the Mediterranean, of Ithia.

* **VIVARY.** *n. f.* [*vivarium*, Latin.] A warm fish-pond.

* **VIVE.** *adj.* [*vif*, Fr. *vivus*, Lat.] Livelily forcible; pressing.—By a *vive* and forcible persuasion. *Bacon*.

* **VIVENCY.** *n. f.* [*vivo*, Latin.] Manner supporting or continuing life, or vegetation.—A *vivency*, though not in a distinct and indisputable way. *Brocun*.

VIVER, a town of Spain, in Valencia: 8 miles NW. of Segorba.

(1.) **VIVERO**, a town of Spain, in Galicia, the foot of a steep mountain, near the Landrov with a large harbour at its mouth; 30 miles NW. of Mondonnedo. Lon. 7. 34. W. Lat. 43. 50. N.

(2.) **VIVERO**, a river of Spain, in Galicia, running into the sea 12 miles E. of Cape Ortegal.

VIVEROL, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome; 9 miles SSW. of Ambert, and 2 N. of Puy.

VIVERA, THE WEASEL; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of feræ. They have six fore-teeth, the intermediate ones being shorter, and more than three grinders, and the claws are exerted. There are 27 species, the principal of which are,

1. **VIVERA**

V. VIVERRA ICHNEUMON, with the tail tapering to a point, and the toes distant from each other; inhabits Egypt, Barbary, India and its islands. It is there a most useful animal, being an inveterate enemy to the serpents and other noxious reptiles which infest the torrid zone; it attacks without dread that most fatal of serpents the Naja, or COBRA DE CAPELLO; and should it receive a wound in the combat, instantly retires, and is said to obtain an antidote from a certain herb (according to Sparmann the *opbiorrhiza*;) after which it returns to the attack, and seldom fails of victory: it is a great destroyer of the eggs of crocodiles, which it digs out of the sand; and even kills multitudes of the young of those terrible reptiles; it was not therefore without reason that the ancient Egyptians ranked the ichneumon among their deities. This animal is at present domesticated and kept in houses in India and in Egypt, for it is more useful than a cat in destroying rats and mice; and grows very tame. It is very active: springs with great agility on its prey; will glide along the ground like a serpent, and seem as if without feet. It sits up like a squirrel, and eats with its fore feet, catching any thing that is flung to it. It is a great enemy to poultry, and will feign itself dead till they come within reach: loves fish; draws its prey, after sucking the blood, to its hole. Its excrements are very fetid; when it sleeps, it springs its head and tail under its belly, appearing like a round ball, with two legs sticking out. Rumphius observes how skilfully it seizes the serpents by the throat, so as to avoid receiving any injury; and Lucan beautifully describes the same address of this animal in conquering the Egyptian asp.

2. VIVERRA VULPECULA, or *sisting weasel*, has a short slender nose; short ears and legs; black body, full of hair; the tail long, of a black and white colour; length from nose to tail about 18 inches. It inhabits Mexico, and perhaps other parts of America. This and some other species are remarkable for the pestiferous, suffocating, and most fetid vapour they emit from behind, when attacked, pursued, or frightened; it is their only means of defence. Some turn their tail to their enemy, and keep them at a distance by a frequent creptus; and others ejaculate their urine, tainted with the horrid effluvia, to the distance of 18 feet. The pursuers are stopped with the terrible stench. Should any of this liquor fall into the eyes, it almost occasions blindness; if on the clothes, the smell will remain for several days, in spite of all washing; they must even be buried in fresh soil, in order to be sweetened. Dogs that are not true bred, run back as soon as they perceive the smell; those that have been used to it, will kill the animal: but are often obliged to relieve themselves by thrusting their noses into the ground. There is no bearing the company of a dog that has killed one for several days. Professor Kalm was one night in great danger of being suffocated by one that was pursued into a house where he slept; and it affected the cattle so, that they bellowed through pain. Another, which was killed by a maid-servant in a cellar, so affected her with the stench, that she lay ill for se-

veral days; all the provisions that were in the place were so tainted that the owner was obliged to throw them away. Notwithstanding this, the flesh is reckoned good meat, and not unlike that of a pig; but it must be skinned as soon as killed, and the bladder taken carefully out. It breeds in hollow trees, or holes under ground, or in clefts of rocks: climbs trees with great agility; kills poultry; eats eggs and young birds.

3. VIVERRA ZIBETHA, or CIVET CAT, has short rounded ears; the back and sides cinereous, tinged with yellow, marked with large dusky spots disposed in rows; the hair coarse; that on the top of the body longest, standing up like a mane; the tail sometimes wholly black; sometimes spotted near the base; length, from nose to tail, about 2 feet 3 inches; the tail 14 inches; the body pretty thick. It inhabits India, the Philippine Isles, Guinea, Ethiopia, and Madagascar. The famous drug musk, or civet, which is produced from an aperture between the privities and the anus, in both sexes, is secreted from certain glands. The persons who keep them procure the musk by scraping the inside of this bag twice a-week with an iron spatula, and get about a dram each time; but it is seldom sold pure, being generally mixed with suet or oil, to make it more weighty. The males yield the most, especially when they are previously irritated. They are fed, when young, with pap made of millet, with a little flesh or fish; when old, with raw flesh. In a wild state, they prey on fowl. These animals seem not to be known to the ancients; it is probable the drug was brought without their knowing its origin; for it is certain the fine gentlemen in Rome used perfume.

(1.) * **VIVES**. *n. f.* A distemper among horses. — *Vives* is much like the strangles. *Furrier's Dict.*

(2.) **VIVES**. See FARRIERY.

* **VIVID**. *adj.* [*vividus*, Latin.] 1. Lively; quick; striking.—Its former *vivid* colour. *Bayle*. —The fullest and most *vivid* colours. *Newton*. —The *vivid* green his shining plumes unfold. *Pope*. 2. Spritely; active.—Spritely, *vivid* faculties. *South*.—Where the imagination is *vivid*. *Watts*.

* **VIVIDLY**. *adv.* [from *vivid*.] With life; with quickness; with strength.—Some are more and some less *vividly* illustrated. *Boyle*.—More warmly and *vividly*. *South*.

* **VIVIDNESS**. *n. f.* [from *vivid*.] Life; vigour; quickness.

VIVIER, a town of France, in the dep. of Ille and Vilaine; 3 miles N. of Dol, and 9 SE. of St Malo.

VIVIERS, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardèche, on the right bank of the Rhone, ci-devant capital of the late prov. of VIVARAIS; 13 miles SE. of Anbas, and 17 SE. of Privas.

* **VIVIFICAL**. *adj.* [*vivificus*, Lat.] Giving life. *Bailey*.

* **To VIVIFICATE**. *v. a.* [*vivifico*, Lat.] 1. To make alive; to inform with life; to animate. 2. To recover from such a change of form as seems to destroy the essential properties. A chymical term.

* **VIVIFICATION**, *n. f.* [*vivification*, Fr. from *vivificare*.] The act of giving life.—There follows eth *vivification* and figuration. *Bacon*.

* **VIVIFICK.** *adj.* [*vivifque*, Fr. *vivifcus*, Lat.] Giving life; making alive.—The sun's salutary and vivifick beams. *Ray*.

* **To VIVIFY.** *v. a.* [*vivifier*, Fr. *vivus* and *facio*.] Lat.] To make alive; to animate; to endue with life.—Snow could hardly vivify. *Bac.*—Sitting on eggs doth vivify, not nourish. *Bac.*—Gut worms, as soon as vivified, creep into the stomach for nutriment. *Harvey*.

* **VIVIPAROUS.** *adj.* [*vivus* and *pario*, Latin.] Bringing the young alive; opposed to *oviparous*.—We cannot from them infer *viviparous* exclusion. *Brown*.—Their species might continue, though they had been *viviparous*. *More*.—If birds had been *viviparous*, the burthen of their womb had been too great and heavy, that their wings would have failed them. *Ray*.

VIVOIN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Sarte; 13½ miles N. of Mans.

VIVONNE, a town of France, in the dep. of Vienne; 6 miles E. of Lusignan; and 9 S. of Poitiers.

VIVRIES, an ancient city of France, in the dep. of Ardeche, and late province of Dauphiny, seated among rocks, on one of which the cathedral is built. It is seated on the Rhone, 20 miles N. of Orange, and 70 NE. of Montpellier. Lon. 4. 46. E. Lat. 44. 40. N.

VIX, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vendee; 6 miles S. of Fontenay, and 13½ ESE. of Luçon.

* **VIXEN.** *n. f.*—*Vixen* or *fixen* is the name of a she-fox; otherwise applied to a woman whose nature and condition is thereby compared to a she fox. *Verfegen*.—She was a *vixen*, when she went to school. *Shak.*—A two legg'd *vixen*. *Wycherley*.

* **VIZ.** *n. f.* [This word is *videlicet*, written with a contraction.] To wit; that is. A barbarous form of an unnecessary word.—

That which is oft by lundry writers,

Has been apply'd t' almost all fighters,

More justly may b' ascrib'd to this,

Than any other warrior, viz.

None ever acted both parts border,

Both of a chieftain and a soldier. *Hudibras*.

—The several modifications of the human voice by the organs of speech, viz. the letters of the alphabet, form'd by the several motions of the mouth. *Holder*.—Let this be done relatively, viz. one thing greater or stronger. *Dryden*.

VIZA, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, at the foot of a mountain, near the Glicenero.

VIZAGAPATAM. See INDIA, § 17; and **VISAGAPATAM**.

* **VIZARD.** *n. f.* [*visfere*, Fr. See **VISOR**.] A mask used for disguise.—Let the suits be such as become the person when the vizards are off. *Bac.*—Æschylus brought vizards in a civiler disguise. *Rowson*.—A lie is like a vizard. *South*.—They put on the vizard of seeming sanctity. *Atterb.*—She held her vizard in her hand. *Addison*.

* **To VIZARD.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To mask.—Degree being vizarded. *Shak.*

VIZIAMANGALUM, a town of Hindoostan, in the Myore; 13 miles SW. of Erroad.

VIZIANAGRAM, a town of Hindoostan, in Cicacole; 30 miles SW. of Cicacole, and 108 NE. of Rajamundy.

VIZIANAGUR, a town of Hindoostan, in Cicacole; 38 miles WSW. of Ganjam.

* **VIZIER.** *n. f.* [properly *Wazir*.] The prime minister of the Turkish empire.—He made him vizier, which is the chief of all the bassas. *Koolha*.

—This grand vizier presuming to invest. *Walker*.

VIZILLE, a town of France, in the department of Isère; 7½ miles SSE. of Grenoble.

UK, a river of Russia, which runs into the Uda;

16 miles N. of Ulinik.

UKELE, a town of Arabia, in Yemen.

UKELEY, a river of Upper Saxony, running into the Rega, in Brandenburg.

UKRAINE, a large country of Europe, lying on the borders of European Turkey, Poland, Russia, and little Tartary. Its name properly signifies a frontier. By the partition of Poland it has all become the property of Russia. The principal town is Kiow.

(1.) **UKSA**, a town of Russia, in Viborg; 44 miles N. of Serdopol.

(2.) **UKSA**, a river of Russia, running into lake Ladoga; 40 miles NW. of Olonetz.

VLADIMIR, a city of Russia, at the conflux of the Kliazma, and Neri; capital of Viadimirskoe; 100 m. E. of Molkow, and 408 SE. of Petersburg.

VLADIMIRSKOE, a prov. of Russia, bounded N. by those of Iaroslavl, and Kostrom; E. by Nizegrodskoe; S. by Tambovskoe, and Riazanskoe; NW. by Tverkskoe; and W. by Moskovskia; 160 miles long from E. to W. and 80 broad from N. to S.

VLADISLAW. See **KNOWVLADISLAW**.

VLAK, a mountain of Bosnia; 20 miles SW. of Zwornick.

ULAMINSKA, a town of Russia, in Tobolskoe; 48 miles ESE. of Yalactorovsk.

ULARDINGEN, a town of Holland, in the dep. and on the N. bank of the Meuse; 1 mile W. of Schiedam.

ULBACH, a river of Suabia, running into the Elzbach; 4 miles NW. of Elzbach.

ULCAMI, a kingdom of Guinea, between those of Ardres and Benin.

(1.) * **ULCER.** *n. f.* [*ulcere*, Fr. *ulcus*, Latin.] A fore of continuance; not a new wound.—Pour'd in the open ulcer of my heart. *Shak.*—My ulcers swell. *Sandys*.—Intestine stone and ulcer, colick pangs. *Milton*.—From the several apostemations sinuous ulcers were made. *Wifeman*.

(2.) **ULCER**, in surgery. See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

(3.) **ULCER**, in farriery. See **FARRIERY**.

(1.) * **To ULCERATE.** *v. a.* [*ulcerer*, Fr. *ulcer*, Lat.] To disease with sores.—Some depend upon the intemperament of the part ulcerated. *Harvey*.—Such as have their lungs ulcerated. *Arbuthnot*.

(2.) * **To ULCERATE.** *v. n.* To turn to an ulcer.

* **ULCERATION.** *n. f.* [*ulceration*, Fr. *ulceratio*, from *ulcer*, Lat.] 1. The act of breaking into ulcers. 2. Ulcer; sore.—The effects of mercury on ulcerations are manifest. *Arbuthnot*.

* **ULCERED.** *adj.* [*ulceré*, from *ulcer*.] Grown by time from a hurt to an ulcer.—A dog for licking ulcered wounds. *Temple*.

* **ULCEROUS.** *adj.* [*ulcerosus*, Latin.] Afflicted with old sores.—All swollen and ulcerous he cures. *Shak.*—An ulcerous disposition of the lungs. *Harvey*.

* **ULCEROUSNESS.**

* **ULCEROUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *ulcerous*.] The state of being ulcerous.

ULEX, in botany, a genus of plants of the class of *diadelphia*, and order of *decandria*; and in the natural system arranged under the 3d order, *Pa-silionaceæ*. The calyx consists of two leaves quinque-lobed: the pod almost covered by the calyx. There are two species, one of which,

ULEX EUROPEUS, the *furze*, *gorse*, or *ubin*, is a native of Britain; it is two well known to need description. Its uses, however, are many; as a fuel where wood and coals are scarce; and as hedge-wood upon light barren land: its use as a sort of provender too seems to be fully proved, tho' not yet established. See **FENCE**.

ULIASSER, or **HOMIOA**, one of the **MOLUCCAN** Islands; 9 miles long and $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. It is fertile in rice and cloves.

VLIE, or **FLIE**, a town of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse, and late prov. of N. Holland: at the entrance of the Zuyder Zee.

VLIELAND, a district of Holland, in the dep. of the Meuse. **VLIE** is the capital.

ULIETEA, one of the **SOCIETY ISLANDS**. It is about 63 miles in circuit. Its productions are plantains, cocoa nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls. Lon. 201. 4. E. Lat. 20. 1. S.

(1.) * **ULIGINOUS.** *adj.* [*uliginosus*, Latin.] Slimy; muddy.—The *uliginous* lacteous matter taken notice of in the coral fishings upon the coast of Italy, was only a collection of the coralline particles. *Woodward*.

(2.) **ULIGINOUS**, in agriculture, an appellation given to a moist, moorish, and fenny soil.

ULLAGE, *n. f.* in gauging, is so much of a cask or other vessel as it wants of being full.

ULM, a free and imperial city of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, seated on the river Iller. It is a pretty large place, defended by fortifications; and the inhabitants are protestants. Here the archives of the circle are deposited, and it carries on a very great trade. The elector of Bavaria became master of it, in 1702, by a stratagem; but in 1704, the French being vanquished at the battle of Hochstet, the Bavarians surrendered it by capitulation. The Roman Catholics have but two churches, all the rest belonging to the Protestants. Ulm was taken by the French *imperialists*, on the 19th Oct. 1805, after a battle in which 30,000 Austrians were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. The Austrian garrison of Ulm capitulated. Lon. 10. 12. E. Lat. 48. 25. N.

ULMUS, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class of *pentandria*, and order of *digynia*; and in the natural system arranged under the 53d order, *Scabridæ*. The calyx is quinquefid; there is no corolla. The fruit is a dry, compressed, membranaceous berry. There are 3 species; one of which is a native of Britain.

1. **ULMUS CAMPESTRIS**, common *elm*. The leaves are rough, oval, pointed, doubly serrated, unequal at the base. Bark of the trunk cracked and wrinkled. Fruit membranous.

2. **ULMUS MONTANA**, the *wych elm*, or *witch hazel*, is generally reckoned a variety of this species. All the sorts of elm may be either propagated by layers or suckers taken from the roots of the old trees. The elm delights in a stiff strong

soil. It is observable, however, that here it grows comparatively slow. In light land, especially if it be rich, its growth is very rapid; but its wood is light, porous, and of little value, compared with that which grows upon strong land; which is of a closer stronger texture, and, at the heart, will have the colour, and almost the heaviness and the hardness, of iron.

ULOGHONE, *n. f.* a mournful tune played by the Scottish Highlanders, at funerals.

(1.) **ULSTER**, the most northerly province of Ireland. In Latin it is called *Ultonia*, in Irish *Cui Guilly*. It is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean on the W.; St George's Channel and the Irish Sea on the E.; the Deucalidian Ocean on the N.; and on the S. and SW. by the provinces of Leinster and Connaught. Its greatest length is near 120 miles, its breadth about 100; and its circumference, including the windings and turnings, 460; containing 9 counties, 58 market towns and boroughs, 1 archbishopric, 6 bishoprics, and 214 parishes. Ulster abounds in lakes and rivers, which supply it with variety of fine fish, especially salmon, besides what it has from the sea, with which a great part of it is bounded. The southern parts of it are rich, fertile, well cultivated, and inclosed; but the greater part of the northern is open and mountainous.—The towns of this province are in general the neatest and best built of any in Ireland, as well as the farm houses; which in most parts of the kingdom are constructed of no better materials than clay and straw. The inhabitants of Ulster are also more like the English in their manners and dialect than those of the other three provinces; for as it includes within itself the whole, or by far the greater part, of the linen manufactory, the best branch of trade in the kingdom, they have consequently the greatest intercourse with England. This province had anciently petty kings of its own. It was first subjected to the English in the reign of Henry II. by John Courcy, the first who bore the title of *earl of Ulster*; but it afterwards threw off the yoke, and was never entirely reduced till the reign of James I. when great numbers of Scots by his encouragement went and settled in it. Of these, most of the present inhabitants are the descendants. This province was the first and principal scene of the bloody massacre in 1641.

(2.) **ULSTER**, a large and mountainous county of New York, bounded on the N. by those of Albany and Schoharie, E. by the Hudson, which separates it from Dutchess county, S. by Orange, NW. by Otsego, and W. by Northampton county in Pennsylvania. It is divided into 14 townships, viz. Woodstock, Middleton, Rochester, Mamaroneck, Hurley, Marletown, Shawangunk, Montgomery, Walkill, New Windsor, Newberry, New Marlborough, Newpaltz, and Kingston. It is 81 miles long, and 67 broad. It contained 26,491 citizens in 1795, and 2069 slaves. Kingston is the capital.

ULTERIOR, *adj.* in geography, is applied to some part of a country or province, which, with regard to the rest of that country, is situated on the farther side of the river, mountain, or other boundary, which separates the two countries.

* **ULTIMATE.** *adj.* [*ultimus*, Lat.] Intended in

in the last resort; being the last in the train of consequences.—My harbour, and my ultimate repose. *Milt.*—Not conducive to ultimate happiness. *Addison.*—The ultimate allotment of God to men. *Rogers.*

* **ULTIMATELY.** *adv.* [from *ultimate*.] In the last consequence.—Charity is more extensive than either of the two other graces, which center ultimately in ourselves. *Atter.*—Trust in our own powers, ultimately terminates in the friendship of other men. *Rogers.*

ULTIMATUM. *n. s.* in European politics, the last terms of a treaty.

* **ULTIMITY.** *n. s.* [*ultimus*, Latin.] The last stage; the last consequence. A word very convenient, but not in use.—Alteration of one body into another, from crudity to perfect concoction, is the *ultimity* of that process. *Bacon.*

ULTIMO. [Lat.] or by contraction, *ult.* in letter-writing, the last month.

(1.) * **ULTRAMARINE.** *adj.* [*ultra marinus*, Lat.] Being beyond the sea; foreign. *Ainsl.*

(2.) * **ULTRAMARINE.** *n. s.* [*ultra and marinus*, Latin] One of the noblest blue colours used in painting, produced by calcination from the stone called lapis lazuli. *Hill.*—The blue of *ultramarine*. *Dryden.*

(1.) * **ULTRAMONTANE.** *adj.* [*ultramontain*, Fr. *ultra montanus*, Lat.] Being beyond the mountains.

(2.) **ULTRAMONTANE**, is chiefly used of France and Italy, which are separated by the Alps. See **TRANS**.

* **ULTRAMUNDANE.** *adj.* [*ultra and mundus*, Lat.] Being beyond the world.

* **ULTRONEOUS.** *adj.* [*ultra*, Lat.] Spontaneous; voluntary.

ULVA, in botany, **LAVER**, a genus of plants of the class of *cryptogamia*, and order of *algæ*. The fructification is inclosed in a diaphanous membrane. There are 17 species: 12 of which are British plants. They are all sessile, and without roots, and grow in ditches and on stones along the sea coast. None of them are applied to any particular use different from the rest of the *algæ*, except perhaps the

ULVA UMBILICALIS, which in England is pickled with salt and preserved in jars, and afterwards stewed and eaten with oil and lemon juice. This species, called in English the *navel laver*, is flat, orbicular, sessile, and coriaceous.

ULUG BEIG, a Persian prince and learned astronomer, was descended from the famous Tamerlane, and reigned at Samarcand about 40 years; after which he was murdered by his own son in 1449. His catalogue of the fixed stars, rectified for the year 1434, was published at Oxford by Mr Hyde, in 1665, with learned notes. Mr Hudson printed in the English Geography *Ulug Beig's Tables* of the Lon. and Lat. of Places; and Mr Greaves published in Latin, his *Astronomical Epœbas*, at Lond. in 1650. See **ASTRONOMY**, *Ind.*

(1.) **ULYSSES**, king of Ithaca, the son of Laertes, and father of **TELEMACHUS**, and one of those heroes who contributed most to the taking of Troy. After the destruction of that city, he wandered for 10 years; and at last returned to I-

thaca, where, with the assistance of **Telemachus**, he killed Antinous and other princes who intended to marry his wife Penelope, and seize his dominions. He at length resigned the kingdom to his son **Telemachus**; and was killed by **Telegonus**, his son by Circe, who did not know him. See **CIRCE**. The hero is the subject of the **ODYSSEY**.

(2.) **ULYSSES**, in geography, a military town-ship of New York, in **ONONDAGO** county.

ULYSSES-HAVEN, a village of Angus-shire, on the sea coast, in the parish of Craig.

ULYSSEIPO. See **OLUSIPO**.

UMBAGOG, a large lake of New Hampshire, in Grafton county, near Maine.

* **UMBEL.** *n. s.* In botany, the extremity of a stalk or branch divided into several pedicles or rays, beginning from the same point, and opening so as to form an inverted cone. *Diâ.*

UMBELLA, an **UMBEL**, in botany, a species of receptacle; or rather a mode of flowering, in which a number of slender footstalks proceed from the same centre, and rise to an equal height, so as to form an even and generally round surface at top. See **BOTANY**, *Index*.

UMBELLATÆ, the name of a class in Ray's and Tournefort's methods, consisting of plants whose flowers grow in umbels, with five petals that are often unequal, and two naked seeds that are joined at top and separated below. They constitute the 45th order of Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method. See **BOTANY**, *Index*.

* **UMBELLATED.** *adj.* In botany, is said of flowers when many of them grow together in umbels. *Diâ.*

(1.) * **UMBELLIFEROUS.** *adj.* [*umbel and ferre*, Lat.] In botany, being a plant that bears many flowers, growing upon many footstalks, proceeding from the same centre; and chiefly appropriated to such plants whose flowers are composed of five leaves, as fennel and parsnip. *Diâ.*

(2.) **UMBELLIFEROUS PLANTS**, are such as have their tops branched and spread out like an umbrella.

(1.) * **UMBER.** *n. s.* 1. *Umber* is a sad colour; which grind with gum-water, and lighten it with a little ceruse, and a shive of saffron. *Prochem.*—I'll with a kind of *umber* smirch my face. *Shak.*—*Umber* is very sensible and earthy. *Dryd.*—*Umbres*, ochres, and minerals. *Woodw.* 2. A fish. [*stymalus*, Lat.]—The *umber* and grayling differ as the herring and picher do. *Walt. Angler.*

(2.) **UMBER**, or **UMBRES**, in natural history, a fossil brown or blackish substance, used in painting; so called from *Ombria*, the ancient name of the duchy of Spoleto in Italy, whence it was first obtained; diluted with water, it serves to make a dark brown colour, usually called with us an *hair colour*. Dr Hill and Mr da Costa consider it as an earth of the ochre kind. It is found in Egypt, Italy, Spain, and Germany; in Cyprus also it is found in large quantities; but what is brought into England is principally from different parts of the Turkish dominions. But it might be found in considerable plenty also in England and Ireland, if properly looked after, several large masses of it having been thrown up in digging on Mendip hills

in Somersetshire, and in the county of Wexford in Ireland: it is also sometimes found in the veins of lead ore both in Derbyshire and Flintshire.

* **UMBERED.** *adj.* [from *umber* or *umbra*, Lat.] Shaded; clouded.—Each battle sees the other's *umber'd* face. *Shak.*

(1.) * **UMBILICAL.** *adj.* [*umbilical*, Fr. from *umbilicus*, Lat.] Belonging to the navel.—Birds are nourished by *umbilical* veins. *Brown.*—In a calf, the *umbilical* vessels terminate in a multitude of caraneous papillæ. *Ray.*

(2.) **UMBILICAL**, among anatomists, something relating to the umbilicus or navel.

(3.) **UMBILICAL CORD**, or the **NAVEL-STRING**, the hollow ligament by which an embryo communicates with the mother, and draws nourishment from her. This must be carefully cut by the midwife or accoucheur, after parturition, as negligence or inattention to this is often the cause of fatal ruptures. See **MIDWIFERY**, Part I. Sec. II.

(4.) **UMBILICAL REGION.** See **ANATOMY**, Ind. **UMBILICUS.** See **ANATOMY**, § 266.

* **UMBLES.** *n. f.* [*umbles*, Fr.] A deer's entrails. *Dis.*

* **UMBO.** *n. f.* [Latin.] The point or prominent part of a buckler.—Or like the *umbo* of the Romans. *Swift.*

* **UMBRAGE.** *n. f.* [*ombrage*, Fr.] 1. Shade; screen of trees.—Woods spread their *umbrage* broad. *Milton.*—And the cool *umbrage* seek. *Phil.* 2. Shadow; appearance.—The rest are *umbrages* quickly dissipated. *Bramb.*—No show of truth nor *umbrage* of reason. *Woodw.*—Thus given *umbrage* to the opinion. *Woodw.* 3. Repentment; offence; suspicion of injury.—That the king should take no *umbrage* of his arming. *Bacon.*

* **UMBRAGEOUS.** *adj.* [*ombrageux*, Fr.] Shady; yielding shade.—*Umbrageous* grots and caves of cool recess. *Milton.*—In a pleasant, and *umbrageous* garden. *Harvey.*—Beneath th' *umbrageous* multitude of leaves. *Thomson.*

* **UMBRAGEOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *umbrageous*.] Shadiness.—The *umbrageousness* of this tree. *Raleigh.*

* **UMBRATILE.** *adj.* [*umbratilis*, Latin.] Being in the shade.

(1.) * **UMBREL.** } *n. f.* [from *umbra*, Lat.]

(1.) * **UMBRELLA.** } A screen used in hot countries to keep off the sun, and in others to bear off the rain.—I can carry your *umbrella*, and fan your ladyship. *Dryden.*—Defended by th' *umbrella's* oily shed. *Gay.*

(2.) An **UMBRELLA**, is a moveable canopy, made of silk or linen spread out upon ribs of whalebone, and supported by a staff, to protect a person from rain, or the scorching beams of the sun.

* **UMBRIERE.** *n. f.* The visor of the helmet.

* **UMBROSITY.** *n. f.* [*umbrosus*, Lat.] Shadiness; exclusion of light.—Oiled paper admits the rays with much less *umbrosity*. *Brown.*

* **UMPIRAGE.** *n. f.* [from *umpire*.] Arbitration; friendly decision of a controversy.

* **UMPIRE.** *n. f.* [This word *Minshaw*, with great applause from *Skinner*, derives from *un pere*, Fr. a father.] An arbitrator; one who, as a common friend, decides disputes. It is by *Brown*

taken simply for a judge in a sense not usual.—This bloody knife—Shall play the *umpire*. *Shak.*—Just death, kind *umpire* of men's miseries. *Shak.*—And made the echo *umpire* of my strains. *Brown.*—*Umpire* betwixt the chemists and the peripateticks. *Boyle.*—Some great *umpire* intercessor. *South.*—You for their *umpire* and their synod take. *Dryden.*—Causes too light for the hearing of courts and *umpire*. *Kettow.*

* **UN.** A Saxon privative or negative particle answering to *in* of the Latins, and *a* of the Greeks, *on*, Dutch. It is placed almost at will before adjectives and adverbs. All the instances of this kind of composition cannot therefore be inserted, but I have collected a number sufficient, perhaps more than sufficient, to explain it.—The examples however, though numerous, might have easily been made more; for almost every adjective has a substantivè and an adverb adhering to it, as *unfaithful*, *unfaithfulness*, *unfaithfully*. *Un* is prefixed to adjectives with their derivatives, as *unapt*, *unaptness*, *unaptly*; and to passive participles as *hurt*, *unhurt*: favoured, unfavoured; it is prefixed likewise to participle adjectives, as *pleasing*, *unpleasing*, but rarely in the verbal sense expressing action; we cannot say the dart flew *unwounding*, though we say the man escaped *unwounded*. *Un* and *un* may be thus distinguished. To words merely English we prefix *un*, as *unjust*; to words borrowed in the positive, sense, but made negative by ourselves, we prefix *un*, as *generous*, *ungenerous*. When we borrow both words we retain the Latin or French *in*, as *elegant*, *inelegant*; *politic*, *impolitic*.—Before substantives if they have the English termination *ness*, as *unwise*, *ungracious*, *unjust*; it is proper to prefix *un* if they have the Latin or French terminations in *tude*, *ice*, or *ence*; and for the most part if they end in *ty* the negative *in* is put before them, as *unapt*, *unaptness*, *inaptitude*; *unjust*, *injustice*; *imprudence*; *unfaithful*, *unfaithfulness*, *infidelity*.

* **UNABASHED.** *adj.* [from *abashed*.] Not shamed; not confused by modesty.—Earle's on high, stood *unabash'd* Desoe. *Pope.*

* **UNABLE.** *adj.* [from *able*.] 1. Not having ability. With *to* before a verb, and *for* before a noun.—Weary, and *unable* to resist. *Raleigh.*—Gods *unable*

T' acquit themselves, and prosecute their foes.

Milton.—The prince *unable* to conceal his pain. *Dryden.*—I intended though far *unable* for the attempt. *Dryd.*—Man, was *unable* even to form an idea of happiness. *Rogers.* 2. Weak; impotent.—A love that makes breath poor, and speech *unable*. *Shak.*

* **UNABOLISHED.** *adj.* [from *abolished*.] Not repealed; remaining in force.—A number of needless laws *unabolished*. *Hooker.*

* **UNACCEPTABLE.** *adj.* [from *acceptable*.] Not pleasing; not such as is well received.—He was very *unacceptable* to his countrymen. *Clar.*—'Tis as indecent as *unacceptable*. *Gow. of the Tongue.*—Every method must be *unacceptable* and displeasing. *Addis.*—An *unacceptable* duty. *Rogers.*

* **UNACCEPTABLENESS.** *n. f.* [from *unacceptable*.] State of not pleasing.—The *unacceptableness* of the subject. *Collier.*

* **UNACCEPTED.**

* **UNACCEPTED.** *adj.* [from *accepted*.] Not accepted.—Offer'd again the *unaccepted* wreath. *Prior*.

UNACCESSIBLE. See **INACCESSIBLE**.

* **UNACCESSIBLENESS.** *n. s.* [from *unaccessibility*.] State of not being to be attained or approached.—Remoteness and *unaccessibility*. *Hale*.

* **UNACCOMMODATED.** *adj.* [from *accommodated*.] Unfurnished with external convenience.—*Unaccommodated* man is no more than such a poor, bare, forked animal as thou art. *Shak*.

* **UNACCOMPANIED.** *adj.* [from *accompanied*.] Not attended.—Seldom cometh *unaccompanied* with the like. *Hayward*.

* **UNACCOMPLISHED.** *adj.* [from *accomplished*.] Unfinished; incomplete.—And leave an *unaccomplished* love behind. *Dryden*.—Nor durst their *unaccomplished* crime pursue. *Dryden*.

* **UNACCOUNTABLE.** *adj.* [from *accountable*.] 1. Not explicable; not to be solved by reason; not reducible to rule.—I shall note difficulties, which are not usually observed, though *unaccountable*. *Glanv.*—The folly is so *unaccountable*. *L'Estrange*.—An *unaccountable* disposition. *Add.*—It is yet more *unaccountable*. *Rogers*.—The Chinese are an *unaccountable* people. *Baker*.—It is wholly *unaccountable* to us. *Swift*. 2. Not subject; not controlled.

* **UNACCOUNTABLY.** *adv.* Strangely.—His heart *unaccountably* melted at the sight of him. *Addison*.

UNACCURACY. See **INACCURACY**.

* **UNACCURATE.** *adj.* [from *accurate*.] Not exact.—Galileo using an *unaccurate* way. *Boyle*.

* **UNACCURATENESS.** *n. s.* [from *unaccurate*.] Want of exactness. For this are commonly used *inaccurate* and *inaccuracy*.—The *unaccuracy* and *unconcludingness* of analytical experiments. *Boyle*.

* **UNACCUSTOMED.** *adj.* [from *accustomed*.] 1. Not used; not habituated: with to.—*Unaccustomed* to the yoke. *Jer. xxxi*.—Animals *unaccustomed* to the want of air. *Boyle*. 2. New; not usual.—Shall give him such an *unaccustomed* dram. *Shak*.—Change native home for *unaccustomed* air. *Phil*.—An old word ought never to be fixed to an *unaccustomed* idea, without just and evident necessity. *Watts*.

* **UNACKNOWLEDGED.** *adj.* [from *acknowledged*.] Not owned.—An *unacknowledged* successor to the crown. *Clarendon*.

* **UNACQUAINTANCE.** *n. s.* [from *acquaintance*.] Want of familiarity; wanting of knowledge; followed by *with*.—Utter *unacquaintance* with his master's designs. *South*.

* **UNACQUAINTED.** *adj.* [from *acquainted*.] 1. Not known; unusual; not familiarly known.—And th' *unacquainted* light began to fear. *Spens*. 2. Not having familiar knowledge; followed by *with*.—Whole ears were *unacquainted* with such matter. *Hooker*.

Shall I inform my *unacquainted* feet,

In the blind mazes of this tangled world? *Milt*.—My ears are *unacquainted* with such bold truths. *Denham*.—Youth, that *with* joys had *unacquainted* been. *Dryden*.—*Unacquainted* with death. *Wake*.

* **UNACTIVE.** *adj.* [from *active*.] 1. Not brisk; not lively.—Tame, *unactive* children. *Locke*. 2. Having no employment.—While other animals *unactive* range. *Milton*.—Private, *unactive*, calm, contemplative. *Milton*.—A faint, *unactive* thing. *South*. 4. Having no efficacy.—

In the fruitful earth

His beams, *unactive* else, their vigour find.

Milton.

UNACTIVELY. See **INACTIVELY**.

UNACTIVITY. See **INACTIVITY**.

* **UNACTUATED.** *adj.* Not actuated.—The peripatetic matter is a mere *unactuated* power. *Glanv.*

UNADEQUATE. See **INADEQUATE**.

UNADEQUATELY. See **INADEQUATELY**.

* **UNADMIR'D.** *adj.* Not regarded with honour.—Oh! had I rather *unadmir'd* remain'd. *Pope*.

UNADMISSIBLE. *adj.* Not to be admitted.

* **UNADORN'D.** *adj.* Not worshipped.—Nor was his name unheard, or *unador'd*. *Milton*.

* **UNADORN'D.** *adj.* Not decorated; not embellished.—Desert and bare, unlightly, *unadorn'd*. *Milton*.—But hoary winter, *unadorn'd* and bare. *Addison*.

* **UNADVENTUROUS.** *adj.* Not adventurous.—Irresolute, unhardy, *unadvent'rous*. *Milt*.

UNADVERTENCE. See **INADVERTENCE**.

UNADVERTENT. See **INADVERTENT**.

* **UNADVISED.** *adj.* 1. Imprudent; indiscreet.—

Madam, I have *unadvise'd*

Deliver'd you a paper that I should not. *Shak*. 2. Done without due thought; rash.—Is too rash, too *unadvise'd*, too sudden. *Shak*.—The *unadvise'd* forwardness of divers chief counsellors. *Hayw*.—No *unadvise'd* productions. *Glanv.*

* **UNADVISEDLY.** *adv.* Imprudently; rashly;—indiscreetly.—Speech, *unadvise'dly* uttered. *Hooker*.—Error we have *unadvise'dly* taken upon us to defend. *Hooker*.—Men shall deal *unadvise'dly* sometimes. *Shak*.—A word *unadvise'dly* spoken. *South*.

* **UNADULTERATED.** *adj.* Genuine; not spoiled by spurious mixtures.—Pure and *unadulterated*. *Addison*.

* **UNAFFECTED.** *adj.* 1. Real; not hypocritical.—And *unaffected* sorrow sat on ev'ry face. *Dryden*. 2. Free from affectation; open; candid; sincere.—With inward greatness, *unaffected* wisdom. *Addison*.—Of softest manners, *unaffected* mind. *Pope*. 3. Not formed by too rigid observation of rules; not laboured.—In their majestic, *unaffected* stile. *Milton*. 4. Not mov'd; not touch'd; as, he sat *unaffected* to bear the tragedy.

* **UNAFFECTEDLY.** *adv.* Really; without any attempt to produce false appearances.—*Unaffectedly* cheerful. *Locke*.

* **UNAFFECTING.** *adj.* Not pathetic; not moving the passions.

* **UNAFFECTEDLY.** *adj.* Free from trouble. My *unaffected* mind. *Dan*.

* **UNAGREEABLE.** *adj.* Inconsistent; unsuitable —

Advent'rous works! yet to thy pow'r and mine

Not *unagreeable*.

Milton.

* **UNAGREEABLENESS.**

- * **UNAGREEABLENESS.** *n. f.* Unfuitable acts to; inconsistency with.—*Unagreeableness* to the gospel œconomy. *Decay of Piety.*
- * **UNDAIDABLE.** *adj.* Not to be helped.—Labouring art can never ransom nature From her *undaidable* estate. *Shak.*
- * **UNAIDED.** *adj.* Not assisted; not helped.—Th' *unaided* eye. *Blackmore.*
- * **UNAIMING.** *adj.* Having no particular direction.—The noisy culverin, o'ercharg'd lets fly, And bursts, *unaiming*. *Granv.*
- * **UNAKING.** *adj.* Not feeling or causing pain.—Show them th' *unaking* scars which I would hide. *Shak.*
- * **UNALASHKA.** See **ONALASHKA.**
- * **UNALIENABLE.** *adj.* Not to be transferred.—*Unalienable* right in a particular family. *Swift.*
- * **UNALIAYED.** *adj.* Not impaired by bad mixtures.—*Unallayed* satisfactions. *Boyle.*
- * **UNALLIED.** *adj.* 1. Having no powerful relation. 2. Having no common nature; not congenial.—*Unallied* and disproportioned substances. *Collier.*
- * **UNALIENABLE.** See **INALIENABLE.**
- * **UNALIMENTAL.** See **INALIMENTAL.**
- * **UNALTERABLE.** *adj.* Unchangeable; immutable.—A fixed, *unalterable* relation of one nature to another. *Sotab.*—The fixt *unalterable* laws. *Creesh.*—*Unalterable* in his purpose. *Atterbury.*
- * **UNALTERABLENESS.** *n. s.* Immutability; unchangeableness.—The *unalterableness* of the corpuscles. *Woodward.*
- * **UNALTERABLY.** *adv.* Unchangeably; immutably.—Retains *unalterably* firm his love entire. *Milton.*—*Unalterably* constituted by those motions. *Holder.*
- * **UNALTERED.** *adj.* Not changed; not changeable.—We suffer to remain *unalter'd*. *Hook.*—To whom our Saviour, with *unalter'd* brow. *Milton.*—To shew the truth of my *unalter'd* breast. *Dryden.*—On some *unalter'd* cause they fare depend. *Dryden.*—Grains and nuts pass often thro' animals *unalter'd*. *Arbutb.*—Fair, *unalter'd*, and free from mineral infusions. *Woodward.*
- * **UNAMAZED.** *adj.* Not astonished; free from astonishment.—Not *unamaz'd* she thus in answer spake. *Milton.*
- * **UNAMBITIOUS.** *adj.* Free from ambition. My humble muse, in *unambitious* strains. *Pope.*—I am one of those *unambitious* people. *Pope.*
- * **UNAMENDABLE.** *adj.* [*inamendabilis*, Lat.] Not to be changed for the better.—Mankind is *unamendable*. *Pope.*
- * **UNAMIALE.** *adj.* Not raising love.—Repellent religion in an *unamiable* light. *Addison.*—The *unamiable* part of themselves. *Addison.*—Nor are the hills *unamiable*. *Philips.*
- * **UNANALISED.** *adj.* Not resolved into simple parts.—Refined and *unanalysed* nitre. *Boyle.*
- * **UNANCHORED.** *adj.* Not anchored.—Where ships may rest, *unanchor'd*, and unt'y'd. *Pope.*
- * **UNANELED.** *adj.* [*un* and *knell*.] Without the bell rung. This sense I doubt.—Unbousel'd, unanointed, *unanel'd*. *Shak.*
- * **UNANIMATED.** *adj.* Not enlivened; not

vivified.—A lump of uninformed *unanimated* matter. *Dryden.*

* **UNANIMITY.** *n. f.* [*unanimité*, Fr.] Agreement in design or opinion.—An honest party of men acting with *unanimity*. *Addison.*

* **UNANIMOUS.** *adj.* [*unanime*, Fr. *unanimis*, Latin.] Being of one mind; agreeing in design or opinion.—*Unanimous*, as sons of one great fire. *Milton.*—All bred in arms, *unanimous* and brave. *Dryden.*

* **UNANIMOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *unanimous*.] With one mind.—This particular is *unanimously* reported. *Addison.*

* **UNANIMOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *unanimous*.] The state of being unanimous.

* **UNANPOINTED.** *adj.* 1. Not anointed. 2. Not prepared for death by extreme unction.—Unhousel'd, *unanointed*, unanel'd. *Shak.*

* **UNANSWERABLE.** *adj.* Not to be refuted. This is a manifest and *unanswerable* argument. *Ral.*—The emergent difficulties, are *unanswerable*. *Granv.*—The pye's question was *unanswerable*. *L'Estr.*—Reasons that are *unanswerable*. *Addison.*—The excuse, if real, is *unanswerable*. *Atter.*

* **UNANSWERABLY.** *adv.* Beyond confusion.—It *unanswerably* follows. *South.*

* **UNANSWERED.** *adj.* 1. Not opposed by a reply.—*Unanswer'd* lest thou boast. *Milton.*—

Must I tamely bear

This arrogance *unanswer'd*! *Addison.*

2. Not confuted.—Merriments and jests *unanswer'd*. *Hooker.* 3. Not suitably returned.—Quench, Corydon, thy long *unanswer'd* fire. *Dryden.*

* **UNAPPALLED.** *adj.* Not daunted; not impressed by fear.—Can thoughts still thinking so rest *unappalled*? *Sidney.*—Sat *unappall'd* in calm and sinless peace. *Milton.*—As a lion, *unappall'd* with fear. *Dryden.*—With eyes erect and visage *unappall'd*. *Smith.*

* **UNAPPARELLED.** *adj.* Not dressed; not clothed.—In Peru they were an *unapparelled* people. *Bacon.*—Till our souls be *unapparelled*. *Donne.*

* **UNAPPARENT.** *adj.* Obscure; not visible.—From the *unapparent* deep. *Milton.*

* **UNAPPEASEABLE.** *adj.* Not to be pacified; implacable.—The *unappeasable* rage. *Ral.*—Thy anger, *unappeasable*, still rages. *Milton.*

* **UNAPPEASED.** *adj.* Not pacified.—That so the shadows be not *unappeas'd*. *Shak.*—His son forgot, his enpress *unappeas'd*. *Dryden.*

* **UNAPPLICABLE.** *adj.* [from *apply*.] Such as cannot be applied.—He appeared now as *unapplicable* to their purposes as the other. *Clarend.*—Ideas, that demonstratively shew the equality or inequality of *unapplicable* quantities. *Locke.*

* **UNAPPREHENDED.** *adj.* Not understood.—They of whom God is altogether *unapprehended*. *Hooker.*

* **UNAPPREHENSIVE.** *adj.* [from *apprehend*.] 1. Not intelligent; not ready of conception.—He makes a man *unapprehensive* and insensible. *South.* 2. Not suspecting.

* **UNAPPROACHED.** *adj.* Inaccessible.—God is light,

And never but in *unapproached* light

Dwelt from eternity. *Milton.*

M m m m * **UNAPPROVED.**

* **UNAPPROVED.** *adj.* [from *unapprove*.] Not approved.—May come and go so *unapproved*. *Milt.*

* **UNAPT.** *adj.* [from *apt*.] 1. Dull; not apprehensive. 2. Not ready; not propense.—I am a soldier, and *unapt* to weep. *Shak.*—*Unapt* to stir at these indignities. *Shak.* 3. Unfit; not qualified; with *to* before a verb, *for* before a noun.—Fear is, of all affections (anger excepted) the *unaptest* to admit any conference with reason. *Hooker.*—Sensual pleasures make this spirit *unapt* for noble or wise employments. *Taylor.* 4. Improper; unfit; unsuitable.

* **UNAPTLY.** *adv.* [from *unapt*.] Unfitly; improperly.—His hinder legs do not *unaptly* resemble a pair of ours. *Grew.*

* **UNAPTTNESS.** *n. f.* [from *unapt*.] 1. Unfitness; unsuitableness.—The person that is gowned, is by his gown restrained from lightness by the very *unaptness* of his weed. *Spenser.* 2. Dulness; want of apprehension.—
That *unaptness* made you minister
Thus to excuse yourself. *Shak.*

3. Unreadiness; disqualification; want of preparation.—The mind gets an *unaptness*, or an aversion to any vigorous attempt. *Locke.*

* **UNARGUED.** *adj.* [from *argue*.] 1. Not disputed.—
What thou bidd'st—*Unargu'd* I obey. *Milt.*

2. Not censured.—
Not that this work liv'd in the hands of foes,
Unargu'd then. *B. Jonson.*

* **TO UNARM.** *v. a.* [from *arm*.] To disarm; to strip of armour; to deprive of arms.—*Unarm*, *unarm*, and do not fight to-day. *Shak.*—*Unarm*, me Eros. *Shak.*—*Unarming* the malice of venemous spirits. *Brook.*

* **UNARMED.** *adj.* [from *unarm*.] Having no armour; having no weapons.—*Unarm'd*, and unresolv'd to beat them back. *Shak.*
He all *unarm'd*
Shall chace thee with the terror of his voice. *Milton.*

—Though *unarm'd* I am. *Dryd.*—Man is born altogether *unarm'd*. *Grew.*

* **UNARRAIGNED.** *adj.* Not brought to a trial.—Should here be judg'd, unheard, and *unarraign'd*. *Daniel.*

* **UNARRAYED.** *adj.* Not dressed.—As if this infant world yet *unarray'd*. *Dryd.*—Half *unarray'd*, he ran to his relief. *Dryden.*

* **UNARTFUL.** *adj.* 1. Having no art, or cunning.—And innocence *unartful* in his face. *Dryd.* 2. Wanting skill.—How *unartful* it would have been. *Cheyne.*

* **UNARTFULLY.** *adv.* In an artful manner.—The report, although not *unartfully* drawn. *Swift.*

* **UNARTIFICIALLY.** *adv.* Contrarily to art.—Not a feather is *unartificially* made. *Derham.*

* **UNASKED.** *adj.* 1. Not courted by solicitation.—*Unask'd*, thou tak'st such pains to tell me. *Denham.* 2. Not sought by entreaty or care.—
The bearded corn enl'd
From earth *unask'd*. *Dryden.*
Unask'd their pains, ungrateful their advice. *Dryd.*

* **UNASPIRING.** *adj.* Not ambitious.—Most and *un aspiring*. *Rogers.*

* **UNASSAILED.** *adj.* Not attacked; not as-

saulted.—It grieves my soul to leave thee *unassail'd*. *Shak.*—To keep my life and honour *unassail'd*. *Milton.*

* **UNASSAILABLE.** *adj.* Exempt from assault.—One *unassailable* holds on his rank. *Shak.*

* **UNASSAYED.** *adj.* Unattempted.—What is faith, love, virtue *unassayed*. *Milton.*

* **UNASSISTED.** *adj.* Not helped.—Reason, *unassisted* by human power. *Addison.*—What *unassisted* reason could not discover. *Rogers.*

* **UNASSISTING.** *adj.* Giving no help.—Nor idle stood with *unassisting* hands. *Dryden.*

* **UNASSUMING.** *adj.* Not arrogant.—*Unassuming* worth in secret liv'd. *Thomson.*

* **UNASSURED.** *adj.* 1. Not confident.—A timorous and *unassured* countenance. *Glenn.* 2. Not to be trusted.—The feigned friends, the *unassured* foes. *Spenser.*

* **UNATTAINABLE.** *adj.* Not to be gained or obtained; being out of reach.—*Unattainable* by our discourse. *Dryd.*—I aim at no such *unattainable* privilege. *Locke.*

* **UNATTAINABLENESS.** *n. f.* State of being out of reach.—The impossibility, or *unattainableness* of the good proposed. *Locke.*

* **UNATTEMPTED.** *adj.* Untried; not assayed.—He left no means *unattempted* of destroying his son. *Sidney.*—But that my hand, as *unattempted* yet. *Shak.*—Things *unattempted* yet in prose or rhyme. *Milton.*—Leave nothing *unattempted*. *Denham.*—How many things have been left *unattempted*? *Atterbury.*

* **UNATTENDED.** *adj.* 1. Having no retinue, or attendants.—Goddess-like she went not *unattended*. *Milton.* 2. Having no followers.—*Unattended* generals. *Dryden.* 3. Unaccompanied; forsaken.—Hath left you *unattended*. *Shak.*

* **UNATTENDING.** *adj.* Not attending.—That praise address'd to *unattending* ears. *Milt.*—Neptune in anguish his charge *unattending*. *Dryd.*

* **UNATTENTIVE.** *adj.* Not regarding.—Man's nature is so *unattentive* to good. *Gow. Ton.*—Seldom draw the eyes of the *unattentive*. *Tait.*

* **UNATONED.** *adj.* Not expiated.—A brother's blood yet *unaton'd*. *Rowe.*

* **UNAVAILABLE.** *adj.* Useless; vain with respect to any purpose.—Wherefore is reading so *unavailable*? *Hooker.*

* **UNAVAILING.** *adj.* Useless; vain.—You safely *unavailing* pity show. *Dryd.*—And spreads for aid his *unavailing* hands. *Pope.*

* **UNAVOIDABLE.** *adj.* 1. Inevitable; not to be shunned.—*Unavoidable* occasions of war. *Dryden.*—It is *unavoidable* to all, to have opinions, without proofs of their truth. *Locke.*—Transgression will, through weakness, be *unavoidable* to the best guarded. *Rogers.*—The *unavoidable* deficiencies of our service. *Rogers.*—The *unavoidable* moment of death. *Clarissa.* 2. Not to be missed in ratiocination.—One of them is *unavoidable*. *Tillotson.*—I think it *unavoidable* for every rational creature, to have the notion of an eternal, wise being, who had no beginning. *Locke.*

* **UNAVOIDABLENESS.** *n. f.* Inevitability.—The *unavoidableness* of sensations. *Glenn.*

* **UNAVOIDABLY.** *adv.* Inevitably.—The most perfect administration must *unavoidably* produce opposition. *Addison.*

* UNAVOIDED

* **UNAVOIDED.** *adj.* Inevitable.—And *unavoided* is the danger now. *Shak.*

Rare poems ask rare friends;

Yet satyrs, since the most of mankind be

Their *unavoided* subject, fewest see. *B. Jonson.*

* **UNAUTHORISED.** *adj.* Not supported by authority; not properly commissioned.—

To kiss in private?

An *unauthorized* kiss. *Shak.*

—*Unauthorized*'d by my supreme command. *Dryd.*

* **UNAWARE.** } *adv.* [from *aware*, or *wary*.]

* **UNAWARES.** } 1. Without thought; with-

out previous meditation.—Take heed lest you fall

unawares into that inconvenience. *Spenser.*—It is

my father I *unawares* have kill'd. *Shak.*—We fall

into deception *unaware*. *Milton.*—He swallow'd

unawares the sleepy draught. *Dryden.*—'Tis a

temptation like that of a limb lopp'd off; one is

trying every minute *unawares* to use it, and finds

it is not. *Pope.* 2. Unexpectedly; when it is not

thought of, suddenly.—Left destruction come

upon him at *unawares*. *Psalms xxxvi. 8.*—My

hand, *unawares* to me, was carried up with violence.

Boyle.—We put the evil day far from us,

and then it catches us *unawares*. *Wake.* 3. In

this sense I believe at *unawares* is the proper use.

He breaks at *unawares* upon our walks,

And, like a midnight wolf, invades the fold.

Dryden.

* **UNAWED.** *adj.* Unrestrained by fear or reverence.—Ministers *unawed* by any guilt of their own. *Clarendon.*—Unforc'd by punishment,

unaw'd by fear. *Dryden.*

* **UNBACKED.** *adj.* 1. Not tamed; not

taught to bear the rider.—At which, like *unback'd*

colts, they prick'd their ears. *Shak.*—An *unback'd*

filly may give thee a fall. *Suckling.*—They flinch

like *unback'd* fillies. *Dennis.* 2. Not countenan-

ced; not aided.—

Let the weight of thine own infamy

Fall on the unsupported, and *unback'd*. *Daniel.*

* **UNBALANCED.** *adj.* Not poised; not in equipoise.—Let earth *unbalance'd* from her orbit fly. *Pope.*

* **UNBALLASTED.** *adj.* Unballasted wits.

Milton.—As at sea th' *unballast* vessel rides. *Addis.*

* **UNBANDED.** *adj.* [from *band*.] Wanting

a string, or band.—Your bonnet should be *un-*

banded. *Shak.*

* To **UNBAR.** *v. a.* [from *bar*.] To open, by

removing the bars; to unbolt.—If any other en-

trance stand *unbarr'd*. *Denham.*—The king re-

fus'd, nor would the gates *unbar*. *Dryden.*

* **UNBARBED.** *adj.* [*barba*, Latin.] Not

shav'd. Out of use.—Must I go hew them my

unbarbed fconce. *Shak.*

* **UNBARKED.** *adj.* [from *bark*.] Decortica-

ted; stripped of the bark.—A branch of a tree,

unbarked. *Bacon.*

* **UNBASHFUL.** *adj.* Impudent; shameless.

—Nor did I with *unbashful* forehead woo. *Shak.*

* **UNBATED.** *adj.* [from *bate*.] Not repre-

sed; not blunted.—Th' *unbated* fire. *Shak.*

* **UNBATHED.** *adj.* [from *bathe*.] Not wet.

—The blade return'd *unbathe'd*. *Dryden.*

* **UNBATTERED.** *adj.* Not injured by

blows.—Or else my sword, with an *unbatter'd*

edge. *Shak.*

* To **UNBAY.** *v. a.* To set open; to free from the restraint of mounds.—I ought now to *unbay* the current of my passion. *Norris.*

* **UNBEARING.** *adj.* Bringing no fruit.—*Unbearing* branches. *Dryden.*

* **UNBEATEN.** *adj.* 1. Not treated with blows.—For she had rode five miles unpurr'd,

unbeaten. *Bp. Corbet.* 2. Not trodden.—We must

tread *unbeaten* paths. *Bacon.*—If your bold muse

dare tread *unbeaten* paths. *Rowcommon.*—Some

new, *unbeaten* passage to the sky. *Swift.*

* **UNBECOMING.** *adj.* Indecent; unsuitable;

indecorous.—All things *unbecoming*. *Shak.*—No

unbecoming deed. *Milton.*—It was *unbecoming* of

any but Pan. *Dryden.*—My grief lets *unbecoming*

speeches fall. *Dryden.*—It appears most *unbecom-*

ing and unnatural. *Addis.*—*Unbecoming* passages

in plays. *Swift.*—*Unbecoming* warmth. *Swift.*

* **UNBECOMINGNESS.** *n. f.* Indecency;

indecorum.—Representing the ill or *unbecoming-*

ness of the fault. *Locke.*

* To **UNBED.** *v. a.* To raise from a bed.—

Eels *unbed* themselves. *Walton.*

* **UNBEFITTING.** *adj.* Not becoming; not

suitable.—Love is full of *unbefitting* strains. *Shak.*

—Or think thee *unbefitting* holiest place. *Milton.*

—*Unbefitting* his dignity and interest. *Swift.*

* To **UNBEGET.** *v. n.* To deprive of exis-

tence.—

Wishes each minute he could *unbget*

Those rebel sons. *Dryden.*

* **UNBEGOT.** } *adj.* [from *begot*.] 1. E-

* **UNBEGOTTEN.** } ternal; without gene-

ration.—The eternal, *unbegotten*, and immutable

God! *Stillingfleet.* 2. Not yet generated.—Your

children yet unborn, and *unbegot*. *Shak.*—The

race unbless'd, to being yet *unbegot*. *Milton.* 3. Not

attaining existence.—Better were it for him to

have been unborn and *unbegot*. *South.*

* To **UNBEGUILE.** *v. a.* To deceive; to

set free from the influence of any deceit.—Then

unbeguile thyself. *Donne.*—Their comeliness *un-*

beguiled the vulgar. *Howell.*

* **UNBEHELD.** *adj.* Unseen; not discove-

rable to the sight.—These then, though *unbeheld*

in deep of night. *Milton.*

* **UNBELIEF.** *n. f.* 1. Incredulity.—*Unbelief*

is blind. *Milton.*—I'm justly plagu'd by this your

unbelief. *Dryden.*—An excess of credulity or of

unbelief. *Watts.* 2. Infidelity; irreligion.—Where

profess'd *unbelief* is, there can be no visible church

of Christ. *Hooker.*

* To **UNBELIEVE.** *v. a.* 1. To discredit;

not to trust.—As I, thus wrong'd, hence *un-*

believed go. *Shak.*—It was enough to make any man

unbelieve his senses. *Wotton.* 2. Not to think real

or true.—Of such an unforeseen an *unbelieve'd* of-

fence. *Dryden.*

* **UNBELIEVER.** *n. f.* An infidel; one who

believes not the scripture of God.—Arguments

such as *unbelievers* themselves must think reason-

able. *Hooker.*—Sad fate of *unbelievers*, and yet

just. *Waller.*—Wicked ungodly men and *unbelie-*

vers. *Tillotson.*—One of them was a Christian,

and the other an *unbeliever*. *Atterbury.*—Men al-

ways grow vicious before they become *unbelievers*.

Swift.

* **UNBELIEVING.** *adj.* Infidel.—But th'

M m m m 3 *unbelieving*

unbelieving squadrons turn'd to flight. *Philips*.—The unbelieving Jews. *Addison*.—The unbelieving part of mankind. *Rogers*.

* **UNBELOVED**. *adj.* Not loved.—Who-e'er you are, not *unbelov'd* by heav'n. *Dryden*.

* **To UNBEND**. *v. a.* 1. To free from flexure.—It is lawful to relax and *unbend* our bow. *Taylor*.—With empty quiver, and *unbended* bow. *Dryd.* 3. To relax; to emit; to set at ease for a time.—Gave leave to slacken and *unbend* his cares. *Denb.*—From those great cares when ease your soul *unbends*. *Dryden.* 3. To relax vitiously of effeminately.—You *unbend* your noble strength. *Shak.*

* **UNBENDING**. *adj.* 1. Not suffering flexure.—Flies o'er th' *unbending* corn, and skims along the main. *Pope.* 2. Not yielding; resolute.—Ye noble few, who here *unbending* stand. *Thomf.* 3. Devoted to relaxation.—I hope it may entertain your lordship at an *unbending* hour. *Rowe.*

* **UNBENEFICED**. *adj.* Not preferred to a benefice.—

More vacant pulpits wou'd more converts make;

All wou'd have latitude enough to take:

The rest *unbenefic'd* your sects maintain. *Dryd.*

* **UNBENEVOLENT**. *adj.* Not kind.—A fierce *unbenevolent* behaviour. *Rogers*.

* **UNBENIGHTED**. *adj.* Never visited by darkness.—

Beyond the polar circles; to them day

Had *unbenighted* shone. *Milton.*

* **UNBENIGN**. *adj.* Malignant; malevolent.—In synod *unbenign*. *Milton.*

* **UNBENT**. *adj.* 1. Not strained by the string.—*Unbent* his bow. *Dryden.* 2. Having the bow unstrung.—To be *unbent* when thou hast ta'en thy stand! *Shak.* 3. Not crushed; not subdued.—But thou, secure of soul, *unbent* with woes. *Dryden.* 4. Relaxed; not intent.—But let thy thoughts be easy and *unbent*. *Denham.*

* **UNBESEEMING**. *adj.* Unbecoming.—No emotion transported me to do or say any thing *unbeseeeming* myself. *K. Charles*.—Uncomely courage, *unbeseeeming* skill. *Thomson.*

* **UNEESOUGHT**. *adj.* Not intreated.—Hath, *unbesought*, provided. *Milton.*

* **UNBESTOWED**. *adj.* Not given; not disposed of.—He had now but one son and one daughter *unbestowed*. *Bacon.*

* **UNBETRAYED**. *adj.* Not betrayed.—How hard is it to keep it *unbetray'd*? *Daniel.*

* **UNBEWAILED**. *adj.* Not lamented.—Hold *unbewail'd* their way. *Shak.*

* **To UNBEWITCH**. *v. a.* [from *witch*.] To free from fascination.

* **To UNBIASS**. *v. a.* To free from any external motive; to disentangle from prejudice.—That reason *unbiased* may give its judgment. *Lorke.*—*Unbias'd* minds. *Atterb.*—*Unbiasing* his mind, as much as possible. *Swift.*—*Unbias'd*, or by favour, or by spite. *Pope.*

* **UNBIASSEDLY**. *adv.* Without external influence; without prejudice.—I have *unbiasedly* embraced the true meaning.

* **UNBID**. *adj.* 1. Uninvited.—*Unbid*.

* **UNBIDDEN**. *den* guests. *Shak.* 2. Uncommanded; spontaneous.—

Thorn also and thistles it shall bring thee forth. *Unbid.*—Roses *unbid.* *Dryden.*—*Unbidden* earth shall wreathing ivy bring. *Dryden.*

* **UNBIGOTTED**. *adj.* Free from bigotry.—An *unbigotted* Roman Catholic. *Addis.*

* **To UNBIND**. *v. a.* [from *bind*.] To loose; to untie.—As did *Procles*, and it willfully *unbinds*. *Spenser.*—*Unbind* your fillets, loose your flowing hair. *Dryden.*—It was thought fit to *unbind* his head. *Tatler.*

* **To UNBISHOP**. *v. a.* [from *bishop*.] To deprive of episcopal orders.—I cannot look upon him as *unbishop'd* yet. *South.*

* **UNBITTED**. *adj.* [from *bit*.] Unbridled; unrestrained.—Our *unbitted* lusts. *Shak.*

* **UNBLAMABLE**. *adj.* Not culpable; not to be charged with a fault.—This *unblamable* inequality of fines and rates. *Bacon.*—That thus *unblameable* to all beside. *Dryd.*

* **UNBLAMABLY**. *adv.* Without taint of fault.—How *unblamably* we behaved ourselves. *1 Thess.* ii. 10.

* **UNBLAMED**. *adj.* Blameless; free from fault.—Shall spend your days in joy *unblam'd*. *Milton.*—*Unblam'd*, abundance crown'd the royal board. *Pope.*

* **UNBLEMISHED**. *adj.* Free from turpitude; free from reproach; free from deformity.—And thou, *unblemish'd* form of chastity! *Milton.*—*Unblemish'd* probity, and truth. *Waller.*—*Unblemish'd* life. *Dryden.*—*Unblemish'd* lives. *Addison.*

* **UNBLENDED**. *adj.* Not mingled.—*Unblended* proportions. *Glanv.*

* **UNBLEMISHED**. *adj.* Not disgraced; not injured by any foil.—She may pass on with *unblemish'd* majesty. *Milton.*

* **UNBLEST**. *adj.* 1. Accursed; excluded from benediction.—It is a shameful and *unblest* thing. *Bacon.* 2. Wretched; unhappy.—The race *unblest*, to being yet unbegot. *Milton.*—What is true passion, if *unblest* it dies? *Prior.*

* **UNBLOODIED**. *adj.* Not stained with blood. Altho' the kite soar with *unbloodied* beak. *Shak.*

* **UNBLOODY**. *adj.* Not cruel; not shedding blood; not stained with blood.—Have wholesome bev'rage and *unbloody* feasts. *Dryden.*

* **UNBLOWN**. *adj.* Having the bud yet unexpanded.—My *unblown* flowers, new-appearing sweets. *Shak.*

* **UNBLUNTED**. *adj.* Not becoming obtuse.—Able, *unblunted*, to cut hoofs away. *Cowley.*

* **UNBODIED**. *adj.* 1. Incorporeal; immaterial.—*Unbodied* spirits. *Watts.* 2. Freed from the body.—Her soul *unbodied* of the burdensome corpse. *Spenser.*—And here and there th' *unbody'd* spirit flies. *Dryden.*

* **UNBOILED**. *adj.* Not foddenn.—A quarter of a pint of rice *unboiled*. *Bacon.*

* **To UNBOLT**. *v. a.* To set open; to unbar.—He shall *unbolt* the gates. *Shak.*

* **UNBOLTED**. *adj.* Coarse; gross; not refined; as flour by bolting or sifting.—I will tread this *unbolted* villain into mortar. *Shak.*

* **UNBONNETED**. *adj.* Wanting a hat or bonnet.—*Unbonneted* he runs. *Shak.*

* **UNBOOKISH**. *adj.* 1. Not studious of books.

2. Not

2. Not cultivated by erudition.—His *unbookish* jealousy. *Shak.*

* **UNBORN.** *adj.* Not yet brought into life; future; being to come.—Some *unborn* sorrow. *Shak.*—The children yet *unborn*. *Shak.*—Never so much as in a thought *unborn*. *Shak.*—Far into chaos, and the world *unborn*. *Milton.*—Better end here *unborn*. *Milton.*—The souls of kings *unborn* for bodies wait. *Dryd.*

* **UNBORROWED.** *adj.* Genuine; native; one's own.—With native purple, and *unborrow'd* gold. *Dryden.*—Common and *unborrow'd* names. *Locke.*

* **UNBOTTOMED.** *adj.* 1. Without bottom; bottomless.—The dark *unbottom'd* infinite abyss. *Milt.* 2. Having no solid foundation; having no reliance.—This is a special act of Christian hope, to be thus *unbottomed* of ourselves, and fastened upon God. *Hammond.*

* **To UNBOSOM.** *v. a.* 1. To reveal in confidence.—*Unbosom'd* all my secrets to thee. *Milt.*—Do we *unbosom* all our secrets to him. *Atterb.* 2. To open; to disclose.—Would soon *unbosom* all their echo's mild. *Milton.*

* **UNBOUGHT.** *adj.* 1. Obtained without money.—The *unbought* dainties of the poor. *Dryd.* 2. Not finding any purchaser.—Native commodities *unbought*. *Locke.*

* **UNBOUND.** *adj.* 1. Loose; not tied. 2. Wanting a cover; used of books.—Volumes that lay *unbound*. *Locke.* 3. Preterite of *unbind*.—Some from their chains the faithful dogs *unbound*. *Dryd.*

* **UNBOUNDED.** *adj.* 1. Infinite; interminable.—I voyag'd the unreal, vast *unbounded* deep. *Milton.*—The wide, th' *unbounded* prospect lies before me. *Addis.* 2. Unlimited; unrestrained.—An *unbounded* stomach. *Shak.*—He had given his curiosity *unbounded* range. *Decay of Piety.*

* **UNBOUNDEDLY.** *adv.* Without bounds; without limits.—*Unboundedly* mischievous. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

* **UNBOUNDEDNESS.** *n. f.* Exemption from limits.—Infinite, the *unboundedness* of these degrees of properties. *Chenev.*

* **UNBOWED.** *adj.* Not bent.—And passeth by with stiff, *unbowed* knee. *Shak.*

* **To UNBOWEL.** *v. a.* To excerate; to eviscerate.—I'll *unbowel* the state of the question. *Hakew.*—*Unbowel* and dissect to try experiments. *Decay of Piety.*

* **To UNBRACE.** *v. a.* 1. To loose; to relax. Knit all his forces, and 'gan soon *unbrace* His grasping hold. *Spenser.*

—Drums *unbrac'd*. *Dryd.*—And numbing coldness has *unbrac'd* the ear. *Prior.*—Exhaust thy spirits, and thy arms *unbrace*. *Pope.* 2. To make the clothes loose.—To walk *unbrac'd*. *Shak.*—Hamlet, with his doublet all *unbrac'd*. *Shak.*

* **UNBREATHED.** *adj.* 1. Not exercised.—They now have toil'd their *unbreath'd* memories. *Shak.*

* **UNBREATHING.** *adj.* Unanimated.—But like dumb statues, or *unbreathing* fones. *Shak.*

* **UNBRED.** *adj.* 1. Not instructed in civility; ill educated.—*Unbred* minds must be a little sent abroad. *Gov. of Tong.*—*Unbred* or debauched servants. *Locke.*—Sure never any thing was so *unbred* as that odious man. *Congreve.* 2. Not taught;

with to.—*Unbred* to spinning, in the loom unskill'd. *Dryden.*

* **UNBREECHED.** *adj.* Having no breeches.—And saw myself *unbreeched*. *Shak.*

* **UNBRIBED.** *adj.* Not influenced by money or gifts; not hired.—

The soul gave all;—*Unbrib'd* it gave. *Dryd.* *Unbrib'd* by love; unterrify'd by threats. *A. Phil.*

* **UNBRIDLED.** *adj.* Licentious; not restrained.—This is not well, rash and *unbridled* boy. *Shak.*—*Unbridled* boldness. *B. Jonson.*—*Unbridled* excess. *Spratt.*

* **UNBROKE.** } *adj.* [from *break*.] 1. Not

* **UNBROKEN.** } violated.—God keep all vows *unbroke*, are made to thee. *Shak.*—Preserving their faith *unbroken*. *Taylor.*—He first broke peace in heav'n, and faith, till then—*Unbroken*. *Milton.* 2. Not subdued; not weakened.—And now began the third, *unbroken* yet. *Dryd.*—How broad his shoulders spread! by age *unbroke*! *Pope.* 3. Not tamed.—*Unbroken* to the plow. *Addison.*

* **UNBROTHERLIKE.** } *adj.* Ill suiting with

* **UNBROTHERLY.** } the character of a brother.—Victor's *unbrotherlike* heat towards the eastern churches. *Decay of Piety.*

* **UNBRUISED.** *adj.* Not bruised; not hurt.—The fresh, and yet *unbruised* Greeks do pitch. *Shak.*—*Unbruised* youth. *Shak.*

* **To UNBUCKLE.** *v. a.* To loose from buckles.—*Unbuckling* helms. *Shak.*—He that *unbuckles* this. *Shak.*—His starry helm *unbuckled*. *Milt.*—

All *unbuckling* the rich mail they wore. *Pope.*

* **To UNBUILD.** *v. a.* To raze; to destroy.—T' *unbuild* the city, and to lay all flat. *Shak.*

What will they then but *unbuild* His living temples. *Milton.*

* **UNBUILT.** *adj.* Not yet erected.—Built walls you shun, *unbuilt* you see. *Dryd.*

* **UNBURIED.** *ad.* Not interred; not honoured with the rites of funeral.—Why suffer'st thou thy sons, *unburied* yet. *Shak.*—A dead man *unburied* yet. *Shak.*—A dead man *unburied*. *Bacon.*—His *unbury'd* ghost. *Dryd.*—Of king's *unbury'd* on the wasted coasts. *Pope.*

* **UNBURNED.** } *adj.* 1. Not consumed; not

* **UNBURNT.** } wasted; not injured by fire. *Unburn'd*, *unburied*, on a heap they lie. *Dryd.*

2. Not heated with fire.—Burnt wine is more astringent, than wine *unburnt*. *Bacon.*

* **UNBURNING.** *adj.* Not consuming by heat.—The *unburning* fire called light, streaming from the flame of a candle. *Digby.*

* **To UNBURTHEN.** *v. a.* 1. To rid of a load.—*Unburden'd* crawl tow'rd death. *Shak.* 2. To throw off.—

Sharp Buckingham *unburthen*s with his tongue The envious load that lies upon his heart. *Shak.*

3. To disclose what lies heavy on the mind.—T' *unburthen* all my plots and purposes. *Shak.*

* **To UNBUTTON.** *v. a.* To loose any thing buttoned.—*Unbuttoning* thee after supper. *Shak.*—Leaving thy doublets *unbuttoned*. *Harvey.*—His silk waistcoat was *unbuttoned* in several places. *Addis.*

* **UNCALCINED.** *adj.* Free from calcination.—*Uncalcined* gold. *Boyle.*

* **UNCALLED.** *adj.* Not summoned; not sent for;

for; not demanded.—They came not *uncalled*. *Sidney*.—He, bolder now, *uncall'd* before her flood. *Milton*.—Mild Lucia came *uncall'd*. *Dryden*.

* *TO UNCALM*. *v. a.* To disturb. A harsh word.—What strange disquiet has *uncalm'd* your breast. *Dryden*.

* *UNCANCELLED*. *adj.* Nor erased; not abrogated.—

I only mourn my yet *uncancell'd* score. *Dryd.*

* *UNCANONICAL*. *adj.* Not agreeable to the canons.

* *UNCAPABLE*. *adj.* [*incapable*, *Fr.* *incapax*, *Lat.*] Not capable; not susceptible. Now more frequently *incapable*.—

A soney adversary, an inhuman wretch,

Uncapable of pity. *Shak.*

—*Uncapable* of pardon. *Hamm.*—*Uncapable* of conviction. *Locke*.

* *UNCARED for*. *adj.* Not regarded; not attended to.—They left their ghostly condition *uncared for*.

* *UNCARNATE*. *adj.* Not fleshly.—Nor need we be afraid to ascribe that to the incarnate son, which sometimes is attributed unto the *uncarnate* father. *Brown*.

* *TO UNCASE*. *v. a.* 1. To disengage from any covering.—See Pompey is *uncasing* for the combat. *Shak.*—*Uncase* thee; take my colour'd hat, and cloak. *Shak.*—*Uncase* me, and do with me what you please. *Addison*. 2. To slay; to strip.—All men him *uncas'd* gan deride. *Hubberd*.—The ass was discover'd, and consequently *uncas'd*. *L'Estr.*

* *UNCAUGHT*. *adj.* Not yet caught.—

Not in this land shall he remain *uncaught*. *Shak.*

His bosom glows with treasures yet *uncaught*. *Gay*.

* *UNCAUSED*. *adj.* Having no precedent cause.

* *UNCAUTIOUS*. *adj.* Not wary; heedless.—*Uncautious* Arcite thought himself alone. *Dryden*.

* *UNCELEBRATED*. *adj.* Not solemnized.

Nor pass'd *uncelebrated*, nor unsung. *Milt.*

* *UNCENSURED*. *adj.* Exempt from publick reproach.—How difficult for any ruler to live *uncensured*. *Addis.*—Whose right it is *uncensur'd* to be dull. *Pope*.—To be *uncensur'd*, and to be oblige, is the same thing. *Pope*.

* *UNCERTAIN*. *adj.* [*incertain*, *Fr.* *incertus*, *Lat.*] 1. Doubtful; not certainly known.—

That whether 'tis a part of earth or sky,

Uncertain seems. *Denham*.

2. Doubtful; not having certain knowledge.—Man is *uncertain* of every thing. *Tillotson*.—With certain pain, *uncertain* of relief. *Gramm.* 3. Not sure in the consequence.—*Uncertain* way of gain! *Shak.*—Or whistling slings dismiss'd th' *uncertain* stone. *Gay*.—An *uncertain* haste. *Pope*. 4. Not exact; not sure.—He bent his bow, *uncertain* in his aim. *Dryden*. 5. Unsettled; irregular.—As the form of our publick service is not voluntary, so neither are the parts thereof *uncertain*. *Hooker*.

* *UNCERTAINED*. *adj.* Made uncertain. A word not used.—The diversity of seasons are not so *uncertained* by the sun and moon alone. *Ral.*

* *UNCERTAINTY*. *adv.* 1. Not surely; not certainly.—For wealth, which so *uncertainly* must come. *Dryd.*—Known very imperfectly and *uncer-*

tainty. *Locke*. 2. Not confidently.—Speak softly or *uncertainly*. *Denham*.

* *UNCERTAINTY*. *n. f.* 1. Doubtfulness; want of knowledge.—Stay till fit time wear out *uncertainty*. *Denham*.—

You common cry of curs, whose breath I hate,

Here then remain with your *uncertainty*;

Let ev'ry feeble humour shake your hearts. *Shak.*

2. Inaccuracy.—Doubtfulness and *uncertainty* in the signification of some words. *Locke*. 3. Contingency; want of certainty.—God's omniscience is a light shining into every dark corner, redoubtably grasping the greatest and most slippery *uncertainties*. *South*. 4. Something unknown.—He that quits a moral certainty for an *uncertainty*. *L'Estr.*

* *TO UNCHAIN*. *v. a.* To free from chains.—So was his fame complete, and Andromede *unchain'd*. *Prior*.

* *UNCHANGEABLE*. *adj.* Immutable; not subject to variation.—Every such law ought for ever to remain *unchangeable*. *Hooker*.

* *UNCHANGEABLENESS*. *n. f.* Immutability.—*Unchangeableness* of colour. *Newot*.

* *UNCHANGEABLY*. *adv.* Immutably; without change.—All truth is *unchangeably* the same. *South*.—Must then subsist *unchangeably* the same. *Blackmore*.

* *UNCHANGED*. *x. f.* 1. Not altered.—Our spirits are *unchanged*. *Taylor*.—

More safe I sing with mortal voice, *unchang'd*

To hoarse, or mute. *Milton*.

2. Not alterable.—And heav'n's *unchang'd* decrees attentive hear. *Dryd.*—Honour *unchang'd*. *Pope*.

* *UNCHANGING*. *adv.* Suffering no alteration.—But that thy face is, vizard-like, *unchanging*. *Shak.*—True expression, like th' *unchanging* sun. *Pope*.

* *TO UNCHARGE*. *v. a.* To retract an accusation.—

Even his mother shall *uncharge* the practice,

And call it accident. *Shak.*

* *UNCHARITABLE*. *adj.* Contrary to charity; contrary to the universal love prescribed by christianity.—*Uncharitable* zeal our reason whets. *Denb.*—*Uncharitable* interpretations. *Add.*

* *UNCHARITABLENESS*. *n. f.* Want of charity.—Unretracted *uncharitableness*. *Gov. Tong.*—We are justly kept back by our own *uncharitableness*. *Kettlew.*—Heaven and hell are the proper regions of mercy and *uncharitableness*. *Atterb.*

* *UNCHARITABLY*. *adv.* In a manner contrary to charity.—Far be it from me that I should ever think so desperately, or with so *uncharitably*. *Spenser*.—*Uncharitably* with me you have dealt. *Shak.*—Men, imprudently and *uncharitably* often, employ their zeal for persons. *Spratt*.

* *UNCHARY*. *adj.* Not wary; not cautious not frugal.—And laid my honour too *unchary* out. *Shak.*

* *UNCHASTE*. *adj.* Lewd; libidinous; no continent; not chaste; not pure.—The most impudently *unchaste* woman of all Asia. *Sidn.*—With *unchaste* purposes. *Shak.*—Whoever is *unchaste* cannot reverence himself. *Bac.*—Lust, by *unchaste* looks. *Milton*.—*Unchaste* life. *Taylor*.

* *UNCHASTITY*. *n. f.* Lewdness; incontinence.—Intemperance, sensuality, and *unchastity*. *Woodw.*—A spirit of *unchastity*. *Arbuth.*

* *UNCHEERFULNESS*

* **UNCHEERFULNESS.** *n. f.* Melancholy; gloominess of temper.—A natural *uncheerfulness* of heart. *Addis.*

* **UNCHECKED.** *adj.* 1. Unrestrained; not hindered.—

Apt the mind, or fancy, is to rove

Unbeck'd. Milton.

—Thee on the wing thy *unbeck'd* vigour bore. *Smith.* 2. Not contradicted.—What news on the Ryalta? Why, yet it lives there *unbeck'd*, that Anthonio hath a ship of rich lading wreck'd. *Shak.*

* **UNCHEWED.** *adj.* Not masticated.—*Unchew'd* morsels. *Dryden.*

* **TO UNCHILD.** *v. a.* To deprive of children. —He hath widow'd and *unchild'd* many a one. *Shak.*

* **UNCHRISTIAN.** *adj.* 1. Contrary to the laws of Christianity.—It's uncharitable, *unchristian*, and inhuman. *L'Estr.*—These *unchristian* sithers of men. *South.*—Their hypothesis is *unchristian*. *Norris.* 2. Unconverted; infidel.—Whereupon grew a question, whether a christian soldier might here be as the *unchristian* did. *Hooker.*

* **UNCHRISTIANNESS.** *n. f.* Contrariety to christianity.—The *unchristianness* of those denials. *K. Char.*

(1.) **UNCIA**, in general, a Latin term, denoting the 12th part of any thing; particularly the 12th part of a pound, called in English an *ounce*; or the 12th part of a foot, called an *inch*.

(2.) **UNCIA.** See **FELIS**, N° XXVIII.

* **UNCIRCUMCISED.** *adj.* Not circumcised; not a Jew.—Th' *uncircumcis'd* smil'd grimly with disdain. *Cowley.*

* **UNCIRCUMCISION.** *n. f.* Omission of circumcision.—God, that gives the law that a Jew shall be circumcised, thereby constitutes *uncircumcision* an obliquity. *Hamm.*

* **UNCIRCUMSCRIBED.** *adj.* Unbounded; unlimited.—Though I, *uncircumscrib'd* myself, retire. *Milt.*—Power *uncircumscribed.* *Add.*—The regal authority was unlimited and *uncircumscrib'd*. *Addison.*

* **UNCIRCUMSPECT.** *adj.* Not cautious; not vigilant.—*Uncircumspect* simplicity. *Hayw.*

* **UNCIRCUMSTANTIAL.** *adj.* Unimportant. A bad word.—The like particulars, seem *uncircumstantial*. *Brown.*

* **UNCIVIL.** *adj.* [*incivil*, Fr. *incivilis*, Latin.] Unpolite; not agreeable to rules of elegance, or complaisance.—Undutiful, *uncivil*, and uncharitable dealing. *Whitgift.*—To keep me from *uncivil* outrages. *Shak.*—They would have me be *uncivil* to him. *Speck.*

* **UNCIVILIZED.** *adj.* 1. Not reclaimed from barbarity.—And kept unconquered, and *unciviliz'd*. *Pope.* 2. Coarse; indecent.—Coarse, *unciviliz'd* words. *Add.*

* **UNCIVILLY.** *adv.* Unpolitely; not complaisantly.—He broke forth as desperately, as before he had *uncivilly*. *Brown.*

* **UNCLARIFIED.** *adj.* Not purged; not purified.—One ounce of whey *unclarified*. *Bacon.*

* **TO UNCLASP.** *v. a.* To open what is shut with clasps.—

—Prayer can *unclasp* the girdles of the north. *Taylor.*

* **UNCLASSICK.** *adj.* Not claffick.—*Unclaffick* ground. *Pope.*

* **UNCLE.** *n. f.* [*oncle*, Fr.] The father's or mother's brother.—Hamlet punishes his *uncle* rather for his own death, than the murder of his father. *Shak.*

* **UNCLEAN.** *adj.* 1. Foul; dirty; filthy.—A length of beard descends, uncomb'd, *unclean*. *Dryd.*—But when the precious coin is kept *unclean*. *Dryd.* 2. Not purified by ritual practices.

3. Foul with sin.—What act more execrably *unclean*, profane? *Milton.*—Where no *unclean* thing shall enter. *Rogers.* 4. Lewd; unchaste.—And, fairy-like too, pinch the *unclean* knight. *Shak.*—Reproach us as *unclean*. *Milton.*—Inordinate and *unclean* affections. *Perkins.*

* **UNCLEANLINESS.** *n. f.* Want of cleanliness.—Profane liberty and *uncleanliness*. *Clar.*

* **UNCLEANLY.** *adj.* 1. Foul; filthy; nasty.—The very *uncleanly* flux of a cat. *Shak.* 2. Indecent; unchaste.—'Tis pity that these harmonious writers have ever indulged any thing *uncleanly* or impure. *Watts.*

* **UNCLEANNESS.** *n. f.* 1. Lewdness; incontinence.—Miserable houses of *uncleaness*. *Graunt.* 2. Want of cleanliness; nastiness.—Unhandsomeness, or *uncleaness*. *Tagl.* 3. Sin; wickedness.—I will save you from all your *uncleanesses*. *Exek.* 4. Want of ritual purity.

* **UNCLEANSED.** *adj.* Not cleansed.—Pond earth is a good compost, if the pond have been long *uncleaned*. *Bacon.*

* **TO UNCLECH.** *v. a.* To open the closed hand.—His fist *uncleches*, and the weapon falls. *Garth.*

* **TO UNCLEW.** *v. a.* [from *clew*.] To undo. If I should pay for't as 'tis extoll'd,

If would *unclew* me quite. *Shak.*

* **UNCLIPPED.** *adj.* Whole; not cut.—A distinction between clipped and *unclipped* money. *Locke.*

* **TO UNCLOATH.** *v. a.* To strip; to make naked.—The boughs are never *unclothed*. *Ral.*—Poor orphans minds are left as *unclothed* as their bodies. *Atterb.*—Cover the couch over with thick woollen clothes, the warmth whereof will make it come presently; which once perceived, forthwith *uncloath* it. *Mort.*—*Uncloath* them of all these mixtures. *Watts.*

* **TO UNCLOG.** *v. a.* 1. To disencumber; to exonerate.—It would *unclog* my heart. *Shak.* 2. To set at liberty. *Unclog'd* in empty space. *Dryd.*

* **TO UNCLOISTER.** *v. n.* To set at large.—*Uncloister'd* from the womb. *Norris.*

* **TO UNCLOSE.** *v. a.* To open.—Soon as thy letters trembling I *unclose*. *Pope.*

* **UNCLOSED.** *adj.* Not separated by inclosures.—Through those *unclosed* parts. *Clar.*

* **UNCLOUDED.** *adj.* Free from clouds; clear from obscurity; not darkened.—*Unclothed* deity. *Milton.*—*Unclothed* light. *Rose.*

Blest with temper, whose *unclothed* ray,
Can make to-morrow cheerful as to-day. *Pope.*

* **UNCLOUDEDNESS.** *n. f.* Openness; freedom

I have *unclasp'd*

To thee the book, ev'n of my secret soul. *Shak.*

dom from gloom.—The greatest *uncloudedness* of the eye. *Boyle*.

* **UNCLOUDY**. *adj.* Free from a cloud.—And twinkling orbs berflow th' *uncloudy* skies. *Guy*.

* **TO UNCLUTCH**. *v. a.* To open.—The terrors of the Lord could not melt his bowels, *unclutch* his griping hand, or dissize him of his prey. *Decay of Piety*.

* **TO UNCOIF**. *v. a.* To pull the cap off.—Yonder are two apple-women scolding, and just ready to *uncoif* one another. *Arbuth*.

* **TO UNCOIL**. *v. a.* [from *coil*.] To open from being coiled or wrapped one part upon another.—The spiral air-vessels are like threads of cobweb, a little *uncoiled*. *Derham*.

* **UNCOINED**. *adj.* Not coined.—A fellow of plain, *uncoined* constancy. *Shak*.—An ounce of *uncoined* standard silver. *Locke*.

* **UNCOLLECTED**. *adj.* Not collected; not recollected.—And to my soul yet *uncollected* said. *Prior*.

* **UNCOLOURED**. *adj.* Not stained with any colour, or die.—Things *uncoloured* and transparent. *Bacon*.—The *uncolour'd* sky. *Milton*.

* **UNCOMBED**. *adj.* Not parted or adjusted by the comb.—Curled, *uncombed* hairs. *Spens*.—Their locks are beds of *uncombed* snakes. *Crafsb*.—Thy locks *uncomb'd*, like a rough wood appear. *Dryd*.

* **UNCOMEATABLE**. *adj.* Inaccessible; unattainable. A low corrupt word.

* **UNCOMELINESS**. *n. f.* Want of grace; want of beauty.—Men thun the places for the *uncomeliness* thereof. *Spens*.—Reproof to all *uncomeliness*. *Shak*.—They ought for their *uncomeliness* to be exiled from judicious eyes. *Wotton*.—Real *uncomeliness*. *K. Char*.—The beauty or *uncomeliness* in good and ill breeding. *Locke*.

* **UNCOMELY**. *adj.* Not comely; wanting grace.—He thought inquisitiveness an *uncomely* guest. *Sidney*.—Neither is the same accounted an *uncomely* manner of riding. *Spens*.—They durst not go thither, for fear of *uncomely* affronts. *Clarend*.—*Uncomely* courage, unbecoming skill. *Thoms*.

* **UNCOMFORTABLE**. *adj.* 1. Affording no comfort; gloomy; dismal; miserable.—*Uncomfortable* exile. *Hooker*.—The most *uncomfortable* time of the year. *Add*.—Ours is melancholy and *uncomfortable* portion here below! *Wake*.—The sun ne'er views th' *uncomfortable* seats. *Pope*. 2. Receiving no comfort; melancholy.

* **UNCOMFORTABLENESS**. *n. f.* Want of cheerfulness.—The want of just dispositions may occasion this *uncomfortableness*. *Tayl*.

* **UNCOMFORTABLY**. *adv.* Without cheerfulness.

* **UNCOMMANDED**. *adj.* Not commanded.—Those *uncommanded*, absurd austerities of the Romish profession. *South*.

* **UNCOMMON**. *adj.* Not frequent; rare; not often found or known.—Some of them are *uncommon*. *Add*.

* **UNCOMMONLY**. *adv.* Not frequently; to an uncommon degree.

* **UNCOMMONNESS**. *n. f.* Infrequency; rareness; rarity.—Our admiration of the antiquities about Naples and Rome, does not so much arise out of their greatness as *uncommonness*. *Add*.

* **UNCOMMUNICATED**. *adj.* Not communicated.—Whatsoever is natural to deity, the same remaineth in Christ *uncommunicated* unto his manhood. *Hooker*.

* **UNCOMPACT**. *adj.* Not compact; not closely cohering.—How could a liquid, that lay hardening by degrees, settle in such a furrowed, *uncompact* surface? *Add*.

* **UNCOMPANIED**. *adj.* Having no companion.—Thence she fled, *uncompained*, unsought. *Fairfax*.

* **UNCOMPASSIONATE**. *adj.* Having no pity.—Her *uncompassionate* fire. *Shak*.—Drowned in the *uncompassionate* surges. *Sandys*.—In *uncompassionate* anger do not so. *Milt*.

* **UNCOMPELLED**. *adj.* Free from compulsion.—The amorous needle, once join'd to the loadstone, would never, *uncompelled*, forsake the enchanting mineral. *Boyle*.—Nor, *uncompell'd*, the dangerous truth betray. *Pope*.

* **UNCOMPLAISANT**. *adj.* Not civil; not obliging.—A natural roughness makes a man *uncomplaisant* to others. *Locke*.

* **UNCOMPLEAT**. *adj.* Not perfect; unfinished.—The *uncompleat* and unfinished parts of the fable. *Pope*.

* **UNCOMPOUNDED**. *adj.* 1. Simple; not mixed.—*Uncompounded* matter. *Newt*.—Your *uncompounded* atoms. *Blackm*. 2. Simple; not intricate.—The substance of the faith was comprised in that *uncompounded* style. *Hamn*.

* **UNCOMPREHENSIVE**. *adj.* 1. Unable to comprehend. 2. In *Shakespeare* it seems to signify *incomprehensible*.—

The providence, that's in a watchful state,
Knows almost every grain of Pluto's gold;
Finds bottom in th' *uncomprehensive* deep. *Shak*.

* **UNCOMPRESSED**. *adj.* Free from compression.—Full of *uncompressed* air. *Boyle*.

* **UNCONCEIVABLE**. *adj.* Not to be understood; not to be comprehended by the mind.—Obscure and *unconceivable*. *Locke*.—Small to an *unconceivable* degree. *Blackm*.

* **UNCONCEIVABLENESS**. *n. f.* Incomprehensibility.—The *unconceivableness* of something they find in one, throws men violently into the contrary hypothesis, though altogether as unintelligible. *Locke*.

* **UNCONCEIVED**. *adj.* Not thought; not imagined.—Vast is my theme, yet *unconceived*. *Creech*.

* **UNCONCERN**. *n. f.* Negligence; want of interest; freedom from anxiety; freedom from perturbation.—The want of judgment in friends, and the *unconcern* of different persons. *Swift*.

* **UNCONCERNED**. *adj.* 1. Having no interest.—*Unconcerned* in the changes of the world. *Tayl*.—The evidence of *unconcerned* senses. *Glanv*.—In matters, where we are wholly *unconcerned*. *Swift*. 2. Not anxious; not disturbed; not affected.—Before the thing it has *with* in *Milton*, for in *Dryden*, and *at* in *Rogers*.—

See the morn,
All *unconcerned* with our unrest, begins
Her rosy progress smiling. *Milton*.

—Can I be *unconcerned*? *Denb*.—And *unconcern'd* for all she felt before. *Dryd*.—Happy mortals *unconcern'd*

concern'd for more. *Dryd.*—We shall be easy and and *unconcern'd* at all the accidents of the way. *Rogers.*

* **UNCONCERNEDLY.** *adv.* Without interest or affection; without anxiety; without perturbation.—So *unconcernedly* can relate our woes. *Denh.*—And *unconcern'dly* cast his eyes around. *Dryd.*—Is heaven to be parted with so *unconcernedly*? *Bentley.*

* **UNCONCERNEDNESS.** *n. f.* Freedom from anxiety or perturbation.—No man, having done a kindness to another, would think himself justly dealt with, in a total neglect, and *unconcernedness* of the person who had received that kindness. *South.*

* **UNCONCERNING.** *adj.* Not interesting; not affecting; not belonging to one.—Things *unconcerning* to us. *Decay of Piety.*—So many *unconcerning* parts of knowledge. *Addison.*

* **UNCONCERNMENT.** *n. f.* The state of having no share.—An happy *unconcernment* in those legal murders. *South.*

* **UNCONCLUDENT.** } *adj.* Not decisive;

* **UNCONCLUDING.** } inferring no plain or certain conclusion or consequence.—Our arguments are inevident and *unconcludent*. *Hale.*—False and *unconcluding* reasonings. *Locke.*

* **UNCONCLUDINGNESS.** *n. f.* Quality of being unconcluding.—The unaccuracy and *unconcludingness* of the analytical experiments. *Boyle.*

* **UNCONCOCTED.** *adj.* Not digested; not matured.—We swallow cherry-stones, but void them *unconcocted*. *Brown.*—An *unconcocted*, evanid meteor. *Glanv.*

Where all th' amazing fireworks of the sky,
In *uncocted* seeds fermenting lie. *Blackmore.*

* **UNCONDEMNED.** *adj.* Not condemned. A familiar and *uncondemned* practice. *Locke.*

* **UNCONDITIONAL.** *adj.* Absolute; not limited by any terms.—Bind not thy sentence *unconditional*. *Dryd.*—An absolute and *unconditional* power. *Ayliffe.*

* **UNCONFINABLE.** *adj.* Unbounded.—Why, thou *unconfusable* baseness, it is as much as I can do to keep mine honour. *Shak.*

* **UNCONFINED.** *adj.* 1. Free from restraint.—That shews thou art *unconfined*. *Shak.*—The expression is more easy when *unconfined* by numbers. *Dryden.*—Poets, a race long *unconfined* and free. *Pope.* 2. Having no limits; unbounded.—Light, the same sufficient and *unconfined* good, whether ten thousand enjoy the benefit of it, or but one. *Spe3.*—Blest with a taste exact, yet *unconfined*. *Pope.*

* **UNCONFIRMED.** *adj.* 1. Not fortified by resolution; not strengthened; raw; weak.—In th' *unconfirm'd* troops, much fear did breed. *Dan.* 2. Not strengthened by additional testimony.—Nor was long
His witness *unconfirm'd*. *Milton.*

3. Not settled in the church by the rite of confirmation.

* **UNCONFORM.** *adj.* Unlike; dissimilar; not analogous.—Not *unconform* to other shining globes. *Milton.*

* **UNCONFORMABLE.** *adj.* Inconsistent; not conforming. That we may hold any thing
Vol. XXII. PART II.

unconformable. *Hooker.*—Moral evil is an *action* *unconformable* to the rule of our duty. *Watts.*

* **UNCONFORMITY.** *n. f.* Incongruity; inconsistency.—The moral goodness or evil of men's actions, consists in their conformity or *unconformity* to right reason. *South.*

* **UNCONFUSED.** *adj.* Distinct; free from confusion.—It is more distinct and *unconfused* than the sensitive memory. *Hale.*—Ideas *unconfused*. *Locke.*

* **UNCONFUSEDLY.** *adv.* Without confusion.—Distinctly and *unconfusedly*. *Locke.*

* **UNCONFUTABLE.** *adj.* Irrefragable; not to be convicted of error.—One argument they boasted of as *unconfutable*. *Spratt.*

* **UNCONGEALED.** *adj.* Not concentered by cold.—The aqueous parts will freeze, but the spirit will be found *uncongealed* in the center. *Brown.*

* **UNCONJUGAL.** *adj.* Not consistent with matrimonial faith; not bestitting a wife or husband.—Of falsehood most *unconjugal* traduc'd. *Mils.*

* **UNCONNECTED.** *adj.* Not coherent; not joined by proper transitions or dependence of parts; lax; loose; vague.—*Unconnected* discourse. *Watts.*

* **UNCONNEIVING.** *adj.* Not forbearing penal notice.—

To that hideous place not so confined,
By rigour *unconneiving*. *Milton.*

* **UNCONQUERABLE.** *adj.* Not to be subdued; insuperable; not to be overcome; invincible.—His *unconquerable* arms. *Dryd.*—Spadillo, first *unconquerable* lord. *Pope.*

* **UNCONQUERABLY.** *adv.* Invincibly; insuperably.—Wild, furious herds, *unconquerably* strong. *Pope.*

* **UNCONQUERED.** *adj.* 1. Not subdued; not overcome.—And still *unconquer'd* by my foes. *Denham.*—*Unconquer'd* yet. *Dryd.* 2. Insuperable; invincible.—*Unconquered* courage. *Sid.*—That wife Minerva wore, *unconquer'd* virgin. *Milton.*

* **UNCONSCIONABLE.** *adj.* 1. Exceeding the limits of any just claim or expectation.—An *unconscionable* request. *L'Estr.* 2. Forming unreasonable expectations.—You cannot be so *unconscionable*. *Dryden.* 3. Enormous; vast. A low word.—Stalking with less *unconscionable* strides. *Milt.* 4. Not guided or influenced by conscience.—How infamous is the false, fraudulent, and *unconscionable*. *South.*

* **UNCONSCIONABLENESS.** *n. f.* Unreasonableness of hope or claim.

* **UNCONSCIONABLY.** *adv.* Unreasonably.—Be used so *unconscionably* hard. *Hudib.*—*Unconscionably* dear. *Dryd.*

* **UNCONSCIOUS.** *adj.* 1. Having no mental perception.—*Unconscious* causes. *Blackm.* 2. Unacquainted; unknowing.—Untam'd, *unconscious* of the galling yoke. *Pope.*

* **UNCONSECRATED.** *adj.* Not sacred; not dedicated; not devoted.—The sin of Israel had even *unconsecrated* and profaned that sacred edifice. *South.*

* **UNCONSENTED.** *adj.* Not yielded.—The weaknesses of our nature, *unconsented* to, will not be imputed to us. *Wake.*

* **UNCONSIDERED.** *adj.* Not considered;
N n n n n o n

not attended to.—Not *unconsidered* leave your honour *Shak.*—It will not be *unconsidered*. *Brown.*

• **UNCONSONANT.** *adj.* Incongruous; unfit; inconsistent.—It seemeth a thing *unconsonant*. *Hooker.*

• **UNCONSTANT.** *adj.* [*inconstant*, Fr. *inconstant*, Latin.] Fickle; not ready; changeable; mutable.—More *unconstant* than the wind. *Shak.* Th' *unconstant* *Sciva, May.*

• **UNCONSTRAINED.** *adj.* Free from compulsion.—Will your, with free and *unconstrained* soul. *Shak.*—A free and *unconstrained* will. *Ral.*

His highness is return'd.—

And *unconstrain'd*. *Denham.*
—We *unconstrain'd*, what he commands us, do. *Dryden.*

• **UNCONSTRAINEDLY.** *adv.* Without force suffered.—Such a patron has frankly, generously, and *unconstrainedly* relieved me. *South.*

• **UNCONSTRAINT.** *n. f.* Freedom from constraint; ease.—That air of freedom and *unconstrained*. *Felton.*

• **UNCONSULTING.** *adj.* [*inconsultus*, Lat.] Heady; rash; improvident; imprudent.—*Unconsulting* affection. *Sidney.*

• **UNCONSUMED.** *adj.* Not wasted; not destroyed by any wasting power.—With ever-burning sulphur *unconsumed*. *Milton.*—A power to remain in the fire *unconsumed*.

• **UNCONSUMMATE.** *adj.* Not consummated.—He left his house betroth'd, and *unconsummate* night. *Dryden.*

• **UNCONTEMNED.** *adj.* Not despised.—Which of the peers
Have *uncontemn'd* gone by him. *Shak.*

• **UNCONTENTED.** *adj.* Not contented; not satisfied.—Do lead this *uncontented* gift away. *Dryd.*

• **UNCONTENTINGNESS.** *n. f.* Want of power to satisfy.—The *uncontentingness* of all other goods. *Egyle.*

• **UNCONTESTABLE.** *adj.* Indisputable; not controvertible.—*Uncontestible* evidence of truth. *Locke.*

• **UNCONTESTED.** *adj.* Not disputed; evident.—'Tis by experience *uncontested* found. *Blackm.*

• **UNCONTRITE.** *adj.* Not religiously penitent.—An *uncontrite* sinner. *Hamm.*

• **UNCONTROVERTED.** *adj.* Not disputed; not liable to debate.—The *uncontroverted* certainty of mathematical science. *Gl'v.*

• **UNCONTROULABLE.** *adj.* 1. Resistless; powerful beyond opposition.—His *uncontrovable* intent. *Milton.* 2. Indisputable; irrefragable.—The king's *uncontrovable* title to England. *Hayw.*—An *uncontrovable* maxim. *Swift.*

• **UNCONTROULABLY.** *adv.* 1. Without possibility of opposition. 2. Without danger of refutation.—*Uncontrovably*, and under general consent. *Brown.*—They might safely and *uncontrovably* pretend it greater or less. *South.*

• **UNCONTROULED.** 1. Unrefined; unopposed; not to be overruled.—

Should I try the *uncontroled* worth

Of this pure cause. *Milton.*

—Extends thy *uncontrold*, and boundless reign. *Dryd.*—The British navy, *uncontrold*. *Phil.* 2.

Not convinced; not refuted.—That Julius Cæsar was so born, is an *uncontroled* report. *Hayward.*

• **UNCONTROLEDLY.** *adv.* Without controul; without opposition.—Honour it commands *uncontroledly*. *Decay of Piety.*

• **UNCONVERSABLE.** *adj.* Not suitable to conversation; not social.—Morose, *unconversible* qualities. *Rogers.*

• **UNCONVERTED.** *adj.* 1. Not persuaded of the truth of Christianity.—Nations, yet *unconverted*. *Hooker.*—The *unconverted* heathens. *Addis.*—The guilt and misery of their former *unconverted* estate. *Rogers.* 2. Not religious; not yet induced to live a holy life.—Thus Baxter wrote a Call to the *Unconverted*.

• **UNCONVINCED.** *adj.* Not convinced.—The ignorant and *unconvinced*. *Locke.*

• **TO UNCORD.** *v. a.* To loose a thing bound with cords.

• **UNCORRECTED.** *adj.* Inaccurate; not polished to exactness.—It comes out from the first draught, and *uncorrected*. *Dryd.*

• **UNCORRUPT.** *adj.* Honest; upright; not tainted with wickedness; not influenced by iniquitous interest.—*Uncorrupt* judgment. *Hooker.*—For ever *uncorrupt* and pure. *Swift.*

• **UNCORRUPTED.** *adj.* Not vitiated; not depraved.—But from the *uncorrupted* blood of kings. *Rosom.*—No rule but *uncorrupted* reason knew. *Dryd.*—I wish we had more of them *uncorrupted*. *Locke.*

• **UNCORRUPTNESS.** *n. f.* Integrity; uprightness.—In doctrine, shew *uncorruptness*, gravity, sincerity. *Tit. ii. 7.*

• **TO UNCOVER.** *v. a.* 1. To divest of a covering.—*Uncover* your bed. *Harvey.*—The very instant it is *uncovered*. *Locke.* 2. To deprive of clothes.—Thou wert better in thy grave, than to answer, with thy *uncovered* body, this extremity of the skies. *Shak.* 3. To strip of the roof.—Porches and schools—*Uncover'd*. *Prior.* 4. To shew openly; to strip of veil, or concealment.—He cover'd; but his robe

Uncover'd more. *Milton.*

—There will come some day to *uncover* every soul of us. *Pope.* 5. To bare the head, as in the presence of a superior.—Than stand *uncover'd* to the vulgar groom. *Shak.*

• **UNCOUNSELLABLE.** *adj.* Not to be advised.—It would have been *uncounsellable* to have marched. *Clarendon.*

• **UNCOUNTABLE.** *adj.* Innumerable.—Those *uncountable*, glorious bodies the stars. *Ral.*

• **UNCOUNTERFEIT.** *adj.* Genuine; not spurious.—Not only *uncounterfeit*, but most fervent. *Spratt.*

• **TO UNCOUPLE.** *v. a.* To loose dogs from their couples.—*Uncouple* in the western valley, go. *Shak.*—*Uncouple* here, and let us make a bay. *Shak.*—Th' *uncoupled* hounds began the chase. *Dryd.*

• **UNCOURTEOUS.** *adj.* Uncivil; unpollite.—In behaviour never *uncourteous*. *Sidney.*

• **UNCOURTEOUSLY.** *adv.* Uncivilly; unpollitely.—Though somewhat merrily, yet *uncourteously* he hailed. *Alcham.*

• **UNCOURTLINESS.** *n. f.* Unsuitableness of manners to a court; inelegance.—The *uncourtliness* of their phrases. *Addison.*

• **UNCOURTLY.**

* **UNCOURTLY**. *adj.* Inelegant of manners; uncivil.—The lord treasurer hath been so *uncourtly* as to stop it. *Swift*.

* **UNCOUTH**. *adj.* [*uncuth*, Saxon.] Odd; strange; unusual.—A very *uncouth* fight was to behold. *Spens*.—*Uncouth* in arms yclad and strange disguise. *Fairfax*.—I am surprised with an *uncouth* fear. *Shak*.—This *uncouth* dream of evil sprung, I fear. *Milton*.—Bound on a voyage *uncouth* and obscure. *Milton*.—It was to *uncouth* a fight for a fox to appear without a tail. *L'Esran*.—*Uncouth*, perhaps unlawful to reveal. *Dryden*.—The meaning of the author seems harsh and *uncouth* to me. *Locke*.—*Uncouth* and rugged. *Baker*.

* **UNCOUTHLY**. *adv.* Oddly; strangely. Venetians do not more *uncouthly* ride. *Dryd*.

* **UNCOUTHNESS**. *n. f.* Oddness; strangeness.—The disadvantage of *uncouthness*. *Decay*.

* To **UNCREATE**. *v. a.* To annihilate; to reduce to nothing; to deprive of existence.—Left what I made I *uncreate*. *Carver*.—Who can *uncreate* thee thou shalt know. *Mil*.—Light dies before her *uncreating* word. *Pope*.

* **UNCREATED**. *adj.* 1. Not yet created.—Misery *uncreated* till the crime. *Mil*. 2. [*Incréé*, Fr.] Not produced by creation.—What can a being *uncreated* bound. *Black*.—The next paragraph proves that the idea we have of God is God himself; it being something, as he says, *uncreated*. *Locke*.

* **UNCREDITABLENESS**. *n. f.* Want of reputation.—To all other dissuaves we may add the *uncreditableness*. *Decay of Piety*.

* **UNCROPPED**. *adj.* Not cropped; not gathered.—

Thy abundance wants Partakers, and *uncropp'd* falls to the ground. *Mil*.

* **UNCROSSED**. *adj.* Uncancelled.—

Such gain the cap of him that makes them fine, Yet keeps his book *uncross'd*. *Shak*.

* **UNCROUDED**. *adj.* Not straitened by want of room.—

An amphitheatre,

That held *uncrouded* nations in its womb. *Add*.

* To **UNCROWN**. *v. a.* To deprive of a crown; to deprive of sovereignty.—And therefore I'll *uncrown* him ere't be long. *Shak*.—See a sacred king *uncrown'd*. *Dryden*.

(1.) * **UNCTION**. *n. f.* [*onction*, Fr.] 1. The act of anointing.—The *unction* of the tabernacle. *Hooker*. 2. Unguent; ointment.—The king himself the sacred *unction* made. *Dryd*. 3. The act of anointing medically.—They should use bathing in hot water, rather than *unctions*. *Arbut*. 4. Any thing softening or lenitive.—Lay not that flattering *unction* to your soul. *Shak*. 5. The rite of anointing in the last hours.—Extreme *unction*, administered as the dying man's viaticum. *Hamm*. 6. Any thing that excites piety and devotion; that which melts to devotion.

(2.) **UNCTION**, in matters of religion, is used for the character conferred on sacred things by anointing them with oil. *Unctions* were very frequent among the Hebrews. They anointed both their kings and high priests at the ceremony of their inauguration. They also anointed the sacred vessels of the tabernacle and temple, to sanctify and consecrate them to the service of God. The *unction* of kings is supposed to be a ceremony in-

troduced very late among the Christian princes. It is said that none of the emperors were ever anointed before Justinian or Justin. The emperors of Germany took the practice from those of the eastern empire: king Pepin of France was the first who received the *unction*. In the ancient Christian church, *unction* always accompanied the ceremonies of baptism and confirmation. Extreme *unction*, or the anointing persons in the article of death, was also practised by the ancient Christians, in compliance with the precept of St James, chap. v. 14th and 15th verses; and this extreme *unction* the Romish church has advanced to the dignity of a sacrament. It is administered to none but such as are affected with some mortal disease, or in a decrepit age. It is refused to impenitent persons, as also to criminals. The parts to be anointed are, the eyes, the ears, the nostrils, the mouth, the hands, the feet, and the reins. The laity are anointed in the palms of the hands, but priests on the back of it; because the palms of their hands have been already consecrated by ordination. The oil with which the sick person is anointed represents the grace of God, which is poured down into the soul, and the prayer used at the time of anointing expresses the remission of sins thereby granted to the sick person; for the prayer is this:—"By this holy *unction*, and his own most pious mercy, may the Almighty God forgive thee whatever sins thou hast committed by the fight," when the eyes are anointed; by the bearing, when the ears are anointed; and so of the other senses.

* **UNCTUOSITY**. *n. f.* [from *unctuosus*.] Fatness; oiliness.—Fulgurous exhalations contain an *unctuosity*. *Brown*.

* **UNCTUOUS**. *adj.* Fat; clammy; oily.—And morsels *unctuous* grease his pure mind. *Shak*.—Compact of *unctuous* vapour. *Mil*.—So fat and *unctuous*. *Heylyn*.—The trees were *unctuous* fir, and mountain ash. *Dryden*.—Whether they *unctuous* exhalations are. *Dryden*.—Dilating, and with *unctuous* vapour fed. *Philips*.—Fat, sulphureous, *unctuous* bodies. *Newton*.

* **UNCTUOUSNESS**. *n. s.* Fatness; oiliness; clamminess; greasiness.—A great degree of *unctuousness*. *Boyle*.

* **UNCUCKOLDED**. *adj.* Not made a cuckold.—It is a deadly sorrow to behold a soul *knave uncuckolded*. *Shak*.

* **UNCULLED**. *adj.* Not gathered.—First-fruits, the green ear, and the yellow sheaf, *Uncull'd*, as he came to hand. *Mil*.

* **UNCULPABLE**. *adj.* Not blameable.—They are in that respect *unculpable*. *Hooker*.

* **UNCULTIVATED**. *adj.* [*incultus*, Latin.] 1. Not cultivated; not improved by tillage.—Our use *uncultivated* lay. *Dryd*.—Common and *uncultivated*. *Locke*. 2. Not instructed; not civilized.—Too grave for their *uncultivated* age. *Rosc*.—*Uncultivated* nature left to itself. *Locke*.

* **UNCUMBERED**. *adj.* Not burthened; not embarrassed.—Lord of yourself, *uncumber'd* with a wife. *Dryd*.

* **UNCURBABLE**. *adj.* That cannot be curbed or checked. Not used.—So much *uncurbable* her garboyles. *Shak*.

* **UNCURBED**. *adj.* Licentious; not restrained.—With frank and with *uncurbed* plainness. *Shak*.

(1.) * *To UNCURL. v. a.* To loose from ringlets, or convolutions.—

There stands a rock, the raging billows roar
Above his head in storms, but when 'tis clear,
Uncurl their ridgy backs, and at his feet appear.

Dryd.

—He sheaths his paws, *uncurls* his angry mane.
Dryd.—And snakes *uncurl'd* hang list'ning round
their heads. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To UNCURL. v. n.* To fall from the ringlets.—My fleece of woolly hair now *uncurls*.
Shak.

* *UNCURLED. adj.* Not collected into ringlets.—With honest faces, though *uncurl'd* hair.
Dryd.—Curl'd or *uncurl'd* since locks will turn to grey. *Pope.*

* *UNCURRENT. adj.* Not current; not passing in common payment.—A piece of *uncurrent* gold. *Shak.*—Are shuffled off with such *uncurrent* pay. *Shak.*

* *To UNCURSE. v. a.* To free from any execration.—*Uncurse* their souls; their peace is made. *Shak.*

* *UNCURST. adj.* Not execrated.—Unthreatened, *uncurs'd* by any language or secret imprecation of mine. *K. Charles.*—Heav'n sure has kept this spot of earth *uncurst*. *Waller.*

* *UNCUT. adj.* Not cut.—And trees *uncut* fall for his fun'ral pile. *Waller.*—A nail *uncut*, and head uncomb'd the loves. *Young.*

* *To UNDA. v. a.* To open; to free from the restraint of mounds.—*Undams* his wat'ry stores.
Dryd.

* *UNDAMAGED. adj.* Not made worse; not impaired.—
Plants will frequent changes try,

Undamag'd.

Philips.

* *UNDAUNTED. adj.* Unsubdued by fear; not depressed.—

Bring forth men children only;

For thy *undaunted* metal should compose

Nothing but males.

Shak.

—And in his burning ship *undaunted* fought
Dryd.—*Undaunted* worth, inviolable truth. *Dryd.*

* *UNDAUNTEDNESS. n. f.* Boldness; bravery; intrepidity.—Luther shewed a particular *undauntedness* in the cause of truth. *Atterb.*—*Undauntedness* under dangers. *Pope.*

* *UNDAUNTEDLY. adv.* Boldly; intrepidly; without fear.—It shall bid his soul go out of his body *undauntedly*. *South.*

* *UNDAZZLED. adj.* Not dimmed, or confused by splendor.—

Here matter new to gaze the devil met

Undazzled.

Milt.

—*Undazzled* and untroubled eyes. *Boyle.*

* *To UNDEAF. v. a.* To free from deafness.

My death's sad tale may yet *undeaf* his ear.

Shakspere.

* *UNDEBAUCHED. adj.* Not corrupted by debauchery.—Her sons were *undebauch'd*, and therefore strong. *Dryden.*

* *UNDECAGON. n. f.* [from *undecim*, Latin, and *gon*, Gr.] A figure of eleven angles or sides.

* *UNDECAYING. adj.* Not suffering diminution or declension.—Their parents *undecaying* strength declare. *Blackmore.*

* *UNDECAYED. adj.* Not liable to be di-

1

minished or impaired.—How fierce in fight, with courage *undecay'd*. *Dryd.*—

If in the melancholy shades below,

The flames of friends and lovers cease to glow;

Yet mine shall sacred last; mine *undecay'd*.

Burn on thro' life, and animate my shade. *Pope.*

* *To UNDECEIVE. v. a.* To set free from the influence of a fallacy.—

All men will try, and hope to write as well,
And, not without much pains, be *undeciev'd*.

Roscommon.

—And *undecieve* the long abused age. *Denham.*
Our coming judgments do in part *undecieve* us.
Glavv.—Christ saves the world by *undecieving* it. *South.*

* *UNDECEIVABLE. adj.* Not liable to deceive, or be deceived.—An *undecivable* calculation. *Holder.*

* *UNDECEIVED. adj.* Not cheated; not imposed on.—Secure repose, and kindness *undeciev'd*. *Dryd.*

UNDECEMVir, a magistrate among the ancient Athenians, who had 10 other colleagues or associates joined with him in the same commission. They took care of the apprehending of criminals, secured them in the hands of justice, and when they were condemned, took them again into custody, that the sentence might be executed on them. They were chosen by the tribes, each tribe naming its own; and as the number of the tribes after Calisthenes was but 10, which made 10 members, a scribe or sotary was added, which made the number 11.

* *UNDECEIDED. adj.* Not determined; not settled.—Twenty things *undecided* by the express word of God. *Hooker.*—'Tis *undecided* by the men of skill. *Roscommon.*—Aristotle has left *undecided* the duration of the action. *Dryd.*—Long *undecided* lasts the airy strife. *Philips.*

* *To UNDECK. v. a.* To deprive of ornaments.—T' *undeck* the pompous body of a king. *Shak.*

* *UNDECKED. adj.* Not adorned; not embellished.—Eve has *undeck'd* save with herself. *Milton.*

* *UNDECISIVE. adj.* Not decisive; not conclusive.—An *undecisive* experiment. *Glavv.*

* *UNDECLINED. adj.* 1. Not grammatically varied by termination. 2. Not deviating; not turned from the right way.—His *undeclined* ways precisely kept. *Sandys.*

* *UNDEDICATED. adj.* 1. Not consecrated; not devoted. 2. Not inscribed to a patron.—I should let this book come forth *undedicated*. *Boyle.*

* *UNDEEDED. adj.* Not signalized by action.—I sheath my sword *undeeded*. *Shak.*

* *UNDEFACED. adj.* Not deprived of its form; not disfigured.—Though torn by mortars, stand yet *undefac'd*. *Gravv.*

* *UNDEFEASIBLE. adj.* Not defeasible; not to be vacated or annulled.

* *UNDEFILED. adj.* Not polluted; not vitiated; not corrupted.—*Undefil'd* rewards. *Wisdan.* iv. 3.—Whose bed is *undefil'd*. *Milton.*—Unmix'd with foreign filth, and *undefil'd*. *Dryd.*

* *UNDEFINED. adj.* Not circumscribed, or explained by a definition.—Legions of obscure, *undefined* words. *Locke.*

* *UNDEFINABLE. adj.* Not to be marked out

ut; or circumscribed by a definition.—Those sounds to us are *undefinable*. *Grew*.—Simple ideas are *undefinable*. *Locke*.

* **UNDEFORMED**. *adj.* Not deformed; not misfigured.—*Undeform'd* by battles. *Pope*.

* **UNDEFIED**. *adj.* Not set at defiance; not challenged.—False traitor, thou to strike foe *undefied*. *Spenser*.—He basely threw it at him, *undefy'd*. *Dryd*.

* **UNDELIBERATED**. *adj.* Not carefully considered.—The prince's *undeliberated* throwing himself into that engagement, transported him with passion. *Clarendon*.

* **UNDELIGHTED**. *adj.* Not pleased; not touched with pleasure.—

The fiend saw, *undelighted*, all delight. *Miln*.

* **UNDELIGHTFUL**. *adj.* Not giving pleasure.—*Undelightful* condition of life. *Clarendon*.

* **UNDEMOLISHED**. *adj.* Not razed; not thrown down.—She *undemolish'd* stood. *Phil*.—They stood by, and suffered Dunkirk to lie *undemolish'd*. *Swift*.

* **UNDEMONSTRABLE**. *adj.* Not capable of fuller evidence.—Certain, common, and *undemonstrable* principles. *Hooker*.

* **UNDENIABLE**. *adj.* Such as cannot be gaind.—An *undeniable* verity. *Sidney*.—He supposed the principles *undeniable*. *White*.—We have a plain and *undeniable* certainty. *Woodward*.

* **UNDENIABLY**. *adv.* So plainly, as to admit no contradiction.—It is *undeniably* founded in holy writ. *Hammond*.—This account is *undeniably* rejected by the moderns. *Brown*.—This *undeniably* follows. *Dryden*.

* **UNDEPLORED**. *adj.* Not lamented.—Rife, wretched widow! rife; nor *undeplored*. Permit my ghost to pass this Stygian ford. *Dryd*.

* **UNDEPRAVED**. *adj.* Not corrupted.—Our *undeprecated* natures. *Glanv*.

* **UNDEPRIVED**. *adj.* Not divested by authority; not stripped of any possession.—He, *undepri'd*, his benefice forfook. *Dryd*.

(1.) * **UNDER**. *preposition*. [*under*, Gothick; *under*, Saxon; *onder*, Dutch.] 1. In a state of subjection to.—The world was *under* Jove. *Dryd*.—*Under* the determination of some other than himself. *Locke*. 2. In the state of pupillage to.—

To those that live—*Under* thy care. *Dentb*.

—The princes made such improvements *under* him. *Guard*. 3. Beneath; so as to be covered, or hidden; not over; not above.—Bottles let down into wells *under* water. *Bacon*.—Clapp'd on ship-board *under* hatches. *Fell*.—If it had not been *under* water. *Burn*.—Thy bees lodge *under* covert of the wind. *Dryd*.—Many a good poetick vein is buried *under* a trade. *Locke*. 4. Below in place; not above. This is the sense of *under* sail; that is, *having the sails* spread aloft.—As they went *under* sail by him. *Sidn*.—When the false Trojan *under* sail was seen. *Shak*.—Missetoe hath been found to put forth *under* the boughs. *Bac*.—Be gather'd now, ye waters, *under* heav'n. *Milt*. 5. In a less degree than.—Medicines take effect, sometimes *under*, and sometimes above, the natural proportion of their virtue. *Hook*.—If you write in your strength, you stand revealed at first; and should you write *under* it, you cannot avoid some peculiar graces. *Dryd*. 6. For less than.—We

are thrifty enough not to part with any thing serviceable, *under* a good consideration. *Ray*. 7. Less than; below.—Man, once fallen, was not to be reformed by any thing *under* a new creation. *South*.—These men seldom talk *under* certainty and demonstration. *Coll*.—There are several hundred parishes in England *under* twenty pounds a year, and many *under* ten. *Swift*. 8. By the show of.—He does it *under* name of perfect love. *Shak*.—Evaded *under* some plausible distinction. *Baker*. 9. With less than.—Several young men could never leave the pulpit *under* half a dozen conceits. *Swift*. 10. In the state of inferiority to; noting rank or order of precedence.—It was too great an honour for any man *under* a duke. *Add*. 11. In a state of being loaded with.—To groan and sweat *under* the business. *Shak*.—Sinking *under* burthens. *Shak*. 12. In a state of oppression by, or subjection to.—Comfort *under* the great pressures of this life. *Till*.—*Under* the present pain, we find not ourselves capable of the least degree of happiness. *Locke*.—*Under* the extremity of torture. *Coll*.—No longer *under* false reproaches grieve. *Addis*. 13. In a state in which one is seized or overborn.—The prince and prince's must be *under* no less amazement. *Pope*. 14. In a state of being liable to, or limited by.—*Under* pain of greater displeasure. *Hooker*.—The greater part of mankind is *under* necessity of seeing with other men's eyes. *South*.—Conditions *under* which they enter upon their authority. *Locke*.—So great a proportion of both sexes is tied *under* such vows of chastity. *Add*.—Things of another world are *under* the disadvantage of being distant. *Atterb*. 15. In a state of depression, or dejection by; in a state of inferiority.—

Under him,

My genius is rebuk'd as Antony's was by Cæsar. *Shak*.

16. In the state of bearing, or being known by.—This fashion, *under* the name of Puritan. *Swift*.—Coining with less silver in it, *under* the same denomination. *Locke*. 17. In the state of.—*Under* the present disposition of things. *Swift*. 18. Not having reached or arrived to; noting time.—Three sons, he dying, left *under* age. *Spens*. 19. Represented by.—Morpheus is represented *under* the figure of a boy asleep. *Addis*. 20. In a state of protection.—*Under* favour, there are other materials for a commonwealth. *Coll*. 21. With respect to; referred to.—Mr Duke may be mentioned *under* the double capacity of a poet and a divine. *Fell*.—*Under* this head may come in the several wars. *Lefley*. 22. Attested by.—Left us an evidence *under* his own hand. *Locke*. 23. Subjected to; being the subject of.—Present them all *under* one view. *Burn*.—The narrow mind of man, not being capable of having many ideas *under* view at once. *Locke*.—The thing *under* proof is not capable of demonstration. *Locke*.—The subject *under* consideration. *Locke*.—That poem, which lay so long *under* Virgil's correction. *Addis*. 24. In the next stage of subordination.—This is the only safe-guard, *under* the spirit of God. *Locke*. 25. In a state of relation that claims protection. 26. It is generally opposed to *above* or *over*.

(1.) * **UNDER**. *adv.* 1. In a state of subjection, or inferiority.—Ye purpose to keep *under* the children

dren of Judah. *2 Chron.* 2. Below; not above.
3. Less; opposed to *over* or *more*.—Without alteration, *under* or *over*. *Addis.* 4. It has a signification resembling that of an adjective; lower in place; inferior; subject; subordinate. But, perhaps, in this sense it should be considered as united to the following word.—

With the spleen

Of all the *under* fiends.

Shak.

5. It is much used in composition, in several senses, which the following examples will explain.

* **UNDERACTION.** *n. f.* Subordinate action; action not essential to the main story.—Episodes, or *underactions*. *Dryd.*

* **To UNDERBEAR.** *v. a.* [*under* and *bear*.]

1. To support; to endure.—Patient *underbearing* of his fortune. *Shak.* 2. To line; to guard. Out of use.—Cloth of gold, *underborne* with a bluish tinsel. *Shak.*

* **UNDERBEARER.** *n. f.* [*under* and *bearer*.] In funerals, those that sustain the weight of the body, distinct from those who are bearers of ceremony, and only hold up the pall.

* **To UNDERBID.** *v. a.* [*under* and *bid*.] To offer for any thing less than it is worth.

To UNDERBID. *v. a.* To bind below.

* **UNDERCLERK.** *n. f.* [*under* and *clerk*.] A clerk subordinate to the principal clerk.—In the treasury he was an *underclerk*. *Swift.*

* **To UNDERDO.** *v. n.* [*under* and *do*.] 1. To act below one's abilities.—You overact, when you should *underdo*. *Ben Jon.* 2. To do less than is requisite.—Nature much oftener overdoes than *underdoes*. *Grew.*

UNDERESCHEATOR. *n. f.* A subordinate escheator. *Ash.*

* **UNDERFACTION.** *n. f.* [*under* and *faction*.] Subordinate faction; subdivision of a faction.—Christianity loses by contests of *underfactions*. *Deq. of Piety.*

* **UNDERFELLOW.** *n. f.* [*under* and *fellow*.] A mean man; a sorry wretch.—A principal officer, with no more civility, though with much more business, than those *underfellows* had shewed, put interrogatories unto him. *Sidney.*

* **UNDERFILLING.** *n. f.* [*under* and *fill*.] Lower part of an edifice.—First examine the bed of earth upon which we will build, and then the *underfillings*, or substructions, as the antients called it. *Wotton.*

* **To UNDERFONG.** *v. a.* [*under* and *fangan*, Saxon.] To take in hand. Obsolete.—

Thou, Menalcas, that by thy treachery

Didst *underfong* my lady to weke to light. *Spens.*

* **TO UNDERFURNISH.** *v. a.* [*under* and *furnish*.] To supply with less than enough.—Can we suppose God would *underfurnish* man for the state he designed him. *Collier.*

* **To UNDERGIRD.** *v. a.* [*under* and *gird*.] To bind below; to round the bottom.—They used helps, *undergirding* the ship. *ABs.*

* **To UNDERGO.** *v. a.* [*under* and *go*.] 1. To suffer; to sustain; to endure evil.—

With mind averse, be rather *underwent*

His people's will, than give his own consent.

Dryden.

2. To support; to hazard. Not in use.—To *undergo* with me an enterprize. *Shak.*—Having the chiefest actions *undergone*. *Daniel.* 3. To sustain, to be the bearer of; to possess. Not in use.—

Their virtues else be they as pure as grace;

As infinite as man may *undergo*. *Shak.*

4. To sustain; to endure without fainting.—As *undergoing* stomach. *Shak.* 5. To pass through.—Changes it would successively *undergo*. *Burns.*

—Bread will *undergo* an alteration that is merely the effect of heat. *Airhab.* 6. To be subject to.—Claudio *undergoes* my challenge. *Shak.*

* **UNDERGROUND.** *n. f.* [*under* and *ground*.] Subterraneous space.—A spirit rais'd from depth of *underground*. *Shak.*—From *underground*, the blood oozes he drains. *Milt.*

* **UNDERGROWTH.** *n. f.* [*under* and *growth*.] That which grows under the tall wood.—The *undergrowth* of shrubs. *Milton.*

(1.) * **UNDERHAND.** *adj.* Secret; clandestine; sly.—By *underhand* means. *Shak.*—My *underhand* detractors. *Addison.*

(1.) * **UNDERHAND.** *adv.* [*under* and *hand*.] 1. By means not apparent; secretly.—The church *underband*, through a kind of heavenly fraud, taketh therewith the souls of men. *Hooker.* 2. Clandestinely; with fraudulent secrecy.—She *underband* dealt with the principal men of that country. *Sidney.*—Can order matters *underband* to write ill against me. *Dryd.*—Such mean revenge, committed *underband*. *Dryden.*—Wood is still working *underband* to force his halfpence upon us. *Swift.*

Inflame the mutiny, and *underhand*

Blow up their discontents. *Addison.*

* **UNDERIVED.** *adj.* [*from derived*.] Not borrowed.—Ideas *underived* from the body. *Locke.*

* **UNDERLABOURER.** *n. f.* [*under* and *labourer*.] A subordinate workman.—Two thousand chosen men, besides many *underlabourers*. *Wilkins.*

* **To UNDERLAY.** *v. a.* [*under* and *lay*.] To strengthen by something laid under.

* **UNDERLEAF.** *n. f.* [*under* and *leaf*.] A species of apple.—Of the *underleaf* the cyder is best at two years. *Mortimer.*

* **To UNDERLINE.** *v. a.* [*under* and *line*.] 1. To mark with lines below the words. 2. To influence secretly.—By mere chance in appearance, though *underlined* with a providence, they had a full light of the infants. *Watson.*

* **UNDERLING.** *n. f.* [*from under*.] An inferior agent; a sorry, mean fellow.—Glad to be *underlings* to them they hated least. *Sidney.*—Strengthen divers of their *underlings* against them. *Spenser.*—We are *underlings*. *Shak.*—Yet every one shall make him *underling*. *Milt.*—The *underlings* at the post office. *Pope.*

* **To UNDERMINE.** *v. a.* [*under* and *mine*.] 1. To dig cavities under any thing, so that it may fall, or be blown up; to sap.—The church was *undermin'd* and then betray'd. *Denham.*—*Undermining* the foundation. *Pope.* 2. To excavate under.—A vast rock *undermin'd* from one end to the other. *Addis.* 3. To injure by clandestine means.—To *undermine* the royal sovereignty. *Sidney.*—Have hir'd me to *undermine* the dukes. *Shak.*—Allure or terrify, or *undermine*. *Milt.*—The *undermining*

erming smile becomes habitual. *Dryden*.—He could be warn'd who are like to *undermine* him, and who to serve him. *Löcke*.

* **UNDERMINER**. *n. f.* [from *undermine*.] 1. He that saps; he that digs away the supports. 2. A clandestine enemy.—Enemies and *underminers*. *Bacon*.—To pay my *underminers* in their coin. *Tilt*.—Disturbers and *underminers* of government. *South*.

* **UNDERMOST**. *adj.* [This is a kind of superlative, anomalously formed from *under*.] 1. Lowest in place.—The *undermost* stone. *Boyle*. 2. Lowest in state or condition.—The party that is *undermost*. *Addison*.—This was to last no longer than they were *undermost*. *Atterb.*

(1.) * **UNDERNEATH**. *adv.* [Compounded from *under* and *neath*, of which we still retain the comparative *netber*, but in an adverbial sense use *keneth*.] In the lower place; below; under; beneath.—With him I flew, and *underneath* beheld. *Milt.*—Above, about, or *underneath*. *Milton*.—Or fullen Mole that runneth *underneath*. *Milt.*—Howls horrible from *underneath*. *Dryden*.—It left a free passage *underneath*. *Addison*.

(2.) * **UNDERNEATH**. *prep.* Under.—Bruit's *underneath* the yoke of tyranny. *Shak.*—If *underneath* the standard of the French. *Shak.*—*Underneath* this stone doth lie. *B. Jonf.*—And nothing *underneath* the sun is new. *Sandys*.—Are *underneath* his wide dominion cast. *Dryden*.

* **UNDEROFFICER**. *n. f.* [under and officer.] An inferior officer; one in subordinate authority.—Execution committed by *underofficers*. *Ayliffe*.

* **UNDEROGATORY**. *adj.* Not derogatory.—Apprehensions *underogatory* from what we shall possess. *Boyle*.

* **UNDERPART**. *n. f.* [under and part.] Subordinate or essential part.—A tragedy should be lightened with *underparts* of mirth. *Dryden*.

* **UNDERPETTICOAT**. *n. f.* [under and petticoat.] The petticoat worn next the body.—Quilting a whole *underpetticoat*. *Speff.*

* **TO UNDERPIN**. *v. a.* [under and pin.] To prop; to support.—Victors, to secure themselves against disputes of that kind, *underpin* their acquiescent *jure belli*. *Hale*.

* **UNDERPLOT**. *n. f.* [under and plot.] 1. A series of events proceeding colaterally with the main story of a play, and subservient to it.—The *underplot*, is subservient to the chief fable. *Dryd.* 2. A clandestine scheme.—He still suspects an *underplot*. *Addison*.

* **TO UNDERPRAISE**. *v. a.* [under and praise.] To praise below desert.—

In *underpraising* thy deserts. *Dryden*.

* **TO UNDERPRIZE**. *v. a.* [under and prize.] To value at less than the worth.—

My praise doth wrong this shadow

In *underprizing* it. *Shak.*

* **TO UNDERPROP**. *v. a.* [under and prop.] To support; to sustain.—Here am I left to *underprop* the land. *Shak.*—There was made a shoring or *underpropping* act for the benevolence. *Bacon*.—And *underprop* the head that bears the crown. *Fenton*.

* **UNDERPROPORTIONED**. *adj.* [under and proportion.] Having too little proportion.—To

make scanty and *underproportioned* returns of civility. *Collier*.

* **UNDERPULLER**. *n. f.* [under and puller.] Inferior or subordinate puller.—*Underpullers* in destruction. *Collier*.

* **UNDERRATE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A price less than is usual.—But not at *underrates* to sell. *Cowley*.—And at an *underrate* in Smithfield bought. *Dryden*.

* **TO UNDERRATE**. *v. a.* [under and rate.] To rate too low.

* **TO UNDERSAY**. *v. n.* [under and say.] To say by way of derogation or contradiction. Obsolete.—But I dare *undersay*. *Spenser*.

* **UNDERSECRETARY**. *n. f.* [under and secretary.] An inferior or subordinate secretary.—He hath his *under-secretaries* for the several nations. *Bacon*.

* **TO UNDERSSELL**. *v. a.* [under and sell.] To defeat, by selling for less; to sell cheaper than another.—They may, with great gain, *undersell* us. *Child*.

* **UNDERSERVANT**. *n. f.* [under and servant.] A servant of the lower class.—The bones, as *underservants*, with the muscles. *Grew*.

* **TO UNDERSSET**. *v. a.* [under and set.] To prop; to support.—A strong company, and well *underset* with rich men. *Bacon*.

* **UNDERSSETTER**. *n. f.* [from *underset*.] Prop; pedestal; support.—The four corners thereof had *undersetters*. 1 *Kings*, vii. 30.

* **UNDERSSETTING**. *n. f.* [from *underset*.] Lower part; pedestal.—Their *undersettings*, or pedestals. *Wotton*.

(1.) * **UNDERSHERIFF**. *n. f.* [under and sheriff.] The deputy of the sheriff.—Love's *undersherieve*. *Cleaveland*.

(2.) **UNDER-SHERIFF**. See **SHERIFF**, § 2.

* **UNDERSHERIFFRY**. *n. f.* [from *undersheriff*.] The business, or office of an *undersheriff*.—The cardinals of Rome call all temporal business, of wars and embassages, *shirreria*, which is *undersheriffries*. *Bacon*.

* **UNDERSHOT**. *part. adj.* [under and shoot.] Moved by water passing under it.—Driving an *undershot* wheel. *Cornew*.

* **UNDERSONG**. *n. f.* [under and song.] Chorus; burthen of a song.—

So ended the: and all the rest around

To her redoubled that her *undersong*. *Spenser*.—Menalcas shall sustain his *undersong*. *Dryd.*

(1.) * **TO UNDERSTAND**. *v. a.* preterite *understand*. [understand, Saxon.] 1. To conceive with adequate ideas; to have full knowledge of; to comprehend; to know.—

I nam'd them as they pass'd, and *understood* Their nature. *Milton*.

—Or rail at arts he did not *understand*? *Dryden*.

—To bear for once with what you *understand*. *Addis.* 2. To know the meaning of; to be able to interpret.—

He gather'd his own doom, which *understood*, Not instant, but of future time; to hell

He now return'd. *Milton*.

—The Ulysses of Ovid upbraids his ignorance, that he *understood* not the shield for which he pleaded. *Dryd.* 3. To suppose to mean.—The

most

most learned interpreters *understood* the words of fin, and not of Abel. *Locke*. 4. To know by experience.—

Love unlibidinous reigned, nor jealousy

Was *understood*, the injur'd lover's hell. *Milton*.

5. To know by instinct.—

Amorous intent, well *understood*

Of Eve, whose eye darted contagious fire. *Milt.*

6. To interpret at least mentally: to conceive with respect to meaning.—Though not but by the spirit *understood*. *Milton*.—It was not so to be *understood*. *Stillingfleet*. 7. To know another's meaning.—

Each to other calls

Not *understood*.

Milton.

8. To hold in opinion with conviction.—

For well I *understand* in the prime end

Of nature her th' inferior. *Milton*.

9. To mean without expressing.—

War then, war

Open or *understood*, must be resolv'd. *Milton*.

10. To know what is not expressed.—

I bring them to receive

From thee their names, and pay the fealty
With low subjection; *understand* the same. *Milt.*

(1.) * *TO UNDERSTAND*. *v. n.* 1. To have the use of intellectual faculties; to be an intelligent or conscious being.—A wife and *understanding* heart. *Chronicles*.—I *understand*, and grow, and see. *Donne*. 2. To be informed by another.—I *understood* of the evil Eliashib did. *Neb. xiii.* 7.—I *understand* by Sanga. *B. Jonson*. 3. Not to be ignorant; to have learned.—

I *understood* not that a grateful mind

By owing owes not, but still pays, at once

Indebted and discharg'd. *Milton*.

I *understood* not all was but a shew

Rather than solid virtue. *Milton*.

(1.) * *UNDERSTANDING*. *adj.* Knowing; skillful.—The preient physician is a very *understanding* man. *Addis.*

(2.) * *UNDERSTANDING*. *n. f.* [from *understand*.] 1. Intellectual powers; faculties of the mind, especially those of knowledge and judgment.—I speak as my *understanding* instructs me. *Shak.*—Make him of quick *understanding* in the fear of the Lord. *Isa.*—

When she rates things, and moves from ground to ground,

The name of reason she obeys by this;

But when by reason she the truth hath found,

And standeth fix'd, she *understanding* is. *Davies*.

Life and sense,

Fancy and *understanding*.

Milton.

—We find wisdom withdrawing the will from the quarrels of the *understanding*, *Holyday*.—By *understanding*, I mean that faculty whereby we are enabled to apprehend the objects of knowledge. *Wilk.*—The *understanding* of man. *Tillotson*.—The *understandings* of a senate. *Swift*. 2. Skill, knowledge; exact comprehension.—Right *understanding*. *Locke*.—A great sense and *understanding* of religion. *Locke*. 3. Intelligence; terms of communication.—A good *understanding* between him and his people. *Clarendon*.—We have got into some *understanding*. *Arbuth.*

(3.) *UNDERSTANDING*. See METAPHYSICS and LOGIC.

* *UNDERSTANDINGLY*. *adv.* [from *understand*.] With knowledge.—Sundays may be *understandingly* spent in theology. *Milton*.

* *UNDERSTOOD*. *pret.* and *part. passiv.* *understand*.

* *UNDERSTRAPPER*. *n. f.* [under and *strapper*.] A petty fellow; an inferior agent.—Every *understrapper* perk'd up. *Swift*.

UNDERSWEN, a town of Bern, on Thun.

(1.) * *TO UNDERTAKE*. *v. a.* *preterite undertook*; to participate *passive undertake*. [underfugen, German.] 1. To attempt; to engage in.—

The task he *undertakes*

Is numbring sands. *Shak.*

—She *undertook* the manage of his family. *Fell-*

We *undertook*, and we perform'd the same. *Id.*

—The English *undertake* th' unequal war. *Dryd.*

—Of dangers *undertaken*, fame achiev'd. *Dryd.*

2. To assume a character. Not in use.—His name and credit shall you *undertake*. *Shak.* 3. To engage with; to attack.—It is not fit your lordship should *undertake* every companion. *Shak.*—You'll *undertake* her no more? *Shak.* 4. To take the charge of.—

I give my charge up to Sir Nicholas Vaux,

Who *undertakes* you to your end. *Shak.*

(2.) * *TO UNDERTAKE*. *v. n.* 1. To assume any business or province.—O Lord, I am oppressed, *undertake* for me. *Isa. xxxviii.* 34.—I *undertook* alone to wing th' abyss. *Milton*. 2. To venture; to hazard.—

It is the cowardly terror of his spirit,

That dare not *undertake*. *Shak.*

3. To promise; to stand bound to some condition.

—I dare *undertake* they will not lose their labour.

Woodward.

* *UNDERTAKEN*. *part. passiv.* of *undertake*.

* *UNDERTAKER*. *n. f.* [from *undertake*.] 1.

One who engages in projects and affairs.—Astrim was naturally a great *undertaker*. *Clarendon*.

—*Undertakers* in Rome purchase the digging of

fields, and arrive at great estates by it. *Addis.*

—Perplexities that some *undertakers* have encountered it with. *Woodward*.—Oblige thy favorite *undertakers*. *Prior*. 2. One who engages to build for another at a certain price.—

Should they build as fast as write,

'Twould ruin *undertakers* quite. *Swift*.

3. One who manages funerals.—

While rival *undertakers* hover round,

And with his spade the sexton marks the ground. *Young*.

* *UNDERTAKING*. *n. f.* [from *undertake*.] Attempt; enterprize; engagement.—Men of renown, that is, of great *undertaking* and adventurous actions. *Raleigh*.—Too great an *undertaking*. *Temple*.

* *UNDERTENANT*. *n. f.* [under and *tenant*.] A secondary tenant; one who holds from him that holds from the owner.—Settle and secure the *undertenants*. *Davies*.

* *UNDERTOOK*. *preterite* of *undertake*.

* *UNDERVALUATION*. *n. f.* [under and *value*.] Rate not equal to the worth.—There is often failing by an *undervaluation*. *Wotton*.

* *UNDERVALUE*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Low rate; vile price.—The *undervalue* and discredit of these commodities. *Temple*.

* **TO UNDERVALUE.** *v. a.* [*under and value.*]
 1. To rate low; to esteem lightly; to treat as of little worth.—

Her name is Portia, nothing *undervalu'd* Shak.

To Cato's daughter. Shak.

—I *undervalu'd* all ensigns of authority. *Atterb.*
 2. To deprecate; to make low in estimation; to despise.—I write not this to *undervalue* the other parts of poetry. *Dryden*.—Multitudes lessen and *undervalue* it. *Addison*.—Schooling Luther an *undervaluing* term. *Atterbury*.

* **UNDERVALUER.** *n. f.* [*from undervalue.*]
 One who esteems lightly.—An *undervaluer* of money was Sir Henry Wotton. *Walton*.

UNDERWALD, or } a canton of Switzer-
UNDERWALDEN, } land, and the sixth in rank. It is bounded on the N. by Lucern and the Lake of the Four Cantons, on the E. by the high mountains which separate it from the canton of Uri; on the S. by that of Bern; and on the W. by the canton of Lucern. The religion of this canton is the Roman Catholic. Arnold Melchthal, who first raised the standard of Swiss liberty, was born in it.

* **UNDERWENT.** *preterite of undergo.*

(1.) * **UNDERWOOD.** *n. f.* [*under and wood.*]
 The low trees that grow among the timber.—When you fell *underwood*, fow haws and flocs. *Mortimer*.

(2.) **UNDERWOOD.** See **RURAL ECONOMY**, Part III. *See* X. p. 477.

* **UNDERWORK.** *n. f.* [*under and work.*]
 Subordinate business; petty affairs.—They that are proper for war carry on the *underwork* of the nation. *Addison*.

* **TO UNDERWORK.** *v. a.* *preterite underworked, or underwrought;* participate passive *underworked, or underwrought.* 1. To destroy by clandestine measures.—That thou hast *underwrought* its lawful king. *Shak.* 2. To labour or polish less than enough.—A work may be *overwrought* as well as *underwrought*. *Dryden*. 3. To work at a price below the common.

* **UNDERWORKMAN.** *n. f.* [*under and workman.*]
 An inferior, or subordinate labourer.—Nor would they hire *underworkmen*. *Lestry.*—*Underworkmen* are expert enough at making a single wheel. *Swift*.

* **TO UNDERWRITE.** *v. a.* [*under and write.*]
 To write under something else.—He was by him answered in the *underwritten* sort. *Sidney*.—The addition and change I have here *underwritten*. *Sanderson*.

(1.) * **UNDERWRITER.** *n. f.* [*from underwrite.*]
 An insurer; so called from writing his name under the conditions.

(2.) **UNDERWRITER.** See **INSURANCE**, § II.

* **UNDESCRIBED.** *adj.* Not described.—God left nothing in his word *undescribed*. *Hooker*.—I had rather leave it *undescribed*. *Collier*.

* **UNDESCRIED.** *adj.* Not seen; unseen; undiscovered.

* **UNDESERVED.** *adj.* 1. Not merited; not obtained by merit.—This victory, truly not *undeserved*. *Sidney*. 2. Not incurred by fault.—It made him impatient of an *undeserved* reproach. *Addison*.

* **UNDESERVEDLY.** *adv.* [*from undeserved.*]
 Vol. XXII. PART II.

Without desert, whether of good or ill.—Our desire is to yield them a just reason, even of the least things; wherein *undeservedly* they have but as much as dreamed that we do amiss. *Hooker*.—He is *undeservedly* reprehended. *Hooker*.—Thrice oft as *undeservedly* intrial. *Milton*.—One of those athletic brutes, whom *undeservedly* we call heroes. *Dryd.*

* **UNDESERVER.** *n. s.* One of no merit.—The *undeserver* may sleep, when the man of action is called on. *Shak.*

* **UNDESERVING.** *adj.* 1. Not having merit; not having any worth.—It exerts itself promiscuously towards the deserving and the *undeserving*. *Addison*.—The unthankful and *undeserving*. *Atterbury*.—Who lose a length of *undeserving* days. *Pope*. 2. Not meriting any particular advantage or hurt: with *of*.—This son *undeserving* destruction. *Sidney*.—My felicity is in retaining the good opinion of honest men, who think me not quite *undeserving* of it. *Pope*.

* **UNDESIGNED.** *adj.* Not intended; not purposed.—Great effects by inconsiderable means are sometimes brought about; and those for wholly *undesigned* by such as are the immediate actors. *South*.—For such effects could not be *undesigned*. *Blackmore*.

* **UNDESIGNING.** *adj.* 1. Not acting with any set purpose.—Led by no guide, but *undesigning* chance? *Blackmore*. 2. Having no artful or fraudulent schemes; sincere.—Weak, *undesigning* minds. *South*.

* **UNDESIRABLE.** *adj.* Not to be wished; not pleasing.—A thing not *undesirable*. *Milton*.

* **UNDESIRED.** *adj.* Not wished; not solicited.—

O goddess mother, give me back to fate;
 Your gift was *undesired* and came too late. *Dryd.*

* **UNDESIRING.** *adj.* Negligent; not wishing. And look on wealth with *undesiring* eyes. *Dryd.*

* **UNDESTROYABLE.** *adj.* Indestructible; not susceptible of destruction. Not in use.—Common glass is more *undestroyable* than gold. *Boyle*.
 * **UNDESTROYED.** *adj.* Not destroyed.—Preserved whole and *undestroyed*. *Locke*.

* **UNDETERMINABLE.** *adj.* Impossible to be decided.—The fight was *undeterminable* without the death of one of the chiefs. *Wotton*.—Doubtful and *undeterminable*. *Locke*.

* **UNDETERMINATE.** *adj.* 1. Not settled; not decided; contingend.—Regularly *undeterminate*. An *undeterminate* event. *South*. 2. Not fixed.—Fluid, slippery, and *undeterminate* it is of itself. *More*.

* **UNDETERMINATENESS.** } *n. f.* [*from un-*
 * **UNDETERMINATION.** } *determinate.*
 We say more regularly *undeterminateness* and *undetermination*. 1. Uncertainty; indecision.—*Undetermination*, incertainty, and unsteadiness. *Hale*. 2. The state of not being fixed, or invincibly directed.—*Undeterminateness* to one part. *More*.

* **UNDETERMINED.** *adj.* 1. Unsettled; undecided.—He has left his succession *undetermined*. *Locke*.—In circuit, *undetermined*, square or round. *Milton*. 2. Not limited; not regulated; not defined.—It is difficult to conceive that any such thing should be as matter, *undetermined* by something called form. *Hale*.

○○○○

* UN-

* **UNDEVOTED.** *adj.* Not devoted.—The lords Say and Brooke, two popular men, and most *undevoted* to the church. *Clarend.*

* **UNDIAPHANOUS.** *adj.* Not pellucid; not transparent.—The materials of glass melted, with calcined tin, compose a mass *undiaphanous* and white. *Boyle.*

* **UNDID,** the preterite of *undo*.—This so *undid* all I had done before. *Roscom.*

* **UNDIGESTED.** *adj.* Not concocted; not subdued by the stomach.—Like surfeits from an *undigested* fulness. *Dryden.*—As fill'd with fumes of *undigested* wine. *Dryden.*—Meat remaining in the stomach *undigested*. *Arbutnot.*

* **UNDIGHT.** preterite; *put of*. It is questionable whether it have a present tense. Obsolete.—From her fair head her fillets she *undight*. *Spenser.*

* **UNDIMINISHED.** *adj.* Not impaired; not lessened.—I still accounted myself *undiminished* of my largest concessions. *K. Charles.*—*Undiminish'd* brightness. *Milt.*—All of a piece, and *undiminish'd*, dy'd. *Dryd.*—*Undiminish'd* rays. *Addis.*—To stand *undiminish'd*, untouch'd. *Atterbury.*

* **UNDINTED.** *adj.* Not impressed by a blow.—Our barge *undinted*. *Shak.*

* **UNDIPPED.** *adj.* [un and dip] Not dipped; not plunged.—Thou hadst a soft Egyptian heel *undip'd*. *Dryd.*

* **UNDIRECTED.** *adj.* Not directed.—Unruled and *undirected*. *Spenser.*—*Undirected* flight. *Blackmore.*

* **UNDISCERNED.** *adj.* Not observed; not discovered; not detected.—Truths *undiscovered* by others. *Brown.*—At last in order *undiscern'd* they join. *Dryden.*

* **UNDISCERNEDLY.** *adv.* So as to be undiscovered.—Salt-petre, lurking *undiscernedly* in the fixed nitre. *Boyle.*

* **UNDISCERNIBLE.** *adj.* Not to be discerned; invisible.—To think I should be *undiscernible*. *Shak.*—The distinction was *undiscernible*. *Rogers.*

* **UNDISCERNIBLY.** *adv.* Invisible; imperceptibly.—Indispositions will *undiscernibly* steal upon the soul. *South.*

* **UNDISCERNING.** *adj.* Injudicious; incapable of making due distinction.—*Undiscerning* muse. *Donne.*—Of foreign transaction, he was entirely *undiscerning* and ignorant. *Clar.*—And *undiscerning* scatters crowns and chains. *Pope.*

* **UNDISCIPLINED.** *adj.* Not subdued to regularity and order.—An *undisciplined* and unmortified spirit. *Taylor.*—*Undisciplin'd* by precepts of the wise. *Philips.* 2. Untaught; uninstructed.—An *undisciplin'd* rabble. *K. Charles.*—A numberless, *undisciplin'd* militia. *Spe&.*

* **UNDISCORDING.** *adj.* Not disagreeing; not jarring in music.—We on earth, with *undiscording* voice. *Milton.*

* **UNDISCOVERABLE.** *adj.* Not to be found out.—An easy, *undiscoverable* cheat. *Rogers.*

* **UNDISCOVERED.** *adj.* Not seen; not detected; not found out.—On each side men might easily keep themselves *undiscovered*. *Sidney.*—Unto his seeming they were *undiscovered*. *Hooker.*—Time glides, with *undiscovered* haste. *Dryd.*—A rich and *undiscover'd* world. *Dryden.*—Beauty yet *undiscover'd*. *Dryd.*

* **UNDISCREET.** *adj.* Not wise; imprudent.

—If thou be among the *undiscreet*, observe the time. *Ecclesi.*

* **UNDISGUISED.** *adj.* Open; artless; plain; exposed to view.—Disguis'd in habit, *undisguis'd* in shape. *Dryd.*—Openly and *undisguis'd*. *Rogers.*

* **UNDISHONOURED.** *adj.* Not dishonoured.—I live disdain'd, thou *undishonoured*. *Shak.*

* **UNDISMAYED.** *adj.* Not discouraged; not depressed with fear.—He in the midst thus *undismay'd* began. *Milt.*—They rally *undismay'd*. *Phil.*—He aim'd a blow against his *undismay'd* adversary. *Arbutnot.*

* **UNDISOBLIGING.** *adj.* Inoffensive.—Easy, *undisobliging* transitions. *Broome.*

* **UNDISPERSED.** *adj.* Not scattered.—The smoke, whilst it is *undispersed*, but clouds it. *Boyle.*

* **UNDISPOSED.** *adj.* Not bestowed.—The employments were left *undisposed* of. *Swift.*

* **UNDISPUTED.** *adj.* Incontrovertible; evident.—An *undisputed* title. *Dryd.*—A proposition of undoubted and *undisputed* truth. *Atterbury.*

* **UNDISSEMBLED.** *adj.* 1. Openly declared. 2. Honest, not feigned.—*Undissembled* and unaltered veneration. *Atterbury.*

* **UNDISSIPATED.** *adj.* Not scattered; not dispersed.—They may remain *undissipated*. *Boyle.*

* **UNDISSOLVABLE.** *adj.* [from un and dissolvable.] That cannot be dissolved.

* **UNDISSOLVING.** *adj.* Never melting.—Not cold Scythia's *undissolving* snows. *Addis.*

* **UNDISTEMPERED.** *adj.* 1. Free from disease. 2. Free from perturbation.—A parliament that shall be cool and *undistempere*. *Temple.*

* **UNDISTINGUISHABLE.** *adj.* 1. Not to be distinctly seen.—These things seem small and *undistinguishable*. *Shak.*

The quaint mazes in the wanton green,
For lack of tread, are *undistinguishable*. *Shak.*

—An *undistinguishable* confusion. *Rogers.* 2. Not to be known by any peculiar property.—No idea can be *undistinguishable* from another. *Locke.*

* **UNDISTINGUISHED.** *adj.* 1. Not mark'd out so as to be known from each other.—The *undistinguish'd* seeds of good and ill. *Dryd.*—*Undistinguish'd* duration. *Locke.* 2. Not to be seen otherwise than confusedly; not separately and plainly described.—But sown so thick with stars, 'tis *undistinguish'd* light. *Dryd.* 3. Not plainly discerned.—Wrinkles *undistinguish'd* pass. *Swift.* 4. Admitting nothing between; having no intervening space.—Oh *undistinguish'd* space of woman's will! *Shak.* 5. Not mark'd by any particular property.

Sleep to those empty lids
Is grown a stranger; and day and night
As *undistinguish'd* by my sleep, as night. *Decc.*

6. Not treated with any particular respect.—Sad chance of war! now destitute of aid,
Falls *undistinguish'd* by the victor spade. *Pope.*

* **UNDISTINGUISHING.** *adj.* Making no difference.—The promiscuous and *undistinguishing* distribution of good and evil which was necessary for carrying on the designs of providence in this will be rectified in another. *Add.*—*Undistinguishing* complaisance. *Garth.*

* **UNDISTRACTED.** *adj.* Not perplex'd by contrariety of thoughts or desires.—A more immediate, and *undistracted* communion with himself. *Boyle.*

* **UNDISTRACTEDLY.** *adv.* Without disturbance from contrariety of sentiments.—The affections being at liberty to devote themselves more *undistractedly* to God. *Boyle.*

* **UNDISTRACTEDNESS.** *n. f.* Freedom from interruption by different thoughts.—Calmanes of mind, and *undistractedness* of thoughts. *Boyle.*

* **UNDISTURBED.** *adj.* 1. Free from perturbation; calm; tranquil; placid.—That *undisturbed* song of pure content. *Milt.*—Lull'd in their ease, and *undisturb'd* before. *Dryden.*—The *undisturbed* fruition of God to all eternity. *Atterb.*—*Undisturbed* in danger. *Locke.* 2. Not interrupted by any hindrance or molestation.—And craves no more than *undisturb'd* delight. *Dryd.*—Unvex'd with quarrels, *undisturb'd* with noise. *Dryden.* 3. Not agitated.—*Undisturb'd* and silent waters. *Dryd.*

* **UNDISTURBEDLY.** *adv.* Calmly; peacefully.—To lay before them *undisturbedly* the thread and coherence of any discourse. *Locke.*

* **UNDIVIDABLE.** *adj.* Not separable; not susceptible of division.—Tragedy, pastoral, scene *undividable*, or poem unlimited. *Shak.*

How comes it, husband,

That thou art thus estranged from thyself?

Thyself, I call it, being strange to me;

That *undividable*, incorporate,

Am better than thy dear self's better part. *Shak.*

* **UNDIVIDED.** *adj.* Unbroken; whole; not parted.—A whole and *undivided* affection. *Tayl.*—Spreads *undivided*, operates unspent. *Pope.*

* **UNDIVULGED.** *adj.* Secret; not promulgated.—*Undivulged* crimes. *Shak.*

* **TO UNDO.** *v. a.* preterite *undid*; participle passive *undone*. [from *do*.] 1. To ruin; to bring to destruction.—It will *undo* so many as shall trust unto it. *Hayw.*—Subdued, *undone*, they did at last obey. *Rose.*—Some to *undo*, and some to be *undone*. *Deub.*

Hither ye come, dislike, and so *undo*

The players.

Denb.

When I beheld the charming maid,

I'm ten times more *undone*.

Add.

1. To loose; to open what is shut or fastened; to unravel.—They false and fearful do their hands *undo*. *Sidn.*—Pray *undo* this button. *Shak.*—To *undo* the charming band. *Milt.*—Her own teeth would *undo* the knot. *Wall.* 3. To change any thing done to its former state; to recall, or annul any action.—To *undo* some things of men, which God doth know they cannot better. *Hook.*—Could not again *undo*. *Shak.*—We seem ambitious God's wholework t' *undo*. *Donne.*—They make the Deity do and *undo*, go forward and backwards. *Burnet.*—He has the merit of the gift *undone*. *Dryd.*—We have not done what we can to *undo* our fault. *Tillotson.*—*Undo* what I've been labouring all this while. *Add.*—She'd all *undo* what she had done. *Swift.*

(1.) * **UNDOING.** *adj.* Ruining; destructive.—Great and *undoing* mischief. *South.*

(2.) * **UNDOING.** *n. s.* Ruin; destruction; fatal mischief.—The utter *undoing* of some. *Hooker.*—False lustre could dazzle my daughter to her *undoing*. *Add.*

We act, as if the fraud was pleasing to us,
And our *undoing* joy.
—How oft are our petitions our *undoing*. *Hurtq.*

Rower.

* **UNDONE.** *adj.* [from *undo*.] 1. Not done; not performed.—I cannot with the fault *undone*. *Shak.*—What they had left *undone*. *Clar.* 2. Ruined; brought to destruction.—We rest all *undone*, till all be done. *Daniel.*

* **UNDOUBTED.** *adj.* Indubitable; indisputable; unquestionable.—His fact, till now, came not to an *undoubted* proof. *Shak.*—Th' *undoubted* son of God. *Milt.*—*Undoubted* records of certain events. *Glanville.*—And of *undoubted* victory did boast. *Wall.*—An *undoubted* assurance. *Tillot.*

* **UNDOUBTEDLY.** *adv.* Indubitably; without question; without doubt.—Some fault *undoubtedly* there is. *Hooker.*

This cardinal, *undoubtedly*

Was fashion'd to much honour.

Shak.

—*Undoubtedly* God will relent. *Milt.*—The original is *undoubtedly* one of the greatest this age has produced. *Dryden.*—He shall *undoubtedly* be saved. *Tillotson.*

* **UNDOUBTING.** *adj.* Admitting of no doubt.—Received with an *undoubting* faith. *Ham.*

* **UNDRAWN.** *adj.* Not pulled by any external force.—

Forth rush'd

The chariot of paternal deity *undrawn*. *Milton.*

* **UNDREADED.** *adj.* Not feared.—Unnam'd, *undread'd*, and thyself half-starv'd. *Milt.*

* **UNDREAMED.** *adj.* Not thought on.—Unpath'd waters, *undream'd* shores. *Shak.*

* **UNDRESS.** *v. a.* A loose or negligent dress.—And put her in *undress* to make her please. *Dryden.*

* **TO UNDESS.** *v. a.* [from *dress*.] 1. To divest of cloathes; to strip.—*Undress* you, to come now to bed. *Shak.*—To counsel and *undress* the bride. *Suckl.*—And the reluctant nymph by force *undress'd*. *Addis.* 2. To divest of ornaments, or the attire of ostentation. *Undress'd* at evening. *Prior.*

* **UNDRESSED.** *adj.* 1. Not regulated.—Thy vineyard lies half prun'd, and half *undress'd*. *Dryd.* 2. Not prepared for use.—Purses, shoes of *undressed* leather. *Arbutnot.*

* **UNDRIED.** *adj.* Not dried.—Witness the fresh laments, and funeral tears *undry'd*. *Dryd.*—*Undried* hops. *Mort.*

* **UNDRIVEN.** *adj.* Not impelled either way.—Stands without motion, and the tide *undriv'n*. *Dryd.*

* **UNDROSSY.** *adj.* Free from recrement.—With lucid amber, or *undrossy* gold. *Philips.*—Heav'n's *undrossy* gold. *Pope.*

* **UNDUBITABLE.** *adj.* Not admitting doubt; unquestionable.—Let that principle be received for certain and *undubitable*. *Locke.*

* **UNDUE.** *adj.* [from *indue*, Fr.] 1. Not right; not legal.—Rigorous and *undue*. *Bacon.* 2. Not agreeable to duty.—He will not prostitute his power to mean and *undue* ends. *Atterb.*

* **UNDULARY.** *adj.* [from *undulo*, Lat.] Playing like waves; playing with intermissions.—Blasts and *undulary* breaths. *Brooun.*

(1.) * **TO UNDULATE.** *v. a.* [from *undulo*, Latin.] To drive backward and forward; to make to play as waves.—Breath vocalized, i. e. vibrated and *undulated*. *Holder.*

(2.) * **TO UNDLATE.** *v. n.* To play as waves

in curls.—Through *undulating* air the sounds are sent. *Pope*

(1.) * **UNDULATION.** *n. f.* [from *undulate*.] Waving motion.—Which move by *undulation*, that is, like the waves of the sea. *Brown*.—*Undulation* of the air. *Hold*.—Two parallel walls beat the sound back on each other, till the *undulation* is quite worn out. *Add*.

(2.) **UNDULATION.** in physics, a kind of tremulous motion or vibration observable in a liquid, whereby it alternately rises and falls like the waves of the sea.

(3.) **UNDULATIONS.** See *OPTICS*, *Index*.

* **UNDULATORY.** *adj.* [from *undulate*.] Moving in the manner of waves.—A constant *undulatory* motion. *Arbutb*.

* **UNDULY.** *adv.* Not properly; not according to duty.—Men *unduly* exercise their zeal. *Spratt*.

* **UNDUTEOUS.** *adj.* Not performing duty; irreverent; disobedient.—Of disobedience, or *unduteous* title. *Shak*. His *unduteous* son. *Dryd*.

* **UNDUTIFUL.** *adj.* Not obedient; not reverent.—*Undutiful* as the Irish. *Spens*.—*Undutiful* to his great sovereign. *Till*.

* **UNDUTIFULLY.** *adv.* [from *undutiful*] Not according to duty.—And from its lord *undutifully* fled. *Dryd*.

* **UNDUTIFULNESS.** *n. f.* Want of respect; irreverence; disobedience.—Staid all the other from *undutifulness*. *Spens*.—Forbidding *undutifulness* to superiors. *Till*.

* **UNDYING.** *adj.* Not destroyed; not perishing.—Th' *undying* worm. *Milt*.

* **UNEARNED.** *adj.* Not obtained by labour or merit.—If we have *unearned* luck. *Shak*.—Th' hour of supper comes *unearn'd*. *Milt*.—Give thee bread *unearn'd*! *Phil*.

* **UNEARTHED.** *adj.* Driven from the den in the ground.—

The robber of the fold,
He's from his craggy winding haunts *unearth'd*.
Thomf.

* **UNEARTHLY.** *adj.* Not terrestrial.—How ceremonious, solemn, and *unearthly*. *Shak*.

* **UNEASILY.** *adv.* Not without pain.—He lives *uneasily* under the burden. *L'Estr*.—They live more *uneasily* than other men. *Till*.

* **UNEASINESS.** *n. f.* Trouble; perplexity; state of disquiet.—Sits in heart grief and *uneasiness*. *Shak*.—

The same *uneasiness* which ev'ry thing
Gives to our nature. *Denh*.

—If we bear the *uneasinesses* that befall us here with constancy. *Atterb*.—The *uneasiness* of want. *Rogers*.—Whatever *uneasiness* they may give themselves. *Add*.—The libels give him *uneasiness*. *Swift*.

* **UNEASY.** *adj.* 1. Painful; giving disturbance.—An *uneasy* garment. *Tayl*.—The standing is *uneasy*. *Dec. Piety*.—His present thoughts are *uneasy*. *L'Estr*.—*Uneasy* life to me. *Dryd*. 2. Disturbed; not at ease.—*Uneasy* lies the head that wears a crown. *Shak*.—*Uneasy* justice upward flew. *Dryd*.—A gall'd and *uneasy* mind. *Till*.—Restless and *uneasy*. *Add*.—There could not be a more *uneasy* prince, nor a more unhappy people. *Add*.—*Uneasy* in the want of it. *Rogers*.—The soul, *uneasy* and confined from home. *Pope*. 3.

Constraining; cramping.—Such strict, *uneasy* rules. *Rosc*. 4. Constrained; not disengaged; stiff.—Constrained, *uneasy*, and ungraceful. *Locke*. 5. Peevish; difficult to please.—A four nature makes him *uneasy* to those who approach him. *Add*. 6. Difficult. Out of use.—I think it not *uneasy* to get the canie of my son's refoit thither. *Shak*.—

This swift business

I must *uneasy* make; lest too light winning
Make the prize light. *Shak*.

—Divers things are *uneasy* to be satisfactorily understood. *Boyle*.

* **UNEATEN.** *adj.* Not devoured.—They had but two horses left *uneaten*. *Clar*.

* **UNEATH.** *adv.* [from *eatb*; *eatb*, Saxon; *easy*.] 1. Not easily. Out of use.—

Uneath may she endure the flinty street,
To tread them with her tender feeling feet. *Shak*.

2. It seems in *Spenser* to signify the same as *neath*. Under; below.—

A roaring, hideous sound,
That all the air with terror filled wide,
And seem'd *uneath* to shake the stedfast ground. *Spens*.

* **UNEDIFYING.** *adj.* Not improving in good life.—Popish divinity is flat and *unedifying*. *Atterb*.

* **UNELECTED.** *adj.* Not chosen.—And pass'd him *unelected*. *Shak*.

* **UNELIGIBLE.** *adj.* Not proper to be chosen.—'Tis hard to determine which is most *unelidable*. *Rogers*.

* **UNEMPLOYED.** *adj.* 1. Not busy; at leisure; idle.—Rove idle, *unemploy'd*, and less need rest. *Milt*.—Inglorious, *unemploy'd*, with age outworn. *Milt*.—Idle and *unemployed*. *Locke*.—Men, soured with poverty, and *unemployed*. *Add*. 2. Not engaged in any particular work.—Pales unhonour'd; Ceres *unemployed*. *Dryd*.

* **UNEMPTYABLE.** *adj.* Not to be emptied; inexhaustible. Obsolete.—That *unemptyable* fountain of wisdom. *Hooker*.

* **UNENDOWED.** *adj.* Not invested; not graced.—A man *unendowed* with any notable virtues. *Clar*.—With grace and learning *unendow'd*. *Swift*.

* **UNENGAGED.** *adj.* Not engaged; not appropriated.—The only *unengaged* revenues left. *Swift*.

* **UNENJOYED.** *adj.* Not obtained; not possessed.—Each day's a mistress *unenjoyed* before. *Dryden*.

* **UNENJOYING.** *adj.* Not using; having no fruition.—The *unenjoying*, craving wretch is poor. *Creech*.

* **UNENLIGHTENED.** *adj.* Not illuminated.—Reason, *unenlightened* by revelation.—*Atterbury*.

* **UNENLARGED.** *adj.* Not enlarged; narrow; contracted.—*Unenlarged* souls. *Watts*.

* **UNENSLAVED.** *adj.* Free; not enthralled. She sits a sovereign, *unenslav'd* and free. *Add*.

* **UNENTERTAINING.** *adj.* Giving no delight; giving no entertainment.—It was not *unentertaining*. *Pope*.

* **UNENVIED.** *adj.* Exempt from envy.—Happy and *unenvied*. *Bacon*.—*Unenvied* throne. *Milt*.

It is.—These *unenvied* stand. *Denb.*—What health remotes, and gives *unenvy'd* peace. *Blackmore.*—And here *unenvy'd*, rural dainties taste. *Pope.*

* **UNENTOMBED.** *adj.* Unburied; uninterred.—Think'st thou *unentomb'd* to cross the floods? *Dryden.*

* **UNEQUABLE.** *adj.* Different from itself; liverie.—The most unsettled and *unequable* of seasons. *Bentley.*

* **UNEQUAL.** *adj.* [*inæqualis*, Latin.] 1. Not even.—To shape my legs of an *unequal* size. *Shak.*—Chaucer's *unequal* numbers. *Dryden.* 2. Not equal; inferior.—Among *unequals*, what society? *Milton.*—My lot *unequal* to my vast desires. *Arbutb.* 3. Partial; not bestowing on both the same advantages.—When to conditions of *unequal* peace. *Denb.* 4. [*Inegal*, Fr.] Disproportioned; ill matched.—Against *unequal* arms to fight in pain. *Milt.*—And in a crowd th' *unequal* combat shun. *Dryd.*—*Unequal* arms. *Addis.*—Nor fear'd the chief th' *unequal* fight to try. *Pope.* 5. Not regular; not uniform.—So strong, yet so *unequal* pulses beat. *Dryden.*

UNEQUALABLE. *adj.* Not to be equalled; not to be paralleled.—Christ's love to God is filial and *unequalable*. *Boyle.*

* **UNEQUALLED.** *adj.* Unparalleled; unrivalled in excellence.—*Unequalled* and invaluable blessings. *Boyle.*—The *unequal'd* maid. *Roscom.*

* **UNEQUALLY.** *adv.* In different degrees; in disproportion one to the other.—No single parts *unequally* surprise. *Pope.*

* **UNEQUALNESS.** *n. f.* Inequality; state of being unequal.

* **UNEQUITABLE.** *adj.* Not impartial; not just.—Measures too *unequitable* to press upon a murderer. *Decay of Piety.*

* **UNEQUIVOCAL.** *adj.* Not equivocal.—Conceiving *unequivocal* effects. *Brown.*

* **UNERRABLENESS.** *n. f.* In a capacity of error.—The *unerrableness* of a guide. *Dec. Piety.*

* **UNERRING.** *adj.* [*inerrans*, Latin.] 1. Committing no mistake—A perfect and *unerring* obedience. *Rogers.*—*Unerring* will prescribe your destin'd course. *Pope.*—Hissing in air th' *unerring* weapon flew. *Dryden.* 2. Incapable of failure; certain.—From his *unerring* hand. *Denb.*—Is this th' *unerring* power? *Dryd.*—This one *unerring* mark. *Locke.*

* **UNERRINGLY.** *adv.* Without mistake.—What those figures are, which should be mechanically adapted, to fall so *unerringly* into regular compositions, is beyond our faculties to conceive. *Glanville.*

* **UNESCHEWABLE.** *adj.* Inevitable; unavoidable; not to be escaped. Not in use.—An *uneschewable* destiny altered him. *Carew.*

* **UNESPIED.** *adj.* Not seen; undiscovered; undescried.—Treachery and deceit, do not long go *unespied*. *Hooker.*—And live on rocks and caves long *unespy'd*. *Spenser.*—Nearer to view his prey, and *unespy'd*. *Milt.*—The second shaft came swift, and *unespy'd*. *Dryden.*

* **UNESSENTIAL.** *adj.* 1. Not being of the last importance; not constituting essence.—*Unessential* parts of Christianity. *Addison.* 2. Void of real being.—

The void profound

Of *unessential* night.

Milton.

* **UNESTABLISHED.** *adj.* Not established. Foundations *unestablished*. *Brown.*

* **UNEVEN.** *adj.* 1. Not even; not level.—These high wild hills, and rough, *uneven* ways. *Shak.*—That *uneven* mountain country. *Knolles.*—They made the ground *uneven* about their nest. *Addison.* 2. Not suiting each other; not equal.—The Hebrew verse consists of *uneven* feet. *Peach.*

* **UNEVENNESS.** *n. f.* 1. Surface not level; inequality of surface.—The ruggedness and *unevenness* of the roads. *Ral.*—Any *unevenness* of the body. *Newton.* 2. Turbulence; changeable state.—The troubles and *unevenness* of his reign. *Hale.* 3. Not smoothness.—*Unevenness* or indistinctness in the style of those places. *Burnet.*

* **UNEVITABLE.** *adj.* [*inevitabilis*, Latin; *inevitable*, French.] Inevitable; not to be escaped.—The inevitable *Philoclea*. *Sidney.*

* **UNEXACTED.** *adj.* Not exacted; not taken by force.—

All was common, and the fruitful earth,

Was free, to give her *unexacted* birth. *Dryden.*

* **UNEXAMINED.** *adj.* Not enquired; not tried; not discussed.—Untainted, *unexamined*, free at liberty. *Shak.*—*Unexamined*, without relation to person, place, or fitness. *B. Jonson.*—The *unexamined* prejudices of sense. *Glanv.*

UNEXAMPLED. *adj.* Not known by any precedent or example.—Charles returned with *unexampled* loss from Algiers. *Ral.*—O *unexampled* love. *Milton.*—An *unexampled* exemption from death. *Boyle.*—*Unexampled* mercy. *Denham.*—Thy *unexampled* goodness to extol. *Philips.*

* **UNEXCEPTIONABLE.** *adj.* Not liable to any objection.—The *unexceptionable* design of this pious institution. *Atterbury.*

* **UNEXCISED.** *adj.* Not subject to the payment of excise.—And beggars taste thee *unexcis'd* by kings. *Brown.*

UNEXCOGITABLE. *adj.* Not to be found out.—Wherein can man resemble his *unexcogitable* power and perfectness. *Raleigh.*

* **UNEXECUTED.** *adj.* Not performed; not done.—Leave *unexecuted* your renowned knowledge. *Shak.*

* **UNEXEMPLIFIED.** *adj.* Not made known by instance or example.—So *unexemplified* an ingratitude. *Boyle.*—A new, *unexemplified* kind of policy. *South.*

* **UNEXEMPT.** *adj.* Not free by peculiar privilege.—Scorning the *unexempt* condition. *Milt.*

* **UNEXERCISED.** *adj.* Not practised; not experienced.—A heartless train, *unexercis'd* in arms. *Dryden.*—The *unexercis'd* mind. *Locke.*

* **UNEXHAUSTED.** *adj.* [*inexhaustus*, Lat.] Not spent; not drained to the bottom.—What avail her *unexhausted* stores. *Addison.*

* **UNEXPANDED.** *adj.* Not spread out.—Every fœtus bears a secret board; With sleeping, *unexpanded* issue stor'd. *Blackm.*

* **UNEXPECTED.** *adj.* Not thought on; sudden; not provided against.—*Unexpected* death. *Hooker.*—Evils, great and *unexpected*. *Hooker.*—O *unexpected* stroke. *Milton.*—*Unexpected* joy. *Milton.*—It was so *unexpected*. *Denham.*—And summon them

them to *unexpected* fight. *Dryden*.—And turn'd him to his *unexpected* foe. *Dryden*.—A most *unexpected* accident. *Swift*.

* **UNEXPECTEDLY**. *adv.* Suddenly; at a time unthought of.—He *unexpectedly* returns. *Milt*.—A present came most *unexpectedly* to my relief. *Dryd*.—Poured in *unexpectedly*. *Dryd*.—Others, who are *unexpectedly* cut off. *Wake*.—Several dropping *unexpectedly* in the midst of mirth. *Addison*.

* **UNEXPECTEDNESS**. *n. f.* Suddenness; unthought of time or manner.—He describes the *unexpectedness* of his appearance. *Watts*.

* **UNEXPEDIENT**. *adj.* Inconvenient; not fit. *Musick* would not be *unexpedient* after meat. *Milt*.

* **UNEXPERIENCED**. *adj.* Not versed; not acquainted by trial or practice.—

The wisest, *unexperienc'd*, will be ever Timorous and loth, with novice modesty, Irresolute, unhardy, unadvent'rous. *Milton*.—*Unexperienced* persons. *Wilkins*.—Not a raw and *unexperienc'd* train. *Dryden*.—*Unexperienced* in the things they speak against. *Tillotson*.—*Unexperienced* young men. *Locke*.—The most ignorant and *unexperienced*. *Swift*.

* **UNEXPERT**. *adj.* [*inexpertus*, Lat.] Wanting skill or knowledge.—In letters, and in laws.—Not *unexpert*. *Prior*.

* **UNEXPLORED**. *adj.* 1. Not searched out.—Oh! say what stranger cause, yet *unexplor'd*. *Pope*. 2. Not tried; not known.—Regions *unexplored*. *Dryden*.

* **UNEXPOSED**. *adj.* Not laid open to censure.—Rather than suffer the little mistakes of the author to pass *unexposed*. *Watts*.

* **UNEXPRESSIBLE**. *adj.* Ineffable; not to be uttered.—*Unexpressible* comfort. *Tillotson*.

* **UNEXPRESSIVE**. *adj.* 1. Not having the power of uttering or expressing. This is the natural and analogical signification. 2. Inexpressible; unutterable; ineffable; not to be expressed. Improper, and out of use.—The fair, the chaste, and *inexpressive* she. *Shak*.—And hears the *unexpressive* nuptial song. *Milton*.—

Harping in loud and solemn quire, With *inexpressive* notes. *Milton*.

* **UNEXTENDED**. *adj.* Occupying no assignable space; having no dimensions.—A spiritual, i. e. an *unextended* substance. *Locke*.

* **UNEXTINGUISHABLE**. *adj.* [*unextinguishable*, Fr.] Unquenchable; not to be put out.—Pain of *unextinguishable* fire. *Milton*.—Native, *unextinguishable* beauty. *Bentley*.

* **UNEXTINGUISHED**. *adj.* [*inextinctus*, Lat.] 1. Not quenched; not put out.—Lament too late their *unextinguish'd* fire. *Dryden*.—His constant flame shall *unextinguish'd* burn. *Lyttleton*. 2. Not extinguishable.—An *unextinguish'd* desire of doing more. *Dryden*.

* **UNFADED**. *adj.* Not withered.—A lovely flow'r, *Unfaded* yet. *Dryden*.

* **UNFADING**. *adj.* Not liable to wither.—For her th' *unfading* rose of Eden blooms. *Pope*.

* **UNFAILING**. *adj.* Certain; not missing.—The certain, *unfailing* curse, that has pursued and overtook sacrifice. *South*.—Thou, secure of my *unfailing* word. *Dryden*.

* **UNFAIR**. *adj.* Disengenuous; subdolous; not honest.—An *unfair* merchant. *Swift*.

* **UNFAIRLY**. *adv.* [from *unfair*.] Not in a just manner.

* **UNFAITHFUL**. *adj.* 1. Perfidious; treacherous.—The gross band of the *unfaithful*. *Shak*.—My feet, through wile, *unfaithful* to their weight. *Pope*. 2. Impious; infidel.—To judge the *unfaithful* dead. *Milton*.

* **UNFAITHFULLY**. *adv.* Treacherously; perfidiously.—There is danger of being *unfaithfully* connelled. *Bacon*.

* **UNFAITHFULNESS**. *n. f.* Treachery; perfidiously.—The *unfaithfulness* of many writers make it unfit to be relied on. *Boyle*.

* **UNFALLOWED**. *adj.* Not fallow'd.—Th' *unfallow'd* glebe. *Philips*.

* **UNFAMILIAR**. *adj.* Unaccustomed; such as is not common.—They seem, by reason of newness, dark, intricate, *unfamiliar*. *Hooker*.—Chaucer's uncouth, or rather *unfamiliar*, language. *Warton*.

* **UNFASHIONABLE**. *adj.* Not modish; not according to the reigning custom.—Perhaps he uses obsolete and *unfashionable* language. *Watts*.

* **UNFASHIONABLENESS**. *n. f.* Deviation from the mode.—National *unfashionableness* is much better than apish affected postures. *Locke*.

* **UNFASHIONABLY**. *adv.* [from *unfashionable*.] 1. Not according to the fashion. 2. Unartfully.—So lamely and *unfashionably*. *Shak*.

* **UNFASHIONED**. *adj.* 1. Not modified by art.—Which, in *unfashion'd* nature, looks divine. *Dryden*. 2. Having no regular form.—A lifeless lump, *unfashion'd* and unfarm'd. *Dryden*.

* **TO UNFASTEN**. *v. a.* To loose; to unfix.—He *unfastened* his hold. *Swinyer*.—

Every bolt and bar of solid rock, with ease *Unfastens*. *Milton*.

* **UNFATHERED**. *adj.* Fatherless; having no father.—*Unfather'd* heirs and loathly births of nature. *Shak*.

* **UNFATHOMABLE**. *adj.* 1. Not to be sounded by a line.—A lake, which they pretend is *unfathomable*. *Addison*.—Beneath *unfathomable* depths they faint. *Addis*. 2. That of which the end or extent cannot be found.—A new abyss of *unfathomable* number. *Bentley*.

* **UNFATHOMABLY**. *adv.* So as not to be sounded.—Cover'd pits, *unfathomably* deep. *Thom*.

* **UNFATHOMED**. *adj.* Not to be sounded.—The *unfathom'd* space. *Dryden*.

* **UNFATIGUED**. *adj.* Unwearied; untired.—They journey toilsome, *unfatigued*. *Philips*.

* **UNFAVOURABLE**. *adj.* Not kind.

* **UNFAVOURABLY**. *adv.* 1. Unkindly; unpropitiously. 2. So as not to countenance or support.—Bacon speaks not *unfavourably* of this. *Glanville*.

* **UNFEARED**. *adj.* 1. Not affrighted; intrepid; not terrified. Not in use.—We should stand upright and *unfear'd*. *B. Jonson*. 2. Not dreaded; not regarded with terror.

* **UNFEASIBLE**. *adj.* Impracticable.

* **UNFEATHERED**. *adj.* Implumous; naked of feathers.—By stealth convey'd th' *unfeather'd* innocence. *Dryden*.

* **UNFEATURED**.

* **UNFEATURED.** *adj.* Deformed; wanting regularity of features.—
Deform'd, *unfeatur'd*, and a skin of buff. *Dryd.*

* **UNFED.** *adj.* Not supplied with food.—
His carcase long *unfed*. *Spenser.*
A grilly foaming wolf *unfed*. *Roscom.*

* **UNFEED.** *adj.* Unpaid.—It is like the breath of an *unfed* lawyer. *Shak.*

* **UNFEELING.** *adj.* Insensible; void of mental sensibility.—

Dull, *unfeeling*, barren ignorance. *Shak.*
Unlucky Welfist! thy *unfeeling* master. *Pope.*

* **UNFEIGNED.** *adj.* Not counterfeit; not hypocritical; real; sincere.—

Here I take the like *unfeigned* oath. *Shak.*
Thousand deencies that daily flow

From all her words and actions, mix'd with love,
And sweet compliance, which declare *unfeigned*
Union of mind. *Milt.*

—Sorrow *unfeigned*. *Milt.*—*Unfeigned* piety. *Spratt.*

* **UNFEIGNEDLY.** *adv.* Really; sincerely; without hypocrisy.—Them that *unfeignedly* believe his holy gospel. *Common Prayer.*—*Unfeignedly* just. *Hooker.*—I love her most *unfeignedly*. *Shak.*—*Unfeignedly* to repent of the sins. *K. Charles.*

* **UNFELT.** *adj.* Not felt; not perceived.—
Unfelt thanks. *Shak.*—Sweetness into my heart, *unfelt* before. *Milt.*—But pains *unfelt* produce the pleasing sight. *Dryd.*

* **UNFENCED.** *adj.* 1. Naked of fortification.—
Unfenced desolation. *Shak.* 2. Not surrounded by any inclosure.

* **UNFERMENTED.** *adj.* Not fermented.—
All such vegetables must be *unfermented*. *Arbut.*

* **UNFERTILE.** *adj.* Not fruitful; not prolific.—Peace is not such a *useless unfertile* thing, but that it might fructify and increate. *Dec. of P.*

* **TO UNFETTER.** *v. a.* To unchain; to free from shackles.—*Unfetter* me with speed. *Dryd.*—This most useful principle may be *unfetter'd*. *Add.*—Loose and *unfetter'd*. *Addison.*—Th' *unfetter'd* mind by thee sublim'd. *Thomson.*

* **UNFIGURED.** *adj.* Representing no animal form.—*Unfigur'd* paintings. *Wotton.*

* **UNFILIAL.** *adj.* Unsuitable to a son.—
Something *unfilial*. *Shak.*—An *unfilial* affection. *Boyle.*

* **UNFILLED.** *adj.* Not filled; not supplied.—
At table leave something of thy appetite *unfilled*. *Tayl.*—It left to many *unfilled*. *Boyle.*

The throne of my forefathers
Still stands *unfil'd*. *Addif.*

* **UNFINISHED.** *adj.* Incomplete; not brought to an end; not brought to perfection; imperfect; wanting the last hand.—Were left for haste *unfinish'd*. *Milt.*—I did dedicate to you a very *unfinish'd* piece. *Dryd.*—He left his pictures *unfinish'd*. *Speck.*—Let these *unfinish'd* lays in part express. *Heigh.*—Many *unfinish'd* pieces. *Swift.*

* **UNFIRM.** *adj.* 1. Weak; feeble.—Our fancies are most giddy and *unfirm*. *Shak.*—So is the *unfirm* king. *Shak.* 2. Not stable.—With feet *unfirm*. *Dryden.*

* **UNFIT.** *adj.* 1. Improper; unsuitable.—
They perceive how *unfit* that were for the present. *Hook.*—An *unfit* and over-ponderous argument. *Milton.* 2. Unqualified.—*Unfit* he was for any worldly thing. *Spenser.*—Old as I am, for ladies

love *unfit*. *Dryd.*—Utterly *unfit* for speculative studies. *Watts.*

* **TO UNFIT.** *v. a.* To disqualify.—They *unfitted* him for a satisfaction in his vassals. *G. Tong.*

* **UNFITLY.** *adv.* Not properly; not suitably.—Others are neither unruly nor *unfitly* said to preach. *Hook.*—The kingdom of France may be not *unfitly* compared to a body that hath all its blood drawn up into the arms, breast and back. *Hoewel.*

* **UNFITNESS.** *n. f.* 1. Want of qualifications.—The *unfitness* of an ignorant minister. *Hook.*—It is looked upon as a great weakness, and *unfitness* for business. *South.* 2. Want of propriety.

* **UNFITTING.** *adj.* Not of proper.—
Monosyllables are *unfitting* for verses. *Camden.*

* **TO UNFIX.** *v. a.* 1. To loosen; to make less fast.—Plucking to *unfix* an enemy. *Shak.*—*Unfix* the earth-bound root. *Shak.* 2. To make fluid.—*Unfix* their frosts, and teach them how to run. *Dryden.*

* **UNFIXED.** *adj.* 1. Wandering; erratically; inconstant; vagrant.—

So vast the noise, as if not fleets did join;
But lauds *unfix'd*, and floating nations strove. *Dryden.*

Her lovely looks a sprightly mind disclose,
Quick as her eyes, and as *unfix'd* as those. *Pope.*
2. Not determined.—

Irresolute on which the should rely:
At last *unfix'd* in all, is only fix'd to die. *Dryd.*

* **UNFLEDGED.** *adj.* That has not yet the full furniture of feathers; young; not completed by time; not having attained full growth.—Of each new-batch'd, *unfledg'd* comrade. *Shak.*—In those *unfledg'd* days was my wife a girl. *Shak.*—*Unfledg'd* actors learn to laugh and cry. *Dryden.*

* **UNFLESHED.** *adj.* Not fleshed; not seasoned to blood; raw.—With some less foe thy *unflesh'd* valour try. *Cowley.*—A generous, *unflesh'd* hound. *Dryden.*

* **UNFOILED.** *adj.* Unsubdued; not put to the work.—An *unfoiled* army. *Temple.*

* **TO UNFOLD.** *v. a.* 1. To expand; to spread; to open.—*Unfold* her crystal doors. *Milton.*

Invade his hissing throat, and winding spires,
'Till stretch'd in length th' *unfolded* foe retires. *Dryden.*

—The vivid green his shining plumes *unfold*. *Pope.*—Sloth *unfolds* her arms, and wakes. *Pope.* 2.

To tell; to declare.—Tidings my heart doth tremble to *unfold*. *Shak.*—*Unfold* to me why you are heavy. *Shak.*—*Unfold* the passion of my love. *Shak.*—Helen, to you our minds we will *unfold*. *Shak.*—*Unfold*, celestial guide! *Milt.*—Things of deep sense we may in prose *unfold*. *Waller.* 3. To discover; to reveal.—Time shall *unfold* what plac'd cunning hides. *Shak.*—*Unfolds* the theory of microscopes and telescopes. *Newton.* 4. To display; to set to view.—To examine and *unfold* the works of God. *Burnet.* 5. To release or dismiss from a fold.—The *unfolding* star calls up the shepherd. *Shak.*

* **TO UNFOOL.** *v. a.* To restore from folly.—Have you any way to *unfold* me again. *Shak.*

* **UNFORBID.** } *adj.* Not prohibited.—

* **UNFORBIDDEN.** } It *unforbid* thou may'st unfold

unfold. *Milton*.—These are the *unforbidden* trees. *Norris*.—He restrains himself in *unforbidden* instances. *Atterbury*.

• **UNFORBIDDENNESS**. *n. f.* The state of being *unforbidden*.—This bravery is not prohibited in scripture; and this *unforbiddenness* shews that it is not in his own nature sinful. *Boyle*.

• **UNFORCED**. *adj.* 1. Not compelled; not constrained.—This gentle and *unforced* accord of Hamlet. *Shak*.—*Unforced* by punishment, unaw'd by fear. *Dryd*. 2. Not impelled; not externally urged.—

No more can impure man retain and move
In that pure region of a worthy love,
Than earthly substance can, *unforced*, aspire,
And leave his nature to converse with fire.

Donne.

3. Not feigned; not artificially heightened.—Such *unforced* and unfeigned passions. *Hayward*.
4. Not violent; easy; gradual.—With such an easy and *unforced* ascent. *Demb*. 5. Not contrary to ease.—A situation which is *unforced*. *Dryd*.

• **UNFORCIBLE**. *adj.* Wanting strength.—The same reason which causeth to yield that they are of some force in the one, will constrain to acknowledge, that they are not in the other altogether *unforcible*. *Hooker*.

• **UNFOREBODING**. *adj.* Giving no omens.—Unnumber'd birds do *unforeboding* stray. *Pope*.

• **UNFOREKNOWN**. *adj.* Not foreseen by preference.—It had no less prov'd certain, *unforeknown*. *Milton*.

• **UNFORESEEN**. *adj.* Not known before it happened.—*Unforeseen*, they say, is unprepared. *Dryden*.

• **UNFORESKINNED**. *adj.* Circumcised.—Won by a Philistine from the *unforeskin'd* race. *Milton*.

• **UNFORFEITED**. *adj.* Not forfeited.—The *unforfeited* glory of our religion. *Rogers*.

• **UNFORGIVING**. *adj.* Relentless; implacable.—The covetous charl, of *unforgiving* kind. *Dryd*.

• **UNFORGOTTEN**. *adj.* Not lost to memory.—It shall for ever remain *unforgotten*. *Knolles*.

• **UNFORMED**. *adj.* Not modified into regular shape.—A mere confusion, and *unformed* mixture. *Bacon*.—The regions of *unformed* matter. *Speator*.

• **UNFORSAKEN**. *adj.* Not deserted.—Sins continued in or *unforsaken*. *Hammond*.

• **UNFORTIFIED**. *adj.* 1. Not secured by walls or bulwarks.—Their weak heads, like towns *unfortified*. *Pope*. 2. Not strengthened; infirm; weak; feeble.—A heart *unfortify'd*, a mind impatient. *Shak*. 3. Wanting securities.—The *unfortify'd* state of mankind. *Collier*.

• **UNFORTUNATE**. *adj.* Not successful; unprosperous; wanting luck; unhappy. It is used both of a train of events, as, an *unfortunate life*; or of a single event, as, an *unfortunate expedition*; or of persons, as, an *unfortunate man*; or an *unfortunate commander*.—They are in no event *unfortunate*. *Hook*.—Whosoever will live altogether out of himself, and study other mens humours, shall never be *unfortunate*. *Ral*.—Witches, who, as they are mischievous and *unfortunate*. *Bac*.—

He that would hunt a hare with an elephant, is not *unfortunate* for missing the mark. *Tayl*.—He is *unfortunate* in nuptial choice. *Milton*.

• **UNFORTUNATELY**. *adv.* Unhappily; without good luck.—Unconsulting affection *unfortunately* born to mewards. *Sidney*.—Most of these artists *unfortunately* miscarry'd. *Wilk*.—*Unfortunately* lov'd. *Dryden*.

• **UNFORTUNATENESS**. *n. f.* [from *unfortunate*.] Ill luck.—My sister's greatest *unfortunateness*. *Sidney*.

• **UNFOUGHT**. *adj.* [un and fought.] Not fought.—It was not possible they should escape *unfought* with. *Knolles*.

• **UNFOULED**. *adj.* Unpolluted; uncorrupted; not soiled.—Light *unfoul'd* and unofspicuated. *More*.

• **UNFOUND**. *adj.* Not found; not met with.—Somewhat *unfound*, or found in her alone. *Dryd*.

• **UNFRAMABLE**. *adj.* Not to be moulded. Not used.—Their disposition so *unframable* unto societies. *Hooker*.

• **UNFRAMED**. *adj.* Not formed; not fashioned.—A lifeless lump, *unfashion'd* and *unfram'd*. *Dryd*.

• **UNFREQUENT**. *adj.* Uncommon; not happening often.—Being only discoverable in the night, it becomes *unfrequent*. *Brown*.

• **TO UNFREQUENT**. *v. a.* To leave; to cease to frequent. A bad word.—They quit their thefts, and *unfrequent* the fields. *Philips*.

• **UNFREQUENTED**. *adj.* Rarely visited; rarely entered.—Many *unfrequented* plots there are. *Shak*.—This *unfrequented* place. *Milton*.—*Unfrequented* shade. *Rosc*.—Till he has gain'd some *unfrequented* place. *Blackm*.—In places *unfrequented*. *Addison*.

• **UNFREQUENTLY**. *adv.* Not commonly.—They desire death, and not *unfrequently* pursue it. *Brown*.

• **UNFRIENDED**. *adj.* Wanting friends; uncountenanced; unsupported.—Unaided and *unfriended*. *Shak*.—Thou art unknown, *unfriended*, low of birth. *Milton*.—O God! Who me *unfriended* brought'st. *Dryd*.

• **UNFRIENDLINESS**. *n. f.* [from *unfriendly*.] Want of kindness; want of favour.—An *unfriendliness* in nature. *Boyle*.

• **UNFRIENDLY**. *adj.* Not benevolent; not kind.—An *unfriendly* parent or brother. *G. Torg*.—An hostile, *unfriendly* being. *Rogers*.

• **UNFROZEN**. *adj.* Not congealed to ice.—The more subtle parts remain *unfrozen*. *Boyle*.

• **UNFRUITFUL**. *adj.* 1. Not prolific.—Th' *unfruitful* urn. *Pope*. 2. Not fructiferous.—The naked rocks are not *unfruitful* there. *Walker*. 3. Not fertile.—*Unfruitful* soils. *Mort*. 4. Not producing good effects.

• **UNFULFILLED**. *adj.* Not fulfilled.—Still *unfulfilled*, with pain of longing pine. *Mitt*.

• **TO UNFURL**. *v. a.* To expand; to unfold; to open.—The next motion is that of *unfurling* the fan. *Addison*.—Her ship's anchor'd, and her sails *unfurl'd*. *Prior*.—His sails by Cupid's hand *unfurl'd*. *Prior*.

• **TO UNFURNISH**. *v. a.* 1. To deprive; to strip; to divest.—*Unfurnish* me of reason. *Shaksp*. 2. To

2. To leave naked.—His *unfurnish'd* kingdom. *Shak.*

* **UNFURNISHED.** *adj.* 1. Not accommodated with utensils, or decorated with ornaments.—*Unfurnish'd* with ideas. *Locke.*—A vast *unfurnish'd* house. *Swift.* 2. Unsupplied.

* **UNGAIN.** } *adj.* [*ungeng*, Saxon.] Awk-
* **UNGAINLY.** } ward; uncouth.—An *ungainly* strut in their walk. *Swift.*

* **UNGALLED.** *adj.* Unhurt; unwounded.—Let hart *ungalled* play. *Shak.*

* **UNGARTERED.** *adj.* Being without garters.—You child at Sir Proteus for going *ungarter'd*. *Shak.*

* **UNGATHERED.** *adj.* Not cropped; not picked.—The *ungather'd* apples hung. *Dryden.*

* **UNGENERATED.** *adj.* Unbegotten; having no beginning.—Millions of souls *ungenerated*. *Raleigh.*

* **UNGENERATIVE.** *adj.* Begetting nothing.—He is a motion *ungenerative*, that's infallible. *Shak.*

* **UNGENEROUS.** *adj.* 1. Not noble; not ingenuous; not liberal.—An *ungenorous* act. *Pope.* 2. Ignominious.—The victor never will impose on Cato—*Ungenerous* terms. *Addison.*

* **UNGENIAL.** *adj.* Not kind or favourable to nature.—The northern shires have an *ungenial* air. *Swift.*—Sullen seas that wash th' *ungenial* pole. *Thomson.*

* **UNGENTLE.** *adj.* Harsh; rude; rugged.—Strike, *ungentle* death. *Shak.*—Vicious, *ungentle*, foolishly blunt, unkind. *Shak.*—All my *ungentle* thoughts. *Denham.*

* **UNGENTLEMANLY.** *adj.* Illiberal; not becoming a gentleman.—Their demeanor, was much more *ungentlemanly*. *Clarend.*—This he contradicts in an *ungentlemanly* manner. *Swift.*

* **UNGENTLENESS.** *n. f.* Harshness; rudeness; severity.—Let not such *ungentleness* happen thy sheep. *Tusser.*—You have done me much *ungentleness*. *Shak.*

* **UNGENTLY.** *adv.* Harshly; rudely.—You've *ungently* stole from my bed. *Shak.*

Why speaks my father to *ungently*? *Shak.*—Nor was it *ungently* received by Lindamira. *Arb.*

* **UNGEOMETRICAL.** *adj.* Not agreeable to the laws of geometry.—All the attempts were *ungeometrical*. *Cleynre.*

UNGH, a river of Upper Hungary, in Ungwar.

* **UNGILDED.** *adj.* Not overlaid with gold.—Our mean *ungilded* stage with scorn. *Dryden.*

* **To UNGIRD.** *v. a.* To loose any thing bound with a girdle.—The man *ungirded* his camels. *Gen. xxiv. 32.*—*Ungirt* her spacious bosom. *Prior.*

* **UNGIRT.** *adj.* Loosely dressed.—Her robe *ungirt*. *Waller.*—For Carians, and th' *ungirt* Numidian race. *Dryden.*

* **UNGIVING.** *adj.* Not bringing gifts.—In vain at shrines th' *ungiving* suppliant stands. *Dryd.*

* **UNGLORIFIED.** *adj.* Not honoured; not exalted with praise and adoration. Left God should be *unglorified*. *Hooker.*

* **UNGLOVED.** *adj.* Having the hand naked.—Holding forth his hand *ungloved*. *Bacon.*

* **To UNGLOVE.** *v. a.* To loose any thing cemented.—Small rains relax and *unglove* the earth.

VOL. XXII. PART II.

Harvey.—She stretches, gapes, *unglues* her eyes. *Swift.*

* **To UNGOD.** *v. a.* To divest of divinity.—T' *ungod* this child again, it could not be. *Donne.*—Thus men *ungodded* may to places rise. *Dryd.*

* **UNGODLILY.** *adv.* Impiously; wickedly;—To use that gospel so irreverently and *ungodlily*. *Gov. of Tongue.*

* **UNGODLINESS.** *n. f.* Impiety; wickedness; neglect of God.—*Ungodliness* and worldly lusts. *Tillotson.*

* **UNGODLY.** *adj.* 1. Wicked; negligent of God and his laws.—Had driven out th' *ungodly* from his fight. *Milton.*—The finner here intended is th' *ungodly* finner. *Rogers.* 2. Polluted by wickedness.—This *ungodly* day. *Shak.*

* **UNGORED.** *adj.* Unwounded; unhurt.—To keep my name *ungor'd*. *Shak.*

* **UNGORGED.** *adj.* Not filled; not sated.—*Ungorged* with flesh and blood. *Dryd.*—Oh *ungorg'd* appetite. *Smilh.*

* **UNGOVERNABLE.** *adj.* 1. Not to be ruled; not to be restrained.—*Ungovernable* by other laws. *Clawville.* 2. Licentious; wild; unbridled.—So wild and *ungovernable* a poet. *Dryd.*—Rough, *ungovernable* passions. *Atterbury.*

* **UNGOVERNED.** *adj.* 1. Being without government.—The estate is yet *ungovern'd*. *Shak.*—And all good men of this *ungovern'd* isle. *Shak.* 2. Not regulated; unbridled; licentious.—His *ungovern'd* rage. *Shak.*—To serve *ungovern'd* appetite. *Milton.*—Th' *ungovern'd* tempest to such fury grows. *Dryd.*—And lays the load on his *ungovern'd* love. *Dryd.*

* **UNGOT.** *adj.* 1. Not gained; not acquired. 2. Not begotten.—He is as free from touch or foil with her—As she from one *ungot*. *Shak.*—His loins yet full of *ungot* princes. *Waller.*

* **UNGRACEFUL.** *adj.* Wanting elegance; wanting beauty.—Nor are thy lips *ungraceful*. *Milton.*—Constrained, uneasy, and *ungraceful*. *Locke.*—Learning without politeness is *ungraceful*. *Addison.*

* **UNGRACEFULNESS.** *n. f.* Inelegance; awkwardness.—The *ungracefulness* of constraint. *Locke.*

* **UNGRACIOUS.** *adj.* 1. Wicked; odious; hateful.—He, catching hold of her *ungracious* tongue. *Spens.*—With this *ungracious* paper strike the fight. *Shak.*—Do not, as some *ungracious* pastors do. *Shak.*—Th' audacious strumpet, and *ungracious* son. *Dryd.* 2. Offensive; unpleasing.—Parts *ungracious* to the fight. *Dryd.*—An *ungracious* manner, and unhappy tone of voice. *Swift.* 3. Unacceptable; not favoured.—Several were most *ungracious* to them.—*Clar.*—It was as *ungracious* at Oxford, as at London. *Clar.*

* **UNGRAMMATICAL.** *adj.* [from *un* and *grammatical*.] Not according to grammar.

* **UNGRANTED.** *adj.* Not given; not yielded; not bestowed.—And this *ungranted*, all rewards are vain. *Dryd.*

* **UNGRATEFUL.** *adj.* 1. Making no returns, or making ill returns for kindness.—No person is remarkably *ungrateful*. *South.* 2. Making no returns for culture.—But the wild olive shoots, and shades th' *ungrateful* plain. *Dryd.* 3. Unpleasing; unacceptable.—It cannot be *ungrate-*

P p p p

ful,

ful, to posterity. *Clar.*—It must make harsh and ungrateful in preffions upon us. *Atterb.*

* **UNGRATEFULLY.** *adv.* **1.** With ingratitude.—Nor was his love ungratefully repaid. *Granv.*—When we ungratefully charge heaven with denying our petitions. *Wake.* **2.** Unacceptably; unpleasing.

* **UNGRATEFULNESS.** *n. f.* **1.** Ingratitude; ill return for good.—The detestable stain of ungratefulness. *Sidn.* **2.** Unacceptableness; unpleasing quality.

* **UNGRAVELY.** *adv.* Without seriousness.—Gibingly, and ungravely, he did fashion. *Shak.*

* **UNGROUNDED.** *adj.* Having no foundation.—Ignorance, with an indifference for truth, is nearer to it than opinion with ungrounded inclination. *Locke.*—This is a confidence the most ungrounded and irrational. *South.*

* **UNGRUDGINGLY.** *adv.* Without ill will; willingly; heartily; cheerfully.—Receive from him the doom ungrudgingly. *Donne.*

* **UNGUARDED.** *adj.* **1.** Undefended.—The throne of God unguarded. *Milt.*—Th' unguarded gates. *Desh.*—No door there was th' unguarded house to keep. *Dryd.* **2.** Careless; negligent; not attentive to danger.—An unguarded, unlimited will. *Tayl.*—To purchase one unguarded hour. *Prior.*—With an unguarded look. *Prior.*—Little unguarded follies. *Pope.*—Every unguarded action of our lives. *Rogers.*

(**1.**) * **UNGUENT.** *n. f.* [*unguentum*, Latin.] Ointment.—A fomentation to make the unguent enter. *Bac.*—The magnetick unguent and the vulnerated body. *Granv.*—With unguents smooth the lucid marble stone. *Pope.*

(**2.**) * **UNGUENT.** *n. f.* in medicine and surgery, a topical remedy or composition, chiefly used in the dressing of wounds or blisters. See *PHARMACY*, *Index*.

* **UNGUESSED.** *adj.* Not attained by conjecture.—He me sent, for cause to me unguessed. *Spens.*

* **UNGUIDED.** *adj.* Not directed; not regulated.—Th' unguided days. *Shak.*—Can unguided matter keep itself to such exact conformities, as not in the least spot to vary from the species? *Glavv.*—Unguided motions of blind matter. *Locke.*—Does by unguided motion things produce. *Blackm.*

UNGWAR, a town of Upper Hungary, the capital of a county so named; seated in an island in the *USGH*, among the mountains of *Crapach*; 47 miles E. of *Calfovia*. *Lon.* 22. 33. *E.* *Lat.* 48. 48. N.

* **UNHABITABLE.** *adj.* [*inhabitable*, Fr. *inhabitable*, Lat.] Not capable to support inhabitants; uninhabitable.—The uninhabitable poles of the world. *Held.*—Those parts are not uninhabitable, or extremely hot. *Ray.*

* **UNHACKED.** *adj.* Not cut; not hewn; not notched with cuts.—With unhacked swords, and helmets all unbruised. *Shak.*—Part with unhack'd edges. *Shak.*

* **TO UNHALLOW.** *v. a.* To deprive of holiness; to profane; to desecrate.—Made common, and unhallo'd. *Milt.*—The vanity unhallo's the virtue. *L'Estr.*—Unhallo and degrade them. *South.*

* **UNHALLOWED.** *adj.* Unholy; profane.—While thou lay'st in thy unhallo'd dam. *Shak.*—This unhallo'd air. *Milt.*—Or touch thy person with unhallo'd hands. *Dryd.*—Unhallo'd lays. *Pope.*

* **TO UNHAND.** *v. a.* To loose from the hand.—Unhand me, gentlemen. *Shak.*—Unhand me, traitors. *Denh.*

* **UNHANDLED.** *adj.* Not handled; not touched.—A race of youthful and unhandled colts. *Shak.*—Hath left the cause o' th' king unhandled. *Shak.*

* **UNHANDSOME.** *adj.* **1.** Ungraceful; not beautiful.—A gentlewoman not unhandsome. *Sidn.*—Not unhandsome now. *Wall.*—There is nothing unhandsome or irregular. *Woodcu.* **2.** Illiberal; disingenuous.

* **UNHANDSOMELY.** *adv.* [from *unhandsome*.] **1.** Inelegantly; ungracefully.—Ruined churches unhandfomely patch'd and thatched. *Spens.* **2.** Disingenuously; illiberally.—Unhandfomely would his denial feign. *Dryd.*

* **UNHANDSOMENESS.** *n. f.* [from *unhandfome*.] **1.** Want of beauty.—It did make handsome the unhandfomness of it. *Sidn.* **2.** Want of elegance.—Be not troublesome by unhandfomness or uncleanness. *Tayl.* **3.** Illiberality; disingenuity.

* **UNHANDY.** *adj.* Awkward; not dexterous.

* **TO UNHANG.** *v. a.* from *un* and *hang*.] To divest of hangings.

* **UNHANGED.** *adj.* Not put to death by the gallows.—There live not three good men unhang'd in England. *Shak.*

* **UNHAP.** *n. f.* Misluck; ill fortune.—The cause of her unhap. *Sidn.*

* **UNHAPPY.** [This word seems a participle from *unhappy*, which yet is never used as a verb.] Made unhappy.—By you unhappied, and disfigur'd clean. *Shak.*

* **UNHAPPILY.** *adv.* [from *unhappy*.] Miserably; unfortunately; wretchedly; calamitously.—I should judge now most unhappily. *Shak.*—He was unhappily too much used. *Clar.*—Unhappily deceiv'd! *Milt.*—They shall be unhappily deceived. *Till.*

* **UNHAPPINESS.** *n. f.* **1.** Misery; infelicity.—Heir to his unhappiness. *Shak.*—The foundation of our unhappiness. *Tillot.*—It is our great unhappiness that we are uneasy. *Wake.* **2.** Misfortune; ill luck.—He had the unhappiness not to follow it. *Burn.* **3.** Mischievous prank.—She hath often dream'd of unhappiness. *Shak.*

* **UNHAPPY.** *adj.* **1.** Wretched; miserable; unfortunate; calamitous; distressed. Of persons or things.—Desire of wand'ring this unhappy morn. *Milt.*—Th' unworthy fate of our unhappy friend. *Dryd.* **2.** Unlucky; mischievous; irregular. Obsolete.

* **TO UNHARBOUR.** *v. a.* To drive from shelter.

* **UNHARBOURED.** *adj.* Affording no shelter.—Huge forests, and unharbour'd heaths. *Milton.*

* **UNHARDENED.** *adj.* Not confirmed; not made hard.—Unharden'd youth. *Shak.*

* **UNHARDY.**

* **UNHARDY**. *adj.* Feeble; tender; timorous.

—Irresolute, *unhardy*, unadvent'rous. *Milt.*

* **UNHARMED**. *adj.* Unhurt; not injured.—From love's weak, childish bow the lives *unharm'd*. *Shak.*—It leaves the eye *unharm'd*. *Locke.*—Ty'd to the mast, Ulysses fail'd *unharm'd*. *Grav.*

* **UNHARMFUL**. *adj.* Innoxious; innocent.—Themselves *unharmful*, let them live *unharm'd*. *Dryden.*

* **UNHARMONIOUS**. *adj.* 1. Not symmetrical; disproportionate.—No gross, no *unharmious* mixture foul. *Milton.* 2. Unmusical; ill-founding.—His thoughts and expressions are *unharmious*. *Dryd.*—*Unharmious* sounds. *Swift.*

* **To UNHARNESS**. *v. a.* 1. To loose from the traces.—The sweating steers *unharness'd* from the yoke. *Dryd.*—The mules *unharness'd* range beside the main. *Pope.*—If there were fix horses, the postilion always *unharness'd* four. *Swift.* 2. To disarm; to divest of armour.

UNHARROWED. *adj.* Not harrowed.

* **UNHATCHED**. *adj.* 1. Not disclosed from the eggs. 2. Not brought to light.—

Some *unhatch'd* practice

Hath puddled his clear spirit. *Shak.*

* **UNHAZARDED**. *adj.* Not adventured; not put in danger.—

Here I should still enjoy thee day and night
Whole to myself, *unhazarded* abroad,
Fearless at home. *Milt.*

* **UNHEALTHFUL**. *adj.* Morbid; unwholesome.—The *unhealthful* season is the autumn. *Grav.*—Of sultry summers, or *unhealthful* springs. *Dryd.*

* **UNHEALTHY**. *adj.* Sickly; wanting health.—Dull and *unhealthy*. *Locke.*—*Unhealthy* mortals. *Philips.*

* **UNHEARD**. *adj.* 1. Not perceived by the ear.—Their children cries *unheard*. *Milt.* 2. Not vouchsafed an audience.—What pangs I feel, unpitied and *unheard*! *Dryden.* 3. Unknown in celebration.—Nor was his name *unheard*, or unador'd. *Milt.* 4. **UNHEARD OF**. Obscure; not known by fame.—*Unheard of* may I live and die in peace. *Graville.* 5. **UNHEARD OF**. Unprecedented.—The most *unheard of* confusion. *Swift.*

* **To UNHEART**. *v. a.* To discourage; to depress.—It much *unhearts* me. *Shak.*

UNHEARTY. *adj.* Not cheerful.

* **UNHEATED**. *adj.* Not made hot.—The narrow pores of *unheated* glass. *Boyle.*

* **UNHEEDED**. *adj.* Disregarded; not thought worthy of notice; escaping notice.—Some *unheeded* circumstance. *Boyle.*—He of his fatal guilt gave proof *unheeded*. *Milt.*—*Unheeded* bait of love. *Dry.*—The world's great victor pass'd *unheeded* by. *Pope.*

* **UNHEEDFUL**. *adj.* [from *unheed*.] Not cautious.

* **UNHEEDING**. *adj.* Negligent; careless.—He pass'd unmark'd by my *unheeding* eyes. *Dryd.*

* **UNHEEDY**. *adj.* Precipitate; sudden.—Threat'ning *unheedy* wreck, and rash decay. *Spens.*—Wings and no eyes, figure *unheedy* haste. *Shak.*—Pluck'd up by some *unheedy* swain. *Milt.*

* **To UNHIDE**. *v. a.* To uncover; to expose to view. *Spenser.*

* **UNHELPED**. *adj.* Unassisted; having no auxiliary; unsupported.—*Unhelp'd* I am, who pity'd the distress'd. *Dryd.*

* **UNHELPPFUL**. *adj.* Giving no assistance.—With sad and *unhelpful* tears. *Shak.*

* **UNHEWN**. *part. adj.* Not hewn.—Rough-cast, *unhewn* poetry. *Dryd.*

* **UNHIDEBOUND**. *adj.* Lax of maw; capacious.—To stuff this maw, this vast *unhidebound* corple. *Milt.*

* **To UNHINGE**. *v. a.* 1. To throw from the hinge. 2. To displace by violence.—And hills *unhing'd*, from their deep roots depart. *Blackm.* 3. To disorder; to confuse.—Just or unjust, I would the world *unhinge*. *Wall.*—Cheats would *unhinge* states, and run all into confusion. *Ray.*

* **UNHOLINESS**. *n. f.* Impiety; profaneness; wickedness.—The *unholiness* of obtruding upon men remission of sins for money. *Ral.*

* **UNHOLY**. *adj.* 1. Profane; not hallowed.—All things now in the church are *unholy*. *Hook.*

Drive out the sinful pair,

From hallow'd ground th' *unholy*. *Milt.*

2. Impious; wicked.—Think not us therefore *unholy*. *Hooker.*—Far other raptures of *unholy* joy. *Pope.*

* **UNHONOURED**. *adj.* 1. Not regarded with veneration; not celebrated.—*Unhonour'd* tho' I am. *Dryd.*—Pales *unhonour'd*, Ceres unemploy'd. *Dryd.* 2. Not treated with respect.—Unmark'd, *unhonour'd* at a monarch's gate. *Pope.*

* **To UNHOOP**. *v. a.* To divest of hoops.—*Unhoop* the fair sex. *Add.*

* **UNHOPED**. *adj.* Not expected; greater
* **UNHOPED FOR**. } than hope had promised.—
With *unhop'd* success. *Dryd.*—Whence your *unhop'd* for safety may be wrought. *Dryd.*

* **UNHOPEFUL**. *adj.* Such as leaves no room to hope.—Benedict is not the *unhopefullest* husband that I know. *Shak.*—I thought it might prove no *unhopeful* way. *Boyle.*

* **To UNHORSE**. *v. a.* To beat from a horse; to throw from the saddle.—He would *unhorse* the lustiest challenger. *Shakespeare.*—*Unhorsed* and sore wounded. *Knolles.*—On a fourth he flies, and him *unhorsed* too. *Dan.*—To fare like men *unhors'd*. *Wall.*—The knights *unhors'd* may rise from off the plain. *Dryd.*

* **UNHOSPITABLE**. *adj.* [*inhospitalis*, Latin.] Affording no kindness or entertainment to strangers; cruel; barbarous.—Stain'd with my blood the *unhospitable* coast. *Dryd.*

* **UNHOSTILE**. *adj.* Not belonging to an enemy.—Indignant, by *unhostile* wounds destroy'd. *Philips.*

* **To UNHOUSE**. *v. a.* To drive from the habitation.—Thinking her *unhous'd* here, and fled from us. *Donne.*—*Unhous'd* thy virgin soul from her fair biding place. *Milt.*

* **UNHOUSED**. *adj.* 1. Homeless; wanting a house.—Naked creatures, wh^o bare, *unhoused* trunks. *Shak.* 2. Having no settled habitation.—My *unhoused*, free condition. *Shak.*—You *unhous'd*, lawless, rambling libertines. *Southern.*

* **UNHOUSELLED**. *adj.* Having not the sacrament.—*Unhousel'd*, unanointed, unanell'd. *Shak.*

P p p p a * **UNHUMBLED**.

* **UNHUMBLED.** *adj.* Not humbled; not touched with shame or confusion.—*Unhumbled, unrepented, unreformed. Milt.*

* **UNHURT.** *adj.* Free from harm.—Two men only came off *unhurt. Bac.*—My nimble feet from *unhurt* flow'rs rebound. *Dryd.*—Through burning climes I pass'd *unhurt. Add.*—*Unhurt*, amidst the war of elements. *Add.*

* **UNIhurtFUL.** *adj.* Innoxious; harmless; doing no harm.—You imagine me too *unhurtful* an opposite. *Shak.*—Flames *unhurtful*, hovering, dance in air. *Blackmore.*

* **UNHURTFULLY.** *adv.* Without harm; innoxiously.—Innocently and *unhurtfully. Pope.*

(1.) * **UNICORN.** *n. f.* [*unicornus, unus and cornu, Lat.*] 1. A beast, whether real or fabulous, that has only one horn.—Wert thou the *unicorn*, pride and wrath would confound thee. *Shak.*—*Unicornus* may be betrayed with trees. *Shak.*—Nature, in conigerous animals, hath placed the horns inversed upwards, as in the rhinoceros, Indian *als*, and *unicorn* beetles. *Brown.*—Dioscorides hath made no mention of *unicorns* horn. *Brown.*—Some *unicorns* we will allow even among insects. *Brown.*—Will the fierce *unicorn* thy voice obey. *Sandys.* 2. A bird.—Or the *unicorn* bird, the principal marks are these; headed and footed like the dunghill cock, tailed like a goose, horned on his forehead, with some likeness, as the *unicorn* is pictured; spur's on his wings, bigger than a swan. *Grew.*

(2.) The **UNICORN** is thought to be the same with the rhinoceros. See RHINOCEROS. Sparmann informs us, that the figure of the unicorn described by the ancients has been found delineated by the Senee Hottentots on the plain surface of a rock in Caffraria; and therefore conjectures, that such an animal either does exist at present in the internal parts of Africa, or at least once did so. Father Lobo affirms that he has seen it.

(3.) **UNICORN FISH.** See MONODON.

UNIE. See NIE.

(1.) * **UNIFORM.** *adj.* [*unus and forma.*] 1. Keeping its tenour; similar to itself.—Though it may put on a face never so *uniform* and alike, yet it is in reality very different. 2. Conforming to one rule; acting in the same manner; agreeing with each other.—Churches are bound to be *uniform* in their ceremonies. *Hooker.*—All, with *uniform* consent, admire her. *Hooker.*—Neither *uniform* in their designs, nor direct in their views. *Sau.*

(2.) **UNIFORM,** denotes a thing to be similar, or consistent either with another thing, or with itself, in respect of figure, stature, proportion, or the like; in which sense it stands opposed to *disform.*

(1.) * **UNIFORMITY.** *n. f.* [*uniformité, Fr.*] 1. Resemblance to itself; even tendur.—There is no *uniformity* in the design of Spenser. *Dryden.*—Steadiness and *uniformity.* *Add.* 2. Conformity to one pattern; resemblance of one to another.—The unity of the church of Christ, consisteth in that *uniformity*, which all the several persons thereunto belonging have. *Hooker.*—The council ordained constant *uniformity. Nelson.*

(2.) **UNIFORMITY,** regularity, a similitude or resemblance between the parts of a whole. Such as that we meet with in figures of many sides, and angles respectively equal, and answerable to each

other. A late ingenious author makes beauty to consist in uniformity, joined or combined with variety. Where the uniformity is equal in two objects, the beauty, he contends, is as the variety; and where the variety is equal, the beauty is as the uniformity.

(3.) **UNIFORMITY** is particularly used for one and the same form of public prayers, and administration of sacraments and other rites, &c. of the church of England, prescribed by the famous stat. 1. Eliz. and 13. and 14. Car. II. cap. 4. called the *Act of Uniformity.* See LITURGY.

* **UNIFORMLY.** *adv.* [*from uniform.*] 1. Without variation; in an even tenour.—Thou faith the church doth *uniformly* hold. *Hooker.*—*Uniformly*, and without interruption. *Newton.* 2. Without diversity of one from another.

UNIGENITUS. See JANSENISTS.

* **UNIMAGINABLE.** *adj.* Not to be imagined by the fancy; not to be conceived.—

Things to their thought

So *unimaginable* as hate in heav'n. *Mil.*

—Artful and *unimaginable* touches. *Milton.*—An infinite succession is utterly *unimaginable. Tullison.*

* **UNIMAGINABLY.** *adv.* To a degree not to be imagined.—*Unimaginably* subtle compasses. *Boyle.*

* **UNIMITABLE.** *adj.* [*inimitable, Fr. inimitabilis, Lat.*] Not to be imitated.—Both these are *unimitable. Burnet.*

* **UNIMMORTAL.** *adj.* Not immortal; mortal.—Both to destroy, or *unimmortal* make. *Mil.*

* **UNIMPAIRABLE.** *adj.* Not liable to waste or diminution.—If the superior be *unimpaired*, it is a strong presumption, that the inferiors are likewise *unimpaired. Hakeswill.*

* **UNIMPAIRED.** *adj.* Not diminished; not worn out.—Yet *unimpaired* with labours, or with time. *Dryd.*—Our public credit continues *unimpaired. Add.*

* **UNIMPLORED.** *adj.* Not solicited.—

Of my celestial patrons, who deigns

Her nightly visitation *unimplored.* *Milton.*

* **UNIMPORTANT.** *adj.* 1. Not momentous. 2. Assuming no airs of dignity.—A free, *unimportant*, natural, easy manner. *Pope.*

* **UNIMPORTUNED.** *adj.* Not solicited; not teased to compliance.—Ever ran—To danger *unimportun'd. Donne.*

* **UNIMPROBABLE.** *adj.* Incapable of melioration.

* **UNIMPROVEABLENESS.** *n. f.* [*from unimprovable.*] Quality of not being improvable.—Ignorance and *unimproveableness* in knowledge. *Hammond.*

* **UNIMPROVED.** *adj.* 1. Not made better. 2. Not made more knowing.—Not a mask were *unimprov'd* away. *Pope.* 3. Not taught; not meliorated by instruction.—Of *unimproved* mettle, hot and full. *Shak.*—Shallow, *unimproved* intellects. *Glanv.*

* **UNINCREASABLE.** *adj.* Admitting no increase.—*Unincreasable* elevation and vastness of affection. *Boyle.*

* **UNINDIFFERENT.** *adj.* Partial; leaning to a side.—His opinion touching the catholick church was as *unindifferent*, as, touching our church,

hurch, the opinion of them that favour this pretended reformation is. *Hooker.*

* **UNINDUSTRIOUS.** *adj.* Not diligent, not laborious.—A sluggish or *unindustrious* agent. *Dec. f. Piety.*

* **UNINFLAMMABLE.** *adj.* Not capable of being set on fire.—The *uninflammable* spirit of such concretions. *Boyle.*

* **UNINFLAMED.** *adj.* Not set on fire.—A greater heat than others have *uninflamed*. *Bacon.*

* **UNINFORMED.** *adj.* 1. Untaught; uninstructed.—Nor *uninform'd*—Of nuptial sanctity. *Milton.*—*Uninformed* minds. *Pope.* 2. Unanimated; not enlivened.

* **UNINGENUOUS.** *adj.* Illiberal; disingenuous.—This stratagem would be as unskilful, as it is *uningenuous*. *Decay of Piety.*

* **UNINHABITABLE.** *adj.* Unfit to be inhabited.—That supposed *uninhabitable* burnt zone. *Raleigh.*—To man an *uninhabitable* flood. *Blackmore.*

* **UNINHABITABLENESS.** *n. f.* Incapacity of being inhabited.—The *uninhabitableness* of the torrid zone. *Boyle.*

* **UNINHABITED.** *adj.* Having no dwellers.—The whole island is now *uninhabited*. *Sandys.*—*Uninhabited*, until'd, unsown. *Pope.*—The island seemed to be *uninhabited*. *Swift.*

* **UNINJURED.** *adj.* Unhurt; suffering no harm.—*Uninjur'd* in this wild surrounding waste. *Milton.*—Untouch'd thy tomb, *uninjur'd* be thy dust. *Prior.*

* **UNINSCRIBED.** *adj.* Having no inscription.—Obscure the place, and *uninscrib'd* the stone. *Pope.*

* **UNINSPIRED.** *adj.* Not having received any supernatural instruction or illumination.—Men *uninspir'd*. *Locke.*—And yet not wholly *uninspir'd* the fings. *Dryden.*

* **UNINSTRUCTED.** *adj.* Not taught; not helped by institution.—And *uninstructed* how to stem the tide. *Dryden.*—*Uninstructed* in the arts. *Locke.*—*Uninstructed* persons. *Addison.*—*Uninstructed* Christians. *Locke.*

* **UNINSTRUCTIVE.** *adj.* Not conferring any improvement.—Were not men of abilities thus communicative, their experience would be *uninstructive*. *Addison.*

* **UNINTELLIGENT.** *adj.* Not knowing; not skilful; not having any consciousness.—We will give you sleepy drinks, that your senses may be *unintelligent*. *Shak.*—The *unintelligent* vulgar. *Glanv.*—A drivelling, *unintelligent*, untractable changeling. *Locke.*—An author *unintelligent* and blind. *Blackm.*—The obvious products of *unintelligent* nature. *Bentley.*

* **UNINTELLIGIBILITY.** *n. f.* Quality of not being intelligible.—Credit the *unintelligibility* of this union and motion. *Glanv.*—If we have truly proved the *unintelligibility* of it. *Burnet.*

* **UNINTELLIGIBLE.** *adj.* [*unintelligible*, Fr.] Not such as can be understood.—It was *unintelligible* in his time. *Swift.*—On the learn'd *unintelligible* prize! *Dryden.*—Harmless, *unintelligible* enthusiasm. *Rogers.*

* **UNINTELLIGIBLY.** *adv.* In a manner not to be understood.—Sound is not *unintelligibly* explained by a vibrating motion communicated

to the medium. *Locke.*—It is to talk *unintelligibly*. *Locke.*

* **UNINTENTIONAL.** *adj.* Not designed; happening without design.—*Unintentional* deficiencies of style. *Boyle.*

* **UNINTERESTED.** } *adj.* Not having in-

* **UNINTERESTED.** } terest.—The greatest part of an audience is always *uninterested*. *Dryd.*

* **UNINTERMITTED.** *adj.* Continued; not interrupted.—Continued and *uninterrupted*. *Hale.*

* **UNINTERMIXED.** *adj.* Not mingled.—*Unintermix'd* with fictitious fantasies. *Daniel.*

* **UNINTERRUPTED.** *adj.* Not broken; not interrupted.—With unmixed joy, *uninterrupted* rest. *Roscommon.*—*Uninterrupted* union and correspondence. *Addis.*—A vast, *uninterrupted* prospect. *Addison.*—The *uninterrupted* stitch in superficial wounds, is rejected. *Sharp.*

* **UNINTERRUPTEDLY.** *adj.* Without interruption.—A successive augmentation *uninterruptedly* continued. *Pearson.*—The powers of the body are *uninterruptedly* employed. *Locke.*

* **UNINTRENCHED.** *adj.* Not intrenched.—Unfortified and *unintrenched*. *Pope.*

* **UNINVESTIGABLE.** *adj.* Not to be searched out.—The works of this visible world being *uninvestigable* by us. *Ray.*

* **UNINVITED.** *adj.* Not asked.—Come *uninvited*. *Philips.*

* **UNJOINTED.** *adj.* 1. Disjoined; separated.—

I hear the sound of words; their sense the air dissolves *unjointed* ere it reach my ear. *Milton.*

2. Having no articulation.—They are all three immovable or *unjointed*, of the thickness of a little pin. *Grew.*

UNIOLA, in botany, SEA-SIDE OATS OF CAROLINA, a genus of plants, in the class of *Triandria*, and order of *Dygnia*; ranking in the natural method under the 4th order, *Gramina*. It is a native of Carolina.

(1.) * **UNION.** *n. f.* [*unio*, Lat.] 1. The act of joining two or more, so as to make them one.—And gladly of our *union* hear thee speak. *Milt.*—One kingdom, joy, and *union* without end. *Milt.* 2. Concord; conjunction of mind or interests.—An *union* with God. *Taylor.* 3. A pearl. Not in use.—And in the cup an *union* shall he throw. *Shak.* 4. [In law.] *Union* is a combining or consolidation of two churches in one, which is done by the consent of the bishop, the patron, and incumbent. And this is properly called an *union*: but there are two other sorts, as when one church is made subject to the other, and when one man is made prelate of both, and when a conventual is made cathedral. Touching *union* in the first signification, there was a statute, an. 37 Hen. VIII. chap. 27. that it should be lawful in two churches, whereof the value of the one is not above six pounds in the king's books, of the first fruits, and not above one mile distant from the other. *Union* in this signification is personal, and that is for the life of the incumbent; or real, that is, perpetual, whosoever is incumbent. *Cowel.*

(2.) **UNION**, in geography, a post town of Pennsylvania; capital of Fayette county. It has a court-house. It is 298 miles from Philadelphia.

(3.) **UNION**, or THE UNION, by way of emi-

nence, is more particularly used to express the act by which the two separate kingdoms of England and Scotland were incorporated into one, under the title of *The kingdom of great Britain*. This union, in vain attempted by king James I. was at length effected in the year 1707, 6 Anne, when 25 articles were agreed to by the parliaments of both nations; the purport of the most considerable being as follows: 1. That on the first of May 1707, and for ever after, the kingdoms of England and Scotland shall be united into one kingdom, by the name of GREAT BRITAIN. 2. The succession to the monarchy of Great Britain shall be the same as was before settled with regard to that of England. 3. The united kingdom shall be represented by one parliament. 4. There shall be a communication of all rights and privileges between the subjects of both kingdoms, except where it is otherwise agreed. 9. When England raises 2,000,000 l. by a land-tax, Scotland shall raise 48,000 l. 16, 17. The standards of the coin, of weights, and of measures, shall be reduced to those of England throughout the united kingdoms. 18. The laws relating to trade, customs, and the excise, shall be the same in Scotland as in England. But all the other laws of Scotland shall remain in force; but alterable by the parliament of Great Britain. Yet with this caution, that laws relating to public policy are alterable at the discretion of the parliament; laws relating to private right are not to be altered but for the evident utility of the people of Scotland. 21. Sixteen peers are to be chosen to represent the peerage of Scotland in parliament, and forty-five members to sit in the house of commons. 23. The sixteen peers of Scotland shall have all privileges of parliament; and all peers of Scotland shall be peers of Great Britain, and rank next after those of the same degree at the time of the union, and shall have all privileges of peers, except sitting in the house of lords, and voting on the trial of a peer. These are the principal of the 25 articles of union, which are ratified and confirmed by statute 5 Ann. c. 8; in which statute there are also two acts of parliament recited; the one of Scotland, whereby the church of Scotland, and also the four universities of that kingdom, are established for ever, and all succeeding sovereigns are to take an oath inviolably to maintain the same: the other of England, 5 Anne, c. 6. whereby the acts of uniformity of 13 Eliz. and 13 Car. II. (except as the same had been altered by parliament at that time,) and all other acts then in force for the preservation of the church of England, are declared perpetual; and it is stipulated, that every subsequent king and queen shall take an oath inviolably to maintain the same within England, Ireland, Wales, and the town of Berwick upon Tweed. And it is enacted, that these two acts "shall for ever be observed as fundamental and essential conditions of the union."

(4.) UNION OF ENGLAND WITH IRELAND. See IRELAND, § 24.

(5.) UNION OF UTRECHT. See UNITED PROVINCES, § 7.

* UNIPAROUS. *adj.* [*unus* and *pario*.] Bringing one at a birth.—*Uniparous* animals. *Brown*.

UNIQUE, *adj.* [*Fr. only*.] among antiquaries, that of which there is but one in the world; as the gold coin of *Otho*, &c.

(1.) * UNISON. *adj.* [*unus* and *sonus*, Latin.] Sounding alone.—

Sounds intermix'd with voice

Choral, or *unison*.

Milton

(2.) * UNISON. *n. f.* 1. A string that has the same sound with another.—In musical strings tuned *unisons*. *Glanv.* 2. A single unvaried note.—While a long, solemn *unison* went round. *Pope*.

Diversify'd 'midst *unison* of chime,

Freer than air, yet manacled with rhyme. *Hart*.

(3.) UNISON, in music. See INTERVAL, § III. and MUSIC, Def. § 19.

* UNIT. *n. f.* [*unus*, *unitus*, Latin.] One; the least number; or root of numbers.—'Tis above a hundred million millions odds to an *unit*. *Bentley*.—Units are the integral parts of any large number. *Watts*.

UNITARIANS, *n. f. plur.* in ecclesiastical history, a name given to those who confine the glory and attribute of divinity to the One only great and supreme God, and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ. Dr PRIESTLY was the head of the sect.

UNITAS FRATRUM, or UNITED BRETHREN, in ecclesiastical history, a church of which some account will be found under the articles HERRHUT, and HERRNHUTTERS. The church of the United Brethren took its rise in Moravia during the 14th century; but is said by the Brethren to have derived its origin from the Greek church in the 9th century, when, by the instrumentality of Methodius and Cyrillus, two Greek monks, the kings of Bulgaria and Moravia being converted to the faith, were, together with their subjects, united in communion with the Greek church. Methodius was the first bishop; and for their use Cyrillus translated the Scriptures into the Slavonian language. Though they consider episcopal ordination as necessary to qualify the servants of the church for their respective functions, they allow to their bishops no elevation of rank or pre-eminent authority; their church having from its first establishment been governed by synods, consisting of deputies from all the congregations; and by other subordinate bodies, which they call *consensuses*. In questions of importance, or of which the consequences cannot be foreseen, recourse is had to the *lot*, which is never made use of but after mature deliberation and fervent prayer. In their opinion, episcopal consecration does not confer any power to preside over one or more congregations; and a bishop can discharge no office but by the appointment of a synod, or of the Elders conference of the Unity. Presbyters among them can perform every function of the bishop except ordination; for he confirms, by the laying on of hands on young persons when they first become candidates for the communion. Deacons are assistants to the presbyters much in the same way as in the church of England; and in the Brethren churches deaconesses are retained, for the purpose of privately admonishing their own sex, and visiting them in their sickness; but though they are solemnly blessed to this office, they are not permitted to teach in public, and far less to administer

r the sacrament. They have also *seniores ci-*
les, or lay-elders, in contradistinction to spiritual
ders or bishops, who are appointed to watch
er the constitution and discipline of the Unity of
e Brethren; over the observance of the laws of
e country in which congregations or missions
e established; and over the privileges granted
the Brethren by the governments under which
ey live. They do not consider a regular course
f literary education as at all necessary to qualify
ersons for admission into orders, provided they
offess a thorough knowledge of the word of God,
hich they call *solid Christian experience*, and a well
gulated zeal to serve God and their neighbours.
n Sunday, besides the public prayers, which
re either read from a liturgy or pronounced ex-
mpore by the minister, one or two sermons are
reached in every church or chapel; and after
he morning service an exhortation is given to the
hildren. Previous to the holy communion,
hich is administered on some Sunday once a-
month, and likewise on *Maunday Thursday*, each
erson who intends to communicate converses
ith one of the elders on the state of his soul, ex-
pressing his desire to partake of the sacrament.
The celebration of the communion is generally
eceded by a *love feast*, which is also kept on other
olemn occasions. On *Maunday Thursday*, be-
fore communion, the Brethren have a solemn *foot-*
washing; and at this, and we suppose at other
imes, they greet one another with the *kiss of cha-*
riety. These ceremonies they consider as religious
ites, and authorized through all ages of the church
y our Saviour himself and his two apostles St
Peter and St Paul. (John xii. 14. 1 Peter v. 14.
Rom. xvi. 16.) Our limits will not permit us to
give a systematic view of the doctrinal tenets of
the Brethren. Though they acknowledge no o-
ther standard of truth than the sacred Scriptures,
they adhere to the Augsburg Confession, and
speak respectfully of the 39 articles of the church
of England. They believe that the kingdom of
Christ is not confined to any particular party,
community, or church; and they consider them-
selves, though united in one body or visible church,
as spiritually joined in the bond of Christian love
to all who are taught of God, and belong to the
universal church of Christ, however much they
may differ in forms, which they deem non-essen-
tials. A full account of this society of Christians,
will be found in *Cranz's Ancient and Modern His-*
tory of the Protestant Church of the United Brethren,
printed in London, 1780; and in a work entitled
An Exposition of Christian Doctrine as taught in
the Protestant Church of the United Brethren, Lond.
1784.

(1.) * To UNITE. v. a. [*unitus*, Latin.] 1. To
join two or more into one.—The force in one
right hand he now *unites*. *Spenser*.—A proposition
for *uniting* both kingdoms. *Swift*. 2. To make
to agree.—The king proposed to *unite* his king-
dom in one form of worship. *Clarendon*. 3. To
make to adhere.—The peritonæum may be *united*
with the muscular flesh. *Wise*. 4. To join.
—To give our hearts *united* ceremony. *Shak*.—
Charity is of a fastening and *uniting* nature. *Pearce*.
—*United* with colours of a friendly nature. *Dryd*.

5. To join in interest.—Unto their assembly, mine
honour be not thou *united*.

(2.) * To UNITE. v. n. 1. To join in an act; to
concur; to act in concert.—If you will now *unite*
in your complaint. *Shak*. 2. To coalesce; to be ce-
mented; to be consolidated. 3. To grow into one.

(I.) UNITED, *part. adj.* Joined together in
political or religious union.

(II.) UNITED BRETHREN. See UNITAS FRA-
TRUM.

(III. I.) UNITED PROVINCES, or UNITED NE-
THERLANDS, otherwise called the BATAVIAN RE-
PUBLIC, consist of the seven provinces of Holland,
Zealand, Friesland, Groningen, Overijssel, Zut-
phen, and Utrecht. They are bounded on the
W. by the German Ocean; on the E. by the ci-
devant territories in the circle of Westphalia, now
annexed to France; and on the S. by the late
Austrian Flanders, Brabant, and the duchy of
Cleves; now annexed to France, and included in
the departments of the Scheldt, the Lys, the Two
Nethes, Jemappes, the Dyle, the Meuse, the
Ourte, and the Roer. They compose the great-
est part of the ancient BATAVIA, whose inhabi-
tants were formerly so much renowned for their
valour. Under the Romans they were exempt
from imposts and taxes, in consequence of bear-
ing the honourable title of *Allies of the Republic*.

(2.) UNITED PROVINCES, ANIMALS IN THE.
The animals here are much the same as in Eng-
land; but their horses and horned cattle are lar-
ger. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys;
but, being birds of passage, they leave the coun-
try about the middle of August, with their young,
and return in February following. It is said there
are some wild boars and wolves here; and that
neither oysters nor herrings are to be found upon
the coast; but of other fish they have the several
sorts, both in their seas and rivers, that we have
in Britain.

(3.) UNITED PROVINCES, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND
PRODUCE OF THE. The seven United Provinces
being in great part surrounded by the sea, lying
low and abounding in marshes, have a damp and
unwholesome air. Rains and fogs are frequent;
and the gout, scurvy, rheumatism, and agues,
very common and difficult of cure. The effects
of human industry here are wonderful in the
dykes and dams erected for defending the country
against the inundations of the sea, and in ditches,
canals, mills, and sluices, for draining the marshes.
The quantity of grain produced is not sufficient
for home consumption; but the pastures in the
marshes are so rich, that they can spare a great
deal of butter and cheese for exportation. They
have also a good breed of sheep, whose wool is
highly valued. There is turf, madder, tobacco,
some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and tim-
ber used in this country, and indeed most of the
necessaries of life, are imported. All the provin-
ces either lie upon, or communicate with the
North Sea, by means of the *Zuyder*, or *South Sea*;
which was formed partly by the Rhine's right
branch, then increased by the Vecht, which has
now another outlet, overflowing the low swampy
grounds through which it passed; and partly by
the sea, in the 13th century, breaking in, and over-
flowing

flowing a large tract of ground contiguous to that before laid under water by the Rhine.

(4.) **UNITED PROVINCES, COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE.** With regard to the commerce of this country, their East India company had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than 100 years, and was long the most opulent and powerful of any in the world. Though the country itself produces very few things, yet almost all the products and commodities of the globe may be found here, nearly as cheap as in the countries where they are made or produced. A vast variety of manufactures are carried on in the provinces, and a great number of hands are employed, and much wealth acquired, by the herring, cod, and whale fisheries. Ship-building employs vast numbers of hands. The trade of this country however, upon the whole, has long been declining; owing partly to a decline of their ancient parsimony and industry; but chiefly to the improvement of manufactures, trade, and navigation, in other countries; and still more effectually (recently) by the anti-commercial tyranny of Bonaparte.

(5.) **UNITED PROVINCES, ESTABLISHED RELIGION OF THE.** The established religion here before the Revolution was the Presbyterian, or Calvinism; none but Presbyterians were admitted into any office or post in the government, excepting the army; all religions and sects, however, were tolerated, and had their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the Papists and Jews were very numerous. Since the late alliance with France, no particular religion is established; and the phlegmatic Dutch have drunk deep of the cup of infidelity, mixed by their new and volatile allies.

(6.) **UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE CAPTURE OF BRIEL.** At the accession of Charles V. the seven provinces, which now compose the Batavian Republic, enjoyed a kind of independence; but his policy and warlike disposition soon reduced them to obedience. When he resigned the sceptre to his son Philip II. the Low Countries were in a most flourishing condition. In this small tract of country were reckoned no fewer than 350 large cities inclosed with walls, and 6,300 considerable towns, all become rich by their application to the arts and to commerce. The extreme superstition, however, and cruel bigotry of Philip, soon proved a source of discontent. The doctrines of the reformers had been preached and received with avidity in the Low Countries. A cruel persecution of the reformed had been commenced by Charles V. inasmuch that he is said to have destroyed no fewer than 100,000 persons on account of their religion. This cruelty had no effect except to increase the number of heretics; which being observed by Mary queen of Hungary, sister to the emperor, she invited him to the Low Countries, that he might personally behold the bad effects of his cruelty. On this the emperor granted a toleration, but Philip was altogether inflexible. To proceed more effectually against the reformed, a court of inquisition was instituted; and under pretence that the three bishoprics, which at that time comprehended the whole country, were too large, 17 of these dignitaries were erected, three with

the title of archbishops. To afford sufficient revenues for these, it became necessary to suppress several abbeys, which of itself produced great discontent. But what gave the finishing stroke to the whole was, Philip's announcing his intention of residing constantly in Spain; his appointing MARGARET, duchess of Parma, his natural sister, to be regent of the Netherlands; and giving her for a counsellor cardinal Granvele, a bloody persecutor of the reformed; at the same time that the provinces were oppressed by the violences of foreign troops, for the payment of whom they were also oppressed by taxes. The duchess took upon her the government of the Low Countries in 1560; and was no sooner arrived at Brussels, than complaints poured in from all quarters against the inquisition, cardinal Granvele, and the new bishoprics. The duchess endeavoured in vain to allay the ferment. At the head of the malecontents were the prince of Orange, count Egmont, and count Horn, who strenuously insisted on calling an assembly of the States-general, and laying before them the grievances by which the country was oppressed. The event was, that in 1564 the cardinal was obliged to resign his dignity; which yet produced no good effect, as he was succeeded by two of his creatures, Barlamont and Viglius, who trod exactly in his footsteps. They pushed on the inquisition to fresh executions. All the obnoxious decrees were enforced with double rigour; upon which the state of affairs became so alarming, that it was thought necessary to send count Egmont into Spain, to have a personal interview with the king on the subject. Philip, accustomed to deceit, gave a smooth answer, abated the rigour of his decrees, and ordered the governante sometimes to consult with the prince of Orange. Thus tranquillity was for a time restored; but in 1566, it being discovered that a scheme for the total extirpation of the Protestants had been concerted by the queen-mother of France, her son Charles IX. and Isabella queen of Spain, in a conference at Bayonne, matters became worse than ever. The consequence of this was a general association against the inquisition. The confederates, headed by Henry de Brodenrode, waited on the duchess of Parma, in such a formidable body, that she was obliged to dismiss them with an absolute promise of granting their demands. This promise not seeming likely to be fulfilled but by force, they sent deputies to Madrid; and receiving no satisfaction, the people broke out into acts of open rebellion. The principal inhabitants, however, still remained quiet; but instead of taking measures to conciliate them, Philip sent the duke of Alva into the Netherlands with an army of 10,000 veteran troops, to put the last hand to the misery of the people. The prince of Orange retired into Germany, along with counts Brodenrode and Hoogstrate. Their example was followed by great numbers of all ranks and conditions; and the duchess of Parma resigned the government. She was succeeded by the duke of Alva. The new governor was a proud and mercilefs tyrant; and the army he commanded was fierce, rapacious, and cruel. The whole country was filled with blood and horror; counts

Egmont

mont and Horn were ignominiously executed, and the estate of the prince of Orange was confiscated. These last proceedings drove the people to despair; and they invited the prince to return and take upon him the defence of the country from such insufferable tyranny and oppression. All this time the prince of Orange, and his brother Lewis of Nassau, had been labouring to form alliances for the defence of the liberties of their country. He had represented matters in such a light to the emperor Maximilian, that he sent an ambassador to Philip, exhorting him to treat his subjects in the Netherlands with less rigour. This embassy was haughtily received; Philip continued his persecutions, and the prince of Orange his preparations for entering the low countries. His first efforts, however, were very unsuccessful. A detachment of Germans in the service of the prince attempted to penetrate into Brabant and surprize Liuremond; but were defeated by a detachment from the duke of Alva's army. Another party consisting chiefly of French, attempted to penetrate into Artois by the way of Picardy; but their officers were arrested by orders of Charles IX. Lewis of Nassau, however, defeated a body of Spaniards, and killed 600 of them on the spot; but the vigilance of his enemies prevented him from drawing any advantage of consequence from his victory. The duke of Alva was so much hagrined at the defeat sustained by his party, that he instantly assembled his troops from all quarters. His army then appeared too formidable to be opposed, and the prince of Nassau, with count Hoogstrate, retired towards the Ens. But being hard pushed by the duke of Alva, and mutinies arising among their troops for want of pay, they were soon brought to an action, and totally defeated. In the mean time, the prince of Orange was hastening to the relief of his distressed allies with an army of 28,000 men; but being also defeated, and Hoogstrate killed, his soldiers deserted in such crowds, that he was at last obliged to disband his army and return to Germany. This disaster happened in 1569. The duke of Alva resolved to make the most of his time. He entered Brussels in triumph; and let loose his vengeance against all who had in the least assisted, or been supposed to assist, the prince of Orange. All the prisoners taken in the last campaign were put to death: and, not contented with this barbarity, the cruel governor projected nothing less than the total extirpation of the reformed religion, by the destruction of every one who professed it; and of rendering himself despotic, by erecting citadels in all the considerable towns which were to be garrisoned by his soldiers. He began with Amsterdam, in which he laid the foundations of a strong citadel. The people complained of it as an infringement of their rights, but the duke was deaf to their complaints. At Antwerp he caused his statue to be erected; and here he was figured treading on the necks of two smaller statues, which represented the two estates of the Low Countries. This piece of insolent vanity exasperated the people to a great degree; and they were still farther provoked by a demand of the twentieth part of every man's estate to be paid immediately for the sup-

port of the army, besides the tenth of all the merchandise, and the twentieth of all immovables, to be annually levied as a standing revenue. The provinces remonstrated, and refused to submit to such intolerable exactions: the governor was inflexible; and being incensed at their resistance, he sent the regiment of Lombardy to live at free quarters in the province of Utrecht. All this time the prince of Orange was employed in laying plans for the deliverance of his distressed country; but in 1571, the duke of Alva growing impatient, ordered the edict concerning the new taxes to be published at Brussels. The city was instantly filled with confusion; the soldiers seized on the goods of the inhabitants by force; tradesmen shut up their shops; and the peasants refused to bring provisions to the market. The states offered to pay a subsidy of 2,000,000 florins annually in lieu of the intended tax; but their offer was rejected. The drum beat to arms; and orders were issued to hang all who refused to comply. The soldiers were preparing to obey, when news arrived of the surrender of Briel in the island of Voorn, at the entrance of the Meuse, to a squadron of ships of war that had been fitted out by the prince of Orange. Lumey, who commanded the squadron, made a descent on the island from forty ships, destroyed the churches, broke the images, and executed the priests, but offered no violence to the other inhabitants.

(7.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF, THE TILL THE CRUEL MASSACRE AT WAERDEN. However unimportant the conquest of so inconsiderable a place as Briel might appear, it alarmed the duke of Alva, and produced the most extravagant rejoicings in Brussels. The duke regarding it as the harbinger of further opposition, dropped his taxes and executions, and diligently applied himself to suppress the growing spirit of rebellion. He withdrew the garrison from Brussels, and detached it, under the command of Maximilian Hermin Bossu, against the ships of war which were called *Gueux*. This officer, endeavouring to force Briel, was defeated by the Orange party, and forced to retire with loss to the island of Beyerland. Trifling as this victory might seem, it served to animate the depressed spirits of the enemies to the government. The prince of Orange, sensible of the advantage of possessing this island, exhorted the nobility of his party to fortify and garrison it; his orders were obeyed, by which means he soon became master of Delfshaven, a town situated on the opposite banks of the Meuse. It appeared in Bossu's retreat how unpopular the duke of Alva was in every part of the country. Dordrecht shut its gates against him; Rotterdam refused to admit his troops; but Bossu obtaining permission that they should pass through in separate small divisions, seized the gates, and began a general massacre of the inhabitants. Four hundred perished by the sword, the town was pillaged, the women were ravished, and every possible act of barbarity and inhumanity committed. Retribution was soon made by the enemy: Alva had detached Ossorio d'Angulo with a body of horses to secure the port of Flushing, and to erect a citadel. The inhabitants de-

nited Ossorio admittance, shut their gates, and seized Pacanco, a famous engineer, who had come to measure the ground where the citadel was to be erected. Apprehending that attempts would be made to force them to submission, they petitioned Lumey, admiral of the Gueux, for assistance; and he furnished them with 200 men, under Captain Treflong. On the arrival of this reinforcement, the Spanish engineer was hanged, and an unsuccessful attempt made to surprise Middleburg, the capital of Walcheren. Not dispirited by this disappointment, the Zealanders assiduously prosecuted their cruises upon the Spaniards, and obtained as much wealth as purchased a large store of arms and ammunition at Antwerp. Joined by great numbers of English and Scottish adventurers, they ventured to attack the duke of Medina Celi, sent with a strong squadron to succeed the duke of Alva in the government of the Netherlands. The duke was completely defeated, a great number of his ships were taken, and a booty, amounting to near 1,000,000 livres, was carried off by the Zealanders. The duke of Alva now ordered a squadron of ships to be equipped at Amsterdam, to bridle the insolence of Lumey and the Zealanders, while he raised an army to oppose the prince of Orange and Lewis de Nassau, who were making great preparations in Germany and France. To augment the army in the field, he had draughted most of the garrisons. Thus the prince's friends gained possession of North Holland; and Lewis of Nassau was projecting a scheme to surprise Mons, with the inhabitants of which he held a secret correspondence. The design succeeded; which emboldened most of the cities and towns in Holland to declare against the government. The count de Bergues gained over several cities in Overysel, Guelderland, and Friesland. In a word, the revolt became so general, that the duke of Alva soon found he could not long resist the torrent. He now, when too late, published an edict to appease the people, setting forth, that he would consent to remit the most oppressive taxes, if the States could suggest any other means of raising the necessary supplies. He convoked the States-general to meet at the Hague, but his orders were now disregarded; and the States, in contempt of his authority, assembled at Dordrecht, inviting deputies from the prince of Orange, the nobility, and the towns that had declared against the governor. Here money was raised to enable the prince of Orange to begin his march. His forces amounted to 15,000 foot and 7000 horse. He had promised to advance three months pay; and was enabled to perform his engagements by the liberality and public spirit of the States-general and the cities. He showed the address with which he could manage and direct the people; and without the name of sovereign of the provinces under his government, he possessed the authority. However, he conducted matters with the utmost delicacy. The Popish religion was banished the churches, and persons of that persuasion were, with great caution, admitted into public employments. Not only the king's revenue and church tythes were appropriated to the public service, but the estates

of those who remained firm in their loyalty. While the States-general were employed in ways and means to maintain an army, the prince of Orange advanced to Ruremonde, which he took by assault. From thence he marched to Brabant, and raised heavy contributions. He took Mechlin, Oudenarde, and Dendermonde; but could not restrain the excesses of the soldiers, who pillaged the churches, massacred the priests, and committed other barbarities. Next he approached to Mons, besieged by the duke of Alva, with design if possible, to engage him to give battle. The duke baffled all his endeavours to force him, and carried Mons by capitulation. The whole Spanish dominion, however, lately so insolent and exulting, was ready to expire in the Netherlands, had it not been revived by the massacre of the Protestants in Paris. While the fate of Mons was depending, the States of Holland met at Harlem, to deliberate on the defence of the province and the prosecution of the war. Amsterdam was in the enemy's hands, which greatly obstructed all their measures. It was therefore determined to besiege it; and the enterprise was committed to Lumey, chief of the Gueux. After putting the States to considerable expence, the project miscarried through Lumey's misconduct. Water was his element, but his vanity led him to display his abilities as a land-officer. He made regular approaches, and was foiled in every attempt. The reduction of Mons, and the depression of spirit consequent on the massacre at Paris, obliged the prince of Orange to retire to Holland, and encouraged Alva to invest Dendermonde, Oudenarde, and Mechlin. The latter, being in no condition to resist, opened its gates; but the Spanish soldiers chose to scale the walls, to give an air of assault to the enterprise, and countenance to the horrid barbarities intended. Protestants and Catholics were massacred without distinction. The town was pillaged, and the booty estimated at 400,000 florins. All the other towns were evacuated by the garrisons, and loaded with heavy impositions by Alva. As to the prince, he had now removed the seat of war into the province of Holland. Only this province and Zealand remained firm to their engagements; the rest, overwhelmed with consternation, capitulated on the best terms they could procure from the government. Frederic de Toledo was dispatched by Alva to begin the operations in Holland. He had already reduced Zutphen and Guelderland; and, flushed with success, appeared before Wzerden, which he summoned to admit a garrison. The burghers replied, that they were entrusted by the king with the defence of the place, and could not receive a military force without violence to their privileges and engagements. They soon had reason to repent their firmness: the town was taken by surprise; and all the burghers, assembled in the great church to take the oaths of fidelity to the king, were wantonly butchered. Infants, old men, women, and the sick, were all put to the sword, without pity or remorse; and of all the barbarities hitherto committed, this was the most horrible.

(8.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE CAPTURE OF HARLEM. Having finished

ished this tragedy, Frederic went to Amsterdam, to deliberate with the officers of the army about the siege of Haerlem. Here it was determined, before they proceeded to extremities, that the city of Amsterdam should write to the magistrates, exhorting them, in the most pathetic terms, to submit, rather than incur the punishment inflicted on Waerden. The council of Haerlem met to take this letter into consideration. Some were for soliciting an immediate reinforcement from the prince of Orange; and others, who apprehended the prince was too weak to afford the necessary relief, were for making the best terms possible with the king. Those of the latter opinion were the magistrates. Accordingly, without consulting the burghers, deputies were dispatched to Frederic to stipulate conditions. In their absence, Ripperda, a gentleman of Friesland, strongly attached to the prince of Orange and the cause of liberty, assembled the chief burghers; and so animated them against the Spaniards, that they resolved to stand a siege, and suffer all the horrors of war rather than submit. They sent to the prince of Orange to acquaint him with their determination, and to implore assistance. Four companies of Germans were detached to reinforce the garrison of Haerlem; and the deputies, on their return, were seized as traitors to their country, sent to the prince of Orange, and by his order beheaded. Frederic was preparing to compel the burghers to submission. On the 19th of December he invested the town, after carrying Sparendam fort by assault, with great loss and slaughter of his soldiers. A variety of errors were committed in the attack, in the defence, and manner of succouring Haerlem. The assailants and defendants had equally shown themselves ignorant of the art of war, and implacable in their resentment. The prince of Orange used every expedient to relieve the town; but all his attempts were frustrated by untoward accidents, and the vigilance of the Spaniards. At last, quite spent with fatigue, despairing of relief, weakened by losses, and totally exhausted of provisions and ammunition, the burghers of Haerlem surrendered upon more favourable terms than they could well expect. A few only of the most obstinate were executed; the rest were pardoned on taking an oath of fidelity, and paying an acknowledgment of 15,000 florins. During the siege of Haerlem, the Zealanders were performing glorious achievements by sea, and gaining victories over the Spanish naval armaments. All the efforts of the governor of Antwerp could not prevent their carrying off a great number of ships out of the harbour. To revenge the insult, and relieve Middleburg and Rammekeins, blocked up by the Zealanders, he equipped a squadron, and gave battle to Wertz, the Zealand admiral, but was defeated. After repairing and augmenting his fleet, he again set sail with sixty large vessels, encountered a squadron of Zealanders much inferior in strength, and met with his former fortune. Most of his ships were sunk or taken; but he found means to push into Middleburg, with the broken remains of his squadron, to the great joy of the garrison, now reduced by the scarcity of provisions to the last extremity. D'Avila's dis-

grace did not end here; for, on his return to Antwerp, he was a third time attacked and defeated with considerable loss, by Wertz, who thus repaired the disappointment of an unsuccessful attempt made on Tolen.

(9.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH FLEET. Soon after the reduction of Haerlem, Alva, perceiving that his severity answered no other purpose than irritating the people more against the Spanish government, published a proclamation, couched in the most soothing terms: but the people were not disposed to confide in promises so often violated. The Spaniards were preparing to invest Alcaer, and the Hollanders put every means in practice to resist them. Frederic, with 16,000 men, sat down before a town fortified by no regular works, and defended only by 300 burghers, and 800 soldiers, in extreme want of provisions, and without the prospect of relief. But the prince of Orange so animated them by a letter, that, to a man, they determined to sacrifice their lives, and spill the last drop of their blood in the breach. What particularly inspired the defendants with courage, was the prince's good fortune in surprising Gertrudenburg. Their valour was crowned with success, the siege being raised and the town relieved. This advantage was attended with another of less importance, but which equally served to inspire the Hollanders. The duke of Alva's grand fleet, equipped with great labour and expence, was defeated by the Zealanders.

(10.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE PACIFICATION OF GHENT. Notwithstanding this success, the affairs of the States were yet in a most precarious situation; and their ability to support themselves appeared in the highest degree problematical. The duke of Alva had resigned the government, and his successor Don Lewis de Requesnes had orders to push the war with vigour, while his antagonists prepared for the most obstinate resistance. The first advantage appeared on the side of the prince of Orange, by the surrender of Middleburg. But this was soon balanced by the defeat and death of prince Lewis of Nassau. The Spaniards, however, were prevented from pursuing the advantage they had gained, by a mutiny among their troops. Their distresses on account of this tumult were likewise augmented by a victory gained by the Zealanders at sea; when almost 40 of the Spanish ships were taken or destroyed. Philip then perceiving that numberless difficulties would attend the reduction of the provinces by force, published an act of grace; but in such a limited manner, that it was unanimously rejected. Requesnes then determining to close the campaign with some remarkable exploit, laid siege to Leyden. The city was reduced to the utmost distress for want of provisions; the whole country was laid under water; and they could receive no relief except what was obtained by boats forcing themselves through the enemy to the city. In short they were reduced to the brink of destruction, when a violent south-west wind drove the inundation against the works of the besiegers with such violence, that they were obliged to relinquish

The enterprise. In their retreat they were attacked by the garrison, and 500 of them destroyed. This disappointment so provoked the Spanish soldiery, that they deposed Valdes the commander, whom they had chosen for themselves, and proclaimed their old one: a second mutiny ensued, and they marched in a tumultuous manner to Utrecht. Here, however, they met with a very unfavourable reception. Barlaumont the governor declared them rebels and traitors to their king; and gave free liberty to every one to massacre them wherever they could be found. The mutineers attempted to set fire to the gates; but being repulsed, and their leader slain, they capitulated, were received into favour, and sent into winter-quarters. The year 1575 commenced with some negotiations for peace; but these proving ineffectual, though the emperor interposed his mediation as far as possible, the war was renewed with redoubled fury. Fortune now declared in favour of the Spaniards: and the States were reduced to such despair, that they began seriously to think of making an offer of the provinces to some Protestant power who might be able to defend them against the tyranny of the Spaniards. This offer was made to queen Elizabeth of England; but she declined it, for political reasons. A negotiation was even set on foot for this purpose with France, in favour of the duke of Anjou; but it ended in nothing besides the advantage of establishing a mart at Calais for the disposal of the prizes made by the Gueux. Philip, however, notwithstanding his power, had the utmost difficulty in supporting the expence of the war. He had already borrowed more than 40,000,000 crowns from the Spanish and Genoese merchants, and the interest still unpaid now amounted to as much as the capital. The war had besides cost a greater sum sent in specie from Spain and the Indies, which, with the immense losses occasioned by the stagnation of trade in the Netherlands, had quite exhausted the treasury. Large arrears were due to the troops; they were every day mutinying, and some broke out into actual rebellion. To remedy these evils, Requesnes demanded a supply of the provinces; and they answered him, by requiring restitution of their privileges, and dismissal of the Spanish troops. Flanders, in particular, paid the desired subsidy, by balancing it against half the damages the province sustained from the misconduct of the governors and the wars wantonly and unnecessarily excited. While this affair was in agitation, Requesnes died of an ardent fever: the council of state assumed the administration, and the prince of Orange took the opportunity of the confusion that ensued to lay the first foundation of the Pacification of Ghent, by which his affairs were considerably retrieved, and the greatest blow given to the court of Spain she had yet sustained. All now was anarchy in the Low Countries. The garrison of Ziericzee mutinied for want of pay; and to appease them, the council of state sent 500,000 livres, which the Walloon regiments under Madragon seized upon, after expelling the Spanish soldiers, and wounding and murdering their officers. This did not unite the Spanish mutineers among themselves; they turned out

the few remaining officers, and made new appointments. Joining with the garrison of Lillo, they marched, to the number of 2000 men, towards the capital; committed horrible outrages; overwhelmed the inhabitants of Brussels with conflagration; and, upon the 26th of July, seized upon Alost, confined the principal burghers, and hanged up a king's officer. The most favourable conditions were offered by the council of state, to appease the tumult, and provisions were sent to the mutineers. This created suspicion in the inhabitants of Brussels, that the mutiny was excited by the connivance of the council, with a view of ruining the provinces, without incurring the resentment and odium consequent on any appearance of legal oppression. They arrested the council, declared the Spaniards rebels, and took measures, in concert with the other cities and provinces, for expelling foreigners out of the Netherlands. A confederacy to this purpose was formed between the provinces of Hainault, Artois, and Flanders, to which all the rest except Luxemburgh acceded; and Don John of Austria, who had entered the Low Countries in quality of governor and successor to Requesnes, was obliged to live in obscurity in Luxemburgh until the storm should subside. The prince of Orange was all this while profiting by these commotions. He had long laboured to have the States-general convoked; and he now saw them not only assembled, but preparing to make head against the Spaniards, by a strange vicissitude of fortune, arising from accidents which all his penetration and sagacity could not foresee. United in councils against the common enemy, every measure was taken for reducing the citadels of Ghent, Antwerp, and Maestricht, the chief places in the hands of the Spaniards, and what must principally contribute to their expulsion. Ghent citadel was taken on the 27th of November, 1576, by the assistance of a strong reinforcement of troops and artillery sent by the prince of Orange. At Antwerp the states of Brabant were less successful. The citadel was vigorously attacked; but the mutineers at Alost entering the citadel to assist their countrymen, a sally was made, the besiegers were driven from their trenches, great part of the town was consumed by fire, and the rest pillaged for three days with every kind of insolence and brutality, at a time when Antwerp was the most flourishing and populous city in the Netherlands, and indeed among the most wealthy in Europe. It is affirmed that the treasure carried off amounted to four millions, besides an infinity of rich merchandise. This terrible calamity united Papists and Protestants without distinction in a confederacy, and co-operated with the measures of the prince of Orange to form the Pacification of Ghent: which was a confederacy of all the provinces to expel foreign soldiers; to restore the ancient form of government; to refer matters of religion to the several states of the provinces; for ever to unite the other 15 provinces in the same common interest with Holland, Zealand, and the prince of Orange; to renew the commerce and amity between them; to assemble the states in the manner practised under the house of Burgundy and Charles V.; to suspend all the rigorous edicts

the duke of Alva on the subject of religion, unless the States-general should take the matter into consideration; to release all the natives made prisoners, mutually, without ransom; and to restore all things upon the same footing as before the war, and the tyrannical government of the duke of Alva.

(II.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, ALL THE UNION OF UTRECHT. The States-general began with soliciting aid from the queen of England. Their ambassador had a gracious reception; and Elizabeth advanced them 20,000*l.* sterling, on condition that the French should not be invited into the Netherlands, that they would accept of reasonable terms of accommodation if offered, and that the loan should be repaid the ensuing year. Next a cessation of hostilities was agreed upon with Don John, upon his assurances that every reasonable request of the provinces would be granted. On the 27th of December, deputies were sent with proposals to Don John to disband the foreign troops; but he denied to now what security the States would give for their allegiance after the departure of the Spanish forces; and remonstrated against the unreasonableness of disarming the king, while his rebellious subjects were in arms, and ready to seize the first opportunity of deserting their obedience. He likewise demanded security with respect to religion; and insisted so warmly on this head, that it was obvious he had no inclination to part with the Spanish army before the provinces of Zealand and Holland embraced the Catholic religion. After much altercation, necessity at length obliged Don John to grant all that was required, to confirm the Pacification of Ghent, and dismiss the Spanish army. He had the king's authority for his proceedings; the treaty was proclaimed at Brussels and Antwerp on the 17th of February; and Don John immediately acknowledged governor, and he king's lieutenant of the Netherlands. It must be observed, however, that when this edict was signed, the provinces of Holland and Zealand, by the advice of the prince of Orange made the following objections; *viz.* that the States-general had not established the right of assembling this sovereign tribunal in the persons originally invested with that power by the constitution; that in some particular instances they had suffered an infraction of their privileges; that the Spanish troops were allowed to carry off the immense wealth they had acquired in the Netherlands, and by the destruction of the city of Antwerp in particular; that no stipulation was made in favour of those dispossessed of their estates, &c. For these reasons the States and the prince refused to sign the edict, though they consented to all the articles that did not contradict those specified. This raised a contention, by which the public peace was soon broken. Don John was strenuous in recommending violent measures against the prince and his party. To this purpose he wrote a letter in cipher to the king; but this letter fell into the hands of Henry IV. of France, who transmitted it to the prince of Orange. Escovedo, secretary to Don John, was next sent into Spain with a message to the same purpose; but the governor becoming impatient for his return, left the country himself, un-

der pretence of complimenting Margaret Q. of Navarre on her journey to Spaw. In this expedition he seized on the citadel of Namur; but attempted to justify his conduct to the States, by representing, that he was under a necessity of retiring to a place of safety, while he saw the flames of war and rebellion ready to break out all around him; and concluded with desiring the States to disarm the burghers of Brussels, who were closely attached to the prince of Orange. This letter was answered by an invitation from the States to return; promising at the same time, that they would, to the utmost of their power, bring to punishment all those who should form any designs against him. This, however, was not only refused, but the whole tenor of his conduct afterwards showed, that he was resolved to commence hostilities, and that he was encouraged to do so by Philip. The event was, that Don John was deposed from his dignity, the archduke Matthias was appointed governor general, and preparations were made for a new and vigorous war. The Spanish troops were ordered to assemble in Naples and Milan; levies were made in Burgundy and Luxembourg; and a resolution was taken of supporting Don John with the whole power of the Spanish monarchy. To oppose this formidable power, the States, in 1578, entered into a new treaty with the queen of England; by which that princess agreed to advance them 100,000*l.* Sterling, and to assist the provinces with 3000 foot and 1000 horse; on condition that the loan should be repaid with interest in 8 months; that certain towns should be ceded to her in security; and that the States should defray the expence of transporting their troops, and take them into pay, while they acted in their service. Elizabeth, however, afterwards departed from these conditions, under pretence that the French would suspect her having some designs on the Netherlands, and would for that reason unite their forces with those of Spain against her. Instead of the English troops, she now proposed to send John Calmar, count Palatine, with 3000 foot and 3000 horse; refusing at the same time to pay the money stipulated, till the States had consented to this alteration. Before this treaty was concluded, Don John was joined by an army of 16,000 foot and 2000 horse, all chosen veterans, commanded by Alexander Farnese, duke of Parma, the best officer in the Spanish service. Being thus superior to the prince of Orange, the Spaniards gained several advantages; which, however, were more than balanced by the loss of the city of Amsterdam. This place had been closely blocked up for several months by sea and land, and at last concluded a treaty with the friends of the prince of Orange; by which it was stipulated, that the Protestants should hold their religious meetings without the walls, and have a burying-place within; that the garrison should be disbanded, and 600 men, commanded by the burghers, levied for the defence of the city; that all persons banished on account of religion should be recalled; that Amsterdam should enjoy all its ancient privileges, and that all vacancies in public employments should be filled without distinction of party or connection. This capitulation, however, was soon after broken; the Catholic magistrates

magistrates were driven out of the city, attended by the priests and popish clergy of every denomination; the images were pulled down, and only the reformed clergy suffered to preach publicly. Some ineffectual negotiations next took place; after which the States, sensible that the misfortunes and losses in the winter arose from the dissolution of the provincial states, vested the archduke, the council of state, and the prince of Orange, with a power of levying what number of troops they should think necessary, and disposing of them as they thought proper, without referring to the states in every particular: they only recommended that they would proportion the expences to the revenue, which at that time amounted to 600,000 livres. About this time a revolution, greatly beneficial to the common cause, was effected in Guelderland; John of Nassau, brother to the prince of Orange, had been appointed governor of this province. Upon entering on the administration, he perceived that the whole conduct of affairs was in the hands of persons strongly affected to king Philip and the Catholic religion; most of the cities professed Popery; and the count, who had sworn to the pacification at Ghent, was refrained from attempting any change in religion. The face of affairs, however, took a sudden turn; John acquired great popularity, and soon discovered that foreigners were the leading persons. By this artifice and policy he stimulated the people against them; they were deprived of their seats in the provincial states, and turned out of their offices in the government of the cities. Thus Nassau obtained the chief direction, and was able to co-operate with the measures planned by his brother. Another revolution happened in Groningen, of which the *seur de Billy* was governor. Billy was by birth a Portuguese, by religion a Catholic, and consequently a dependent on the court of Spain: he refused to accede to the union of the provinces, and the States-general found it necessary to send to him Francis Martin Stella, with proposals for signing the pacification of Ghent. Billy suspecting that the deputy's real design was to excite a revolt in the province, put him to the torture to extort confession; after having first wounded him with his own hand. The deputy bore the most excruciating tortures with firmness; and having a surgeon to dress his wound to enable him to undergo a second trial, he communicated something in the Greek language, which the surgeon soon made public: in consequence, the mob assembled, rescued Stella, declared for the pacification of Ghent, and obliged Billy to quit his government. The change of councils in these two provinces was of the utmost service to the confederacy; and would have enabled the province to have encountered the whole power of Spain, had not their affairs been distracted by dissensions among themselves. At last the prince of Orange, perceiving that little confidence was to be placed in the unanimity of provinces rent by faction, different in religion, and divided by ambition, political maxims, and private interest, formed the scheme of more closely uniting the provinces of which he was governor, and cementing them with those more contiguous, in which the Protestant interest prevailed. Such an alliance was subject

to fewer difficulties than attended the more general one of uniting all the provinces; it was in fact the only measure that could be proposed with safety, and it was prosecuted with that alacrity and address for which William was deservedly celebrated. On the 23d of January 1579, deputies from the provinces of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overijssel, and Guelderland, met at Utrecht, and signed the alliance ever since known by the name of the *Union of Utrecht*, the basis of that commonwealth, so renowned by the appellation of the *United Provinces*. This treaty of alliance was founded upon the infraction of the pacification of Ghent solemnly acceded to by Philip, and the late invasion of certain towns in Guelderland. It was not hereby intended to divide the seven provinces from the other ten, or to renounce the pacification of Ghent; its object was to preserve the liberty stipulated in that pacification, by more vigorous operations, and united councils. This alliance was so universally approved, that in a short time the cities of Ghent, Nimeguen, Arnheim, Leewarden, Yvelo, Ypres, Antwerp, Breda, Bruges, with several other towns, besides a great number of noblemen and persons of distinction, embraced and signed the union.

(12.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE TO THE MASSACRE OF MAASTRICHT. While the prince of Orange was busied in conciliating factions, forming alliances, and strengthening the union, the duke of Parma was taking measures to disconcert his projects, and reduce the provinces to the king's obedience. He dispatched Gonzaga and Mondragon with 8000 men to lay siege to Maastricht. The town was taken by assault; the governor hanged; and 45 of the chief inhabitants were tortured to death. After some farther inconsiderable advantages obtained in the neighbourhood of Ruremonde, the king's army insulted Antwerp, where the archduke and the prince of Orange then resided. The States army was intrenched near Bergerhont, a post attacked without success by the duke of Parma, after a brisk skirmishing of two hours between the armies. La Noue, however, the general of the states army, not choosing to expose himself to continual alarms from the enemy's cavalry, retired under the cannon of Antwerp. On La Noue's retreat, the duke of Parma invested Maastricht. The siege began on the 8th of March, and continued without remission to the 29th of June. This defence was deemed very extraordinary, as the fortifications were in bad order, the garrison slender, and the place but poorly provided with the necessaries of a siege. One Sebastian Tappin, an engineer by profession, a Protestant, and a brave and alert soldier, by his indefatigable vigilance raised continual obstructions to the duke's approaches. The garrison had sustained frequent assaults, and made divers bloody sallies, by which they were so much fatigued, that during a parley the town was surprised and many soldiers were put to the sword; but Tappin was saved by favour of the duke of Parma, who gave strict orders that he should have quarter. For three days Maastricht was a scene of the utmost desolation and horror, the Spanish soldiers committing every excess and enormity.

despite of all the endeavours of the general, to refrain their licentiousness, and maintain discipline.

(13.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, OR THE REJECTION OF PHILIP II. With such diligence did the duke apply himself to this siege, that, unable to support the fatigue, he was seized with a fever, which nearly proved fatal. His situation inspired the enemy with fresh courage. They ventured to appear in the field; reduced Aloft, and some other places of little consequence; but could not prevent the loss of Menin, taken by assault, though it was soon after retaken by the prince of Orange. In Brabant the states likewise obtained some advantages, though of too unimportant a nature to merit attention. The truth is, all the United Provinces were in a deplorable situation; and their trifling successes were owing entirely to accident, or the duke of Parma's illness. Several provinces contributed nothing to be common cause; others furnished but a small proportion of the taxes agreed upon at the union. The army had large arrears due, and lived at discretion; in a manner more oppressive to the people than taxes to the amount of their regular pay. The people clamoured against the states; they brew the blame on the officers for relaxing in the joint of discipline; and the officers recriminated, alleging, that the fault was in the states, who ailed in performing their engagements to the army. All was in confusion; but as no person would acknowledge his error, there appeared little hopes of amendment. In a word, nothing besides the same distress in the Spanish army could have prevented the duke of Parma from reducing the revolted provinces to accept any terms he should think fit to prescribe. He was equally in want of money; and his late treaty with the Walloons required that he should dismiss all his foreign troops in the space of six weeks after the publication of the treaty. His situation indeed was so deplorable, that he requested leave to resign his command, and retire with the foreign soldiers to Italy; but the court of Spain had too much confidence in his ability to entrust so important a charge to another. In this state of affairs the animosity of the parties remained, without the power of showing their resentment. The states were resolute, but unable to defend their liberties. Philip was determined, but too weak to be despotic; and both were obliged to content themselves with publishing bitter remonstrances against each other. At last the prince of Orange renewed the treaty with the duke of Anjou. The queen of England was again offered the sovereignty, but she still declined it. After long deliberations, and warm debates, it was at length determined, in 1580, to call in the duke of Anjou, as he only resource in so great a calamity. Accordingly the year began with a solemn treaty, whereby the United Provinces renounced their allegiance to Philip, and acknowledged Francis Hercules de Valois, duke of Alençon and Anjou, for their sovereign. As to the provinces of Holland and Zealand, they were left wholly in the hands of the prince of Orange, whose power as stadtholder was in no respect limited by the duke's sovereignty. After all, Grotius affirms, that the

duke's authority was merely nominal, that the real power devolved on the prince of Orange. When the king of Spain was informed of this open defection of the Provinces, he attributed the whole to the prince of Orange, and proceeded directly to proscribe him; he confiscated his estate, upbraided him with ingratitude, and attempted to stain his character with ignominy. He even promised a reward of 25,000 crowns to whoever should bring him the prince of Orange dead or alive; the same to his heirs, in case the person perished in the enterprise; and he declared all those proscribed, their estates confiscated, their honours and dignities abolished, who adhered to William a month after the publication of this edict. The prince of Orange did not silently pass over this proscription. He employed one Villiers, a Frenchman, to refute the edict: his answer was well received, and is recorded by historians as a proof of the spirit, the equity, the prudence, and the moderation of the prince. However, when it was proposed to the states for their opinion, with a request that they would publish it in their own name, they declined it; but the following year, after long deliberations at the Hague, they published an edict, excluding king Philip from any sovereignty, right, or authority, over the Netherlands. This writing appeared on the 26th of July 1581, under the title of *The Abdication of Philip king of Spain*.

(14.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE MURDER OF WILLIAM I. PRINCE OF ORANGE. It was in vain for Philip to remonstrate; he knew the states were to be convinced only by the sword; to this therefore he appealed. The duke of Parma blocked up Cambray so closely, that the garrison was reduced to the extremity of living upon horses, dogs, and cats; though they still refused to capitulate, in hopes of being succoured. At length the duke of Anjou assembled a body of 10,000 foot and 4000 horse, and approached Cambray. The viscount de Turenne and count Voulondois undertook to force themselves with a body of men into the town; but they were surrounded and taken prisoners by the Spaniards. This disappointment did not discourage the duke of Anjou; he still pressed forward with intention to attack the Spanish lines: but the duke of Parma, not caring to hazard a battle, deserted his works, and retired to Bouchain. As soon as the duke of Anjou entered the city, he took an oath to govern it agreeably to its ancient laws, and to preserve the citizens in the full possession of all its liberties. He was now pressed by the states and the prince of Orange to march directly into Flanders: he endeavoured to comply; but his army, composed chiefly of volunteers, was so weakened by desertion that the design was laid aside. It was about this time that the duke of Anjou resumed the notion of addressing Elizabeth queen of England. Not deterred by the ill success of his former negotiation, he determined upon a voyage to England; an excursion which proved equally unsuccessful to himself and unfortunate to the United Provinces, as during his absence the duke of Parma made himself master of Tournay, which concluded the transactions of this campaign. He was magnificently entertained

entertained, led into a persuasion that all would succeed according to his wish, and at length tired out with tedious expectation. In his absence, St Guilan was reduced by the prince of Espinoi. This general directed his march towards Dunkirk, with intention to join the French forces. The duke of Parma, who had notice of his motion, repaired to seize the opportunity of investing Tournay. He began his approaches, and was vigorously received by that garrison, inspired by the courage of the princess Maria d'Espinoi, niece of the count Horn so cruelly beheaded by the duke of Alva. The town was stormed in breach by the D. of Parma, who supported the assailants in person, received a wound, and had the mortification to see the Spaniards thrown headlong from the walls. The duke of Anjou repeatedly promised succours; but either forgot, or could not perform his engagements: the latter indeed is the most probable; as he was certainly a dupe to the superior policy of Elizabeth, who had not yet declared openly in favour of the States. In the end, despairing of relief, harassed with perpetual watching, and weakened by losses, the garrison capitulated on the 29th of November. The conditions were honourable; and the prince of Espinoi was treated with particular marks of distinction by the duke of Parma, who highly esteemed the heroic qualities of this amazon. This advantage was succeeded by another, obtained by the Spanish general Verdugo, over the confederate army in Friesland, commanded by general Norris and William Lewis of Nassau, a young prince of great expectation. It appears from the Spanish account, that Norris was attacked in a defile, where he could not draw out his troops in battalia; and that he was put in confusion, and defeated with great loss. On the other hand, the Dutch writers allege, that he attacked the enemy; but being inferior to them in cavalry, retreated in good order, with scarce any loss. The year 1582 began with a spectacle very unusual in the Netherlands, the public entry of a sovereign elected by the people. The duke of Anjou setting sail from England on the 8th day of February, arrived on the 10th at Flushing, where he was received by the princes of Orange and Espinoi. Next day they set out for Antwerp with a magnificent retinue, and went up the Scheldt attended by 50 barges. His reception at Antwerp was splendid beyond any thing ever seen in the provinces; they even exceeded the preparations made for Philip himself on his being appointed to the government in the Netherlands by Charles V. his father. While the states of Brabant were employed in festivity and mirth, a Biscayan merchant, named *Gaspar Anafra*, had contrived a project to redeem his shattered fortune by the death of the prince of Orange. He corrupted one of his domestics, by the promise of half the reward, to strike the blow. The assassin entered the citadel; and as the prince was passing after dinner into another room, discharged a pistol and dangerously wounded him behind the ear. The prince was stunned with the force of the ball, and before he recovered, the assassin was killed by his attendants; which prevented for a time the absolute discovery of the plot, though it afterwards appeared from circumstances. It was traced that he had

confessed the secret to a Dominican named *Antonio Tunmermon*, receiving from the wicked priest absolution, and a promise of eternal reward. Tunmermon was hanged, drawn, and quartered, his limbs being fixed upon the walls of Antwerp. But though for this time the prince escaped the danger, he was in 1584 assassinated at Delft, by one Balthazar Gerrard or Guion, a person who had before served his highness with fidelity and zeal. He was at that very time employed by the prince to carry letters into France, and had received money to bear his expenses, with which he purchased pistols to murder his benefactor. At the criminal's examination, it appeared that he had long meditated this bloody action, and was confirmed in his resolution by the Jesuits and Catholic priests: he even affirmed on the rack, that the duke of Parma was privy to the design, who promised he should have the reward; upon the whole, Gerrard seems to have been an enthusiast, and his crime the result rather of insanity, than of any concerted scheme, or malicious intention. His punishment, however, regarded only the action: it was cruel beyond measure, shocking to humanity, and a striking instance of the vehement party-spirit of the times, rather than of the justice of the judges, or the attachment of the people to the prince of Orange.

(15.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE PEACE OF 1648. The United Provinces were now in a most deplorable situation. The duke of Anjou had been totally unable to resist the duke of Parma, in consequence of which many towns had been taken; and in other respects the states had sustained immense losses. The duke of Anjou, chagrined and disappointed, had retired to France, where he died. But above all, the loss of the prince of Orange seemed to give the finishing stroke to the affairs of the states; and confusion and anarchy now reigned in their councils. The provinces of Zealand and Holland alone endeavoured to repair the loss, and show their gratitude to William by electing his son Maurice their stadtholder and captain general by sea and land, Maurice was at that time only 18 years of age; but appeared in every respect worthy of the high dignity which had been conferred upon him. The first step taken by the confederates was a solemn renewal of the treaty of Utrecht; after which the most vigorous preparations were made for the defence of the country. But before any thing of consequence could be done, the duke of Parma had reduced Lissenhouk, Dendermonde, Vilvorde, Ghent, and Antwerp; which struck the states with such terror, that they again offered the sovereignty to queen Elizabeth. This was once more refused; though that princess engaged, by a new treaty, to assist the states both with men and money. An army was accordingly sent into the Netherlands under the command of the earl of Leicester: but it does not appear that this was of any essential service to the cause; for the conduct of that general was so exceedingly improper, that he was not only baffled in every military enterprise, but drew upon himself a general odium. It is very probable indeed that the States could not long have supported themselves in such circumstances, had not Philip rashly engaged in a

war with England, with whose naval power he could scarce be enabled to cope by any superiority in numbers whatever. The defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588, (See ARMADA, § 2; and ENGLAND, § 41.) gave such a blow to the power of that nation, as totally disabled them from carrying on the war in the Netherlands. Instead of sending the proper assistance to the duke of Parma, that general received orders to hasten to the aid of the duke of Mayence, who had been defeated by Henry IV. The duke was obliged to comply with this order, though he was sensible the loss of the United provinces must be the consequence. Prince Maurice now carried every thing before him; and by the end of 1591, the Dutch saw their frontiers extended, the whole country secured by rivers and covered by fortified towns, with the greatest probability of driving the Spaniards out of Friesland in another campaign. The remainder of the history of this war is only a detail of the Spanish losses and misfortunes, which now ensued. Their affairs were at last totally ruined by a decisive victory gained by prince Maurice, in 1600, over the archduke Albert, who had been appointed the Spanish governor of the Netherlands. Philip II. died in 1598, leaving the affairs of his kingdom in the most distressed situation; notwithstanding which, his successor Philip III. was too haughty to consent to peace, or allow that the States were free, though he was plainly unable to keep them in subjection. At last, in 1606, the courts of Madrid and Brussels began to think of peace in good earnest. In 1607 a suspension of hostilities took place, and in 1609 a treaty was concluded. In the first article of the treaty, the archduke, in his own and the king of Spain's name, acknowledged the United Provinces, and renounced all claim to sovereignty over them, but in such general terms as would admit of altercation. In the 2d, a truce for 12 years, by sea and land, through all the dominions of both parties, was concluded. By the 3d article, the parties were to remain in possession of what they held, without cession or exchange. In the 4th, a general amnesty was stipulated, and full freedom of trade by sea and land to each other's dominions granted. This necessarily implied a cessation of hostilities in the Indies; however, great debates afterwards arose upon this account. Spain observing the rapid progress of the Hollanders in the India trade, apprehended they would soon become too powerful in that quarter; and the Dutch were willing to maintain the advantage of their superiority. Both, for this reason, disputed the article; yet it could not be set aside without destroying the whole treaty, and the fruits of all their laboured conferences. The 5th article regulated the imports, and duties to be paid by the subjects of the archduke and the States, trading to each other's dominions, which were to be on the same footing with those of other nations. The archduke used his utmost endeavours to have the duties at Lillo, on the Scheld, abolished, and the commerce of Antwerp restored to its former grandeur; but this was so diametrically opposite to the interest of the Hollanders, that it was impossible it should ever take place. The 6th and 7th articles likewise regard-

VOL. XXII. PART II.

ed commercial affairs. But it would be unnecessary to dwell on particulars. Sufficient is it that the truce was mutually beneficial, Spain being no longer in condition to support the war, and the Hollanders having obtained the end of all their desperate resistance and invincible perseverance in the cause of liberty. Philip of Nassau, by the truce, entered into possession of all his paternal estates in the Spanish Netherlands and Burgundy, while the States rewarded the faithful services of Maurice with a pension of 25,000 florins, to be paid annually out of the public treasury, besides an appointment of 60,000 francs as governor-general. Pensions were likewise settled on the other princes of the house of Nassau; all were gratified in a manner that demonstrated the high sense the republic had of their merit, though they might possibly be disappointed in their great design of raising prince Maurice to the sovereign authority. No sooner were the Dutch freed from this extreme danger, and felt the blessings of liberty, than dissensions among themselves took place. The disputes betwixt the Arminians and Calvinists produced violent disturbances, which frequently ended in the persecution of the former. In 1632 war was renewed with Spain; and it may be remarked that during the whole course of it, the subjects of the republic traded to the Spanish ports, as if there had been an entire friendship subsisting between the two nations. It was no uncommon practice with them to supply towns with provisions that were besieged by their own armies; and to furnish the enemy with ammunition and other necessities, without which they could not carry on the war. Their motive and apology for this conduct was, that thus they kept in their own hands the profits by which other nations would be enriched. By steadily pursuing this line of conduct, making as many prizes as they could by force, and at the same time making as much profit of their enemies as could be obtained by a lucrative trade, it is no wonder that the republic should flourish, and rival in wealth the greatest nations in Europe. In 1628 the Spaniards met with a dreadful blow by the capture of their fleet from Mexico. This was the greatest prize the Hollanders had ever met with; being valued at no less than 15,000,000 livres. From this time the Spaniards were everywhere defeated and baffled, in almost every enterprise they undertook; nevertheless, they carried on the war, with an obstinacy hardly to be matched, for 20 years longer. At last, in 1648, a treaty was concluded, by which his Catholic Majesty renounced all right and sovereignty over the Lords the States-general of the United Provinces, who were henceforth declared a free and independent republic, and that both sides should remain in the unmoisted possession of what they held severally at the signing of the treaty.

(16.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE RETREAT OF THE FRENCH, AND MURDER OF THE DE WITS, &c. From this time to the year 1670, we meet with nothing very remarkable in the history of the United provinces. By invariably pursuing the maxims of prudence, industry, and frugality, the republic had attained the highest pitch of grandeur. Amsterdam was become the emporium of Europe, and the richest

R r r city

city in the universe. Holland alone contained 3,000,000 of souls, and all the other provinces were proportionably populous. The States dispatched ministers and consuls to China, Siam, and Bengal, to the Great Mogul, the king of Persia, the khan of Tartary, the Grand Signior, the czar of Muscovy, and the princes of Africa. They were considered as an important weight in the scale of Europe, and no treaty was concluded without their ambassadors. The triple alliance with England and Sweden, into which they had entered, gave Lewis suspicion that they proposed to set bounds to his ambition, and clip those bold pinions which had so swiftly conveyed his conquests over the Low Countries. Van Beuningen's insolence, in comparing himself to Joshua stopping the course of the sun, which was the French king's device, highly disgusted his majesty; who was shocked at the presumption and pride of a republic just started out of obscurity, and gained, in the space of a century, from the ocean. But what was still more alarming to Lewis, was the probability that the Dutch would ruin the manufactures of France, and his new established commerce of the Indies. His jealousy discovered itself in various instances; and the pensioner De Witt, who at that time had the leading of affairs, his brother, and his party, did all in their power to remove these prejudices; but the unhappy differences which then prevailed in the United Provinces frustrated all their endeavours. Lewis now sought every opportunity of breaking with the Dutch; less perhaps from any dread of their power, or ability to injure him, than with a view to enlarge his dominions by the entire conquest of the Low Countries. He knew that the whole strength of the republic consisted in her marine; that her frontier was weak, her provinces divided, and the chief power in the hands of men inveterately set against the family of Orange, the ancient captains of the republic. His first attempt was to dissolve the triple alliance, and disengage from it Charles II. king of England. In this business the duchess of Orleans was employed: she went to England under pretence of visiting the king her brother; and her negotiation was successful. In the mean time Lewis possessed himself of Lorraine, under pretence that duke Charles was forming alliances in the empire against France. The following year was spent in negotiations with the emperor, Spain, and Sweden, with the electors of Cologne and Brandenburg, with the bishop of Munster, and other spiritual German princes. The design of Lewis was to prevent their acceding to the triple alliance; from which he had already weaned one power, the most considerable of the whole. The bishop of Munster beheld with uneasiness the growing power of the United Provinces: he pretended that they had made several attempts upon the counties of Stirum, Culemburg, Bentheim, and East Friesland; that they had seized on Ravenstein on the Meuse, and several other places belonging to his bishopric. In his own defence he concluded a treaty with France, and prevailed on the elector of Cologne to follow his example. By signing a treaty with these two princes, the king opened a way to Holland by the Meuse and the Rhine; he thus established places of arms and magazines in a country distant from

his own dominions, and secured a retreat in case his enterprise proved abortive. With respect to the emperor, every artifice was used to keep him neutral; and indeed his own inclinations co-operated but little in favour of the Dutch, whom he regarded as subjects revolted from the princes of his family, and in possession of several places belonging to the empire. In Sweden, Lewis's negotiations were equally successful; for here he prevailed so far with Charles XI. as to obtain a stipulation, that if the emperor, or any of the princes of the empire, joined their forces to the Dutch, a Swedish army should march into the very heart of Germany and join the French, in order to force those princes to observe the treaty of Westphalia. Of all the Germanic body, the elector of Brandenburg alone interested himself for the safety of the States-general. The peace of Westphalia had prevented this enterprising prince from extending his dominions in Germany, and retaking Pomerania from the Swedes. He had long aspired at the stadtholdership of Holland; and though that office had been for six years suppressed; yet he flattered himself that, in case of a war, he might obtain it, perpetuate it in his family, and in time reduce Holland by dint of force, intrigue, and stratagem. With this view, he rejected the proposals of several princes of the empire, and even those of France, endeavouring by every possible method to insinuate himself into the friendship and confidence of the States. In the end he concluded a treaty with them, whereby it was stipulated that he should assist the republic with 25,000 men. Berneking, the Dutch ambassador at Madrid, disconcerted all the schemes of France at that court, and engaged the queen of Spain to furnish money and troops for the defence of the United Provinces. Thus was the face of Europe wholly changed. France and England, who had contributed largely to the raising and aggrandizing the republic, were now incited to destroy her; while Spain, which for an age had been endeavouring to suppress her, was arming for her support. Pierre de Groot, the Dutch minister at the Hague, was employed to penetrate into Lewis's designs; he gave his constituents notice that he foresaw a terrible storm ready to fall upon them, which they might nevertheless break by seasonable submissions and proper acknowledgments. Upon this the States wrote to the king, endeavouring to appease his wrath; but finding him inexorable, they prepared for receiving him, and provided for the security of their provinces. But the long peace the republic had enjoyed had destroyed her standing forces, and little confidence could be reposed in her new levied soldiers. As soon as matters were ripe for execution, Lewis ordered an army of 100,000 men to file off towards the Rhine. Before the opening of the campaign, and previous to his declaration of war, he divided his army into 4 columns; commanding one in person, with the marshal Turenne under him. Another was led by the prince of Conde, assisted by the marshals Humieres and Bellefonds; the 3d was headed by Crequi; and the 4th marched to Westphalia under the conduct of the duke of Luxemburg, to join the Bishop of Munster. As the marshals Crequi, Bellefonds, and Humieres,

refused to receive orders from Turenne, they were banished; but after six months exile, were recalled, at the instance of the whole body of marshals in France, upon their making proper submissions. Such an army drawing towards their frontiers could not but terrify the Dutch, now torn with civil factions. The partisans of the Orange family were for abolishing the perpetual edict, and raising William III. to the dignity enjoyed by his predecessors; but the De Witt faction opposed him violently, though they could not prevent the young prince from being chosen captain general and high admiral. Many persons hoped that William's new dignity would incline his uncle Charles II. to return to the triple alliance; but that hope was frustrated by the conduct of Charles, who, in conjunction with Lewis, declared war against the States-general on the 7th April. A month after, the elector of Cologne and bishop of Munster followed the example of the two kings. The Dutch put themselves in the best posture of defence that circumstances would admit. Maestricht was strongly garrisoned; the prince of Orange had assembled an army of 23,000 men, with which he advanced to the banks of the Yssel, and the Dutch fleet cruised off the mouth of the Thames to prevent the junctions of the naval forces of England and France, which amounted to 230 ships. All Europe watched the first motions of two powerful kings, seconded by the best generals of the age. Lewis joined his army at Charleroy: it was composed of 23 companies of *gens d'armes*, life-guards, mousquetaires, and light-horse, two regiments of the French and Swiss guards, 14 of foreign infantry, and 60 of light-horse or dragoons, comprising in all an army of 110,000 fighting men, under marshall Turenne as captain-general. Holland could only be attacked by the Rhine or the Meuse; and the generals and ministers differed by which of these insets they were to make the first impressions. At last, after several deliberations, it was determined to make both attacks at the same time, the more to disconcert their councils. It is probable that Turenne always opposed the siege of Maestricht; for we find him, immediately after the surrender of Maseik, strongly dissuading the king from that enterprise, in opposition to the sentiments of the prince of Conde. At last he prevailed; and it was resolved in council to advance towards the Rhine, and besiege at the same time the towns of Rhinberg, Vessel, Orfol, and Burick. These places were all well fortified, and deemed the keys of Holland; however, the Dutch did not appear disturbed at their being invested, as they were only under the protection of, and did not immediately belong to, the United Provinces. They were besides in hopes that any attempts upon the territory of Cleves would hasten the preparations of the elector of Brandenburg, and even rouse the emperor into a sense of the danger he was in from the vast designs of Lewis. Nothing could oppose armies so well appointed, led by generals so skilful and so experienced. The 4 towns surrendered within a few days of each other; and Rhinberg, that held out longest, opened its gates on the 7th of June. A few days after, the town and fort of Rhees, and the town of Emerick, sur-

rendered; upon which the king resolved to pass the Rhine by a ford, over which the cavalry were to swim. This bold enterprise was projected and conducted by Coëde; who, in the face of two regiments of foot, and several squadrons of horse under general Warts, intrenched on the opposite side, effected the passage, in the same order, and with as much regularity, as if he had marched his troops on dry land. The enemy made a stout resistance; but were driven from their post, after having killed the duke of Longueville on the spot, and wounded the prince of Conde, which disabled him for some time from attending the service, and obliged him to resign the command of his army to Turenne. It is almost incredible with what rapidity towns and fortresses yielded to the fortune of Lewis. The reduction of Betan, the most fruitful country of the United Provinces, and the surrender of Tolbus fort, obliged the prince of Orange to abandon the Yssel, lest he should be attacked in the rear, and to retire to the very heart of the country, as far as Rhenen, in the province of Utrecht. Thus the town of Arnhem, the forts of Knotsemborough, Voom, St Andre, and Shenck, this last, the strongest in the Netherlands (having cost the great Henry Frederic prince of Orange a seven months siege), with a variety of other forts and towns, surrendered as soon as summoned; and at last Nimwegen, a town strong from the nature of the works and fortifications, and garrisoned by 8000 fighting men, including the inhabitants, was invested. After the citizens had for 8 days exhibited signal proofs of courage in defence of their liberties, they were forced to yield to the superior skill of Turenne: In the mean time the bishop of Munster and elector of Cologne, having joined that body of troops under the command of the duke of Luxemburg, the united army entered the province of Overysse, and, by dint of cruelty and terror, which the duke spread, reduced the towns as soon as he appeared before them. Animated by that implacable rage that constantly attends religious wars, the two prelates obliged the duke to exert a severity, by no means suited to his nature, against heretics and the rebellious subjects of the house of Austria. Next the king's forces penetrated into the province of Utrecht, where their conquests went on with the same rapidity, and put the capital of the province in the utmost danger. To retard its fate, the Dutch adopted the expedient of opening their sluices, and overflowing the country. The other towns followed the example of Utrecht; and Holland, Brabant, and Dutch Flanders, was one vast lake, the towns rising like islands in the midst of the waters. Farther to stem the torrent of Lewis's conquests, the people were persuaded the only barrier was to lodge the supreme power in the hands of the prince of Orange. They accordingly obliged the states of Holland and West Friesland to unite the dignity of stadtholder to those of captain-general and high-admiral, with which the prince was already invested. They likewise sent remonstrances so pathetic to the king of England, that Charles, moved with the situation of the republic, and jealous of the designs of Lewis, dispatched the duke of Buckingham and earl of Arlington into Holland, to quiet the fears of

the Dutch, and insist upon the king's penetrating no farther into Holland. In case of Lewis's refusal, Charles declared that he would break the alliance; as he perceived that, instead of securing Zealand to the English, agreeable to the treaty, the designs of France were to unite the whole republic to their own monarchy. Lewis had in fact no great regard to the menaces of his ally; but as persisting obstinately to advance into a country which the inundation rendered impassable, might terminate in the ruin of all his schemes, he seemed, out of compliment to the king of England, to listen to terms of accommodation; which, after all his victories, could not fail of proving advantageous. In 3 months he had conquered the provinces of Guelderland, Overysel, and Utrecht, taken about 50 towns and forts, and made 24,000 prisoners. Conde and Turenne advised him to send the prisoners to work upon the canal of Languedoc, and to leave all the places that were not essential to the preservation of his conquests; the minister Louvois was of a different opinion, and his sentiments determined the king. The prisoners were released for a trifling ransom, and the king's army totally reduced and exhausted by the continual drains made to garrison the conquered places. A negotiation was set on foot at Bostel, near Bois-le-duc, whither the king, attended by the English ambassadors and the Dutch deputies, repaired, but the terms required of the republic were so hard, that they were rejected with disdain by the Dutch; who, animated by their stadtholder, resolved to wait a change of fortune in the midst of the waters. They used every expedient to rouse the princes of Germany in their defence; and so successfully, that the elector of Brandenburg, the nearest and most interested prince, prepared to take the field. The undaunted courage, the vigilance, the public spirit of the prince of Orange, gained him the entire confidence and affection of the republic; and excited their resentment against the two brothers De Witts, his implacable enemies, whom they accused of receiving pensions from Lewis. The suggestion was false; but possibly their love of liberty, and jealousy of the house of Orange, had carried those two great politicians too far in their pacific measures and complaisance to the power of the French monarch. The pensionary was attacked in the street by the populace; but by his personal bravery broke through the crowd, and saved his life, though covered with wounds. Soon after, the sedition broke out afresh, and the partisans of the house of Orange again stirred up the animosity of the republic against the De Witts. Several crimes were laid to the pensioner's charge, but he cleared himself. Suborned witnesses accused his brother of an attempt to poison the prince of Orange. Cornelius was imprisoned and treated with great barbarity. While he was under the torture, he sung that ode of Horace, *Iustum et tenacem propositi virum*. His brother took him out of prison after sentence of banishment was pronounced; the tumult rose high, and both the De Witts were cruelly torn in pieces in the streets. William of Orange seemed touched at this terrible sacrifice; he made the pensionary's eulogium, and ordered the murderers to be pro-

secuted; however, the clemency he the advantages he obtained by the animosity he bore the De Witts, all men that he secretly countenance. William III. prince of Orange, in the daily ingratiated himself more. His whole fortune for the safety of the exerted himself with such prudence and all Europe began to unite against the by the month of July. Every prince was in motion to succour the Dutch emperor, the king of Denmark, the elector of Brandenburg, the duke of Brunswick Lüneburg, the duke of Hesse, immediately ordered troops to join; several of the other princes preparing to take the field. All was England began to waver, and there was power in Europe upon whom Lewis could heartily rely. The army of Brandenburg was commanded by the elector in person, and of the empire under the famous Marlborough joined near Hildesheim, and composed 40,000 men. Turenne, now appointed commander of the king's army on his return, marched to oppose the enemy's passing. For three whole months were the elector and Montecuculi employed in abortive attempts to effect a passage at Mentz, Coblenz, and other places. This answered the purpose, making a powerful diversion in favour of the Dutch, though they could not accept their design of joining the prince of Orange. After repeated disappointments, the French army directed its march to Westphalia. Turenne followed, to keep the bishop of Münster steady to his engagements. For half the campaign, he, with a body of 16,000 men, every stratagem of the elector and Montecuculi, the latter the most renowned general of the empire, at the head of an army near triple strength. He obliged them to go into winter quarters, in a country harassed and exhausted, and confirmed the bishop of Münster in the alliance of France, at the very time he was on the point of deserting with the emperor. He obliged the elector of Brandenburg, who took the chief command, to resign Montecuculi's illness, to abandon the siege of Werle; took Unna, Kamen, Altena, Berckem, and several other towns and fortresses. By continuing his operations, he forced the elector to remove his winter quarters again into the field, chased him from post to post, until he obliged him to quit Westphalia, re-pass the Weser, and retreat with precipitation into the bishopric of Hildesheim. After taking possession of the elector's towns in Westphalia, he pursued him into the bishopric of Hildesheim; and at length, by the merit of superior genius, forced him to seek shelter in his hereditary dominions. All this was effected after Louvois had appointed the marshal's army quarters in Alsace and Lorraine, amidst the rigours of a severe winter, opposed by a superior enemy, by the artifices of Louvois, and seconded only by his own prudence, and the affections of his troops, which he maintained amidst all the difficulties, hardships, and dangers they encountered. It was indeed supposed, that Montecuculi was prevented from giving Turenne battle by the

the

the remonstrances of prince Lobkowitz, the emperor's ambassador, influenced by the gold of Lewis. Certain indeed it is, that Montecuculi's illness arose from his chagrin at seeing all his projects frustrated by the unsteady dilatory conduct of the court of Vienna. Lewis's negotiations disturbed Europe no less than his arms. His tools and creatures swarmed in every court. Leopold could not be prevented from declaring in favour of Holland; but his ministers were brought off from seconding the emperor's intentions. The whole English nation exclaimed against the alliance of their king with France; but Charles stood in need of French gold to supply his extravagance and profligacy. The elector of Bavaria had indeed been compelled by Lewis to retire to his capital; but it was by *méridint* of intrigue that he was forced from his alliance with Holland and constrained to sign a peace with France. While Turenne was thus employed on the Rhine, Conde having recovered of his wounds, returned to the command of the army in Holland. He besieged and took Maestricht in 13 days. Having repaired the fortifications, he proposed making himself master of several other towns; but the inundations every where stopped his course. All his attempts to draw off the waters were in vain; and he was forced to content himself with preserving, without pretending to extend, the king's conquests. Whatever glory Lewis acquired by land, the conduct of his admirals deserved equal praise with that of his generals. In little more than 12 months, the French were taught the art of naval war. Before, they fought ship to ship; but understood nothing of those evolutions by which whole fleets imitate the movements of armies. The duke of York, afterwards James II. invented the method of giving all orders at sea by means of signals: this, and every other part of the art, the French borrowed from the English; and became so apt scholars, that they ventured to give battle to the Hollanders, the great rivals of the English, on that element. Their fleet amounting to 40 sail, besides fire-ships, joined to the English, gave battle three different times to the Dutch. De Ruyter gained additional glory in these engagements: and D'Estrees the French admiral gained the esteem of De Ruyter. In the mean time, Spain declared in favour of the Dutch; and prevailed upon the emperor to act more heartily in the cause of Holland, and in defence of the liberties of Europe. The prince of Orange was reinforced by 10,000 Spaniards, sent to him by the governor of the Low Countries. Philip had concluded a treaty with the States at the Hague, whereby he declared war against France, engaged the emperor to make a powerful diversion on the Rhine, stipulated not to accept of peace before the Dutch had retrieved all their losses; and obtained from them a promise to listen to no terms of accommodation before Philip was reinstated in all his possessions in the Low Countries, previous to the peace of the Pyrenees. Montecuculi was ordered to advance with 30,000 men to Franconia; and Turenne, joining the troops of Cologne and Munster, passed the Main, and took post in the electorate of Mentz. The prince of Orange receiving no impediment

from Conde, who was forced on account of the inundations to repair the Meuse, thought this a proper time for action, as the enemy had no considerable forces in the heart of the United Provinces. He ordered some troops to file off secretly to Amsterdam and Muiden; lined with infantry the intrenchments which secured the passage to Holland; and, to deceive the duke of Luxembourg, who commanded in Utrecht, sent some forces by sea to attack Bommel. The duke, not penetrating the prince's design, came to succour the place; and William, finding his stratagem succeed, marched to Naerden, and with 25,000 men invested and took the place before the duke could provide for its security. Upon this success, the Dutch took courage; fortune inclined in their favour, and in a short time all the horrors of war were removed from the interior parts of the United Provinces to the Spanish Netherlands. Neither the experience nor consummate address of Turenne, the genius of Vauban, nor the indefatigable vigilance of Louvois, could repair the error committed in ruining the army to garrison the conquered towns. Even Conde's fire seemed extinguished in the waters with which the Dutch had drowned their country. Instead of penetrating farther, he was obliged to retreat. Turenne could not prevent the junction of Montecuculi and the prince of Orange, nor the loss of Bonne. This junction, and the declaration of Spain obliged the armies of France to abandon the three provinces with still more rapidity than they had conquered them. The triumphal arch at St Dennis was hardly erected as a monument of Lewis's victories, before the fruits of those victories were relinquished. In a word the parliament of England would no longer suffer Charles to be the mercenary tool of France; the late ill success cooled the elector of Cologne and the bishop of Munster in their friendship; and Lewis, forsaken by all his allies, found himself under the necessity of maintaining singly a war against the empire, Spain, and the United Provinces.

(17.) UNITED PROVINCES, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE PRESENT TIME. From that period the United Provinces have been distinguished among the European nations as a very considerable maritime and commercial power. Their connection with Britain by the Revolution in 1688, when William III. stadholder of Holland became king of this island, brought on a much closer connection between the two nations than had ever taken place before. By this connection, William formed a plan of humbling his great adversary Lewis XIV. who had so lately brought his country to the verge of ruin. For this purpose he renewed the war in 1689, and commanded the army in person. However, he was overmatched by the abilities of Luxemburg the French general; who opposed him, and obliged him to conclude a peace in 1697. His enmity to the French king, however, was not extinguished. The remaining part of his life he employed in forming the most powerful confederacy against that monarch; and so much was he wrapped up in this project, that even in his dying moments it seemed to prevail over every other consideration.

consideration. (See ENGLAND, § 31.) His measures, however, were adopted by his successor Queen Anne; and the French monarchy had nearly sunk under the united efforts of the forces of Britain, Holland, and Germany, headed by the experienced generals Marlborough and Eugene. But at last the whole plan was disconcerted by a revolution in the British ministry; the Dutch were disappointed in the moment of expectation, and obliged to consent to the peace of Utrecht, which left them exposed to the attempts of France as much as ever. A barrier composed of a great number of fortified towns was indeed granted them; but barriers of this kind are a slender defence against the modern improvements in war. In the war of 1639, these towns were taken one after another by Marshal Saxe, who thus avenged the exploits of the duke of Marlborough; while the Dutch and British army, commanded by the late duke of Cumberland, were driven from place to place, without being able to make one successful effort from the beginning of the war to the end of it. See ENGLAND, § 81. It is probable that the bad success of this war cooled the affections of the Dutch towards Britain so much, that ever since they have acted rather as concealed enemies than friends. In the war of 1755, their attachment to France was evident; and in the last, it proceeded to such an height, as to oblige the British ministry to declare war against them. The issue of this war is still fresh in our memories. A single naval engagement was the only event of consequence that took place, and showed that both were formidable antagonists to each other. The war was undertaken in opposition to the wishes of the stadtholder, who having been maintained in his prerogative chiefly by the powerful influence of Britain and Prussia, could have no motive for making a rupture with the court of London. The subsequent transactions of the States-general have been related under other articles. (See PRUSSIA, § 13, and REVOLUTION, N° VI, § 19.) Having deserted the grand alliance formed against the disturbers of the peace of Europe, and the office of the stadtholder being abolished, the Batavian republic, under the name of an ally, became in reality little better than a province of France. The consequence of this alliance was what might have been expected. The British government, obliged to attack its enemies wherever it might find them, commenced hostilities against the Batavian Republic; and in the compass of a very short period wrested from them their most valuable possessions both in the eastern and in the western world. In the mean time this hapless country, which was turned into the BATAVIAN REPUBLIC in imitation of France, became a kingdom when her mistress became an empire. See REVOLUTION, VI, § 50. But even this was not sufficient; the United Provinces once so great, so rich, and free, became an integral part of France—the commerce, name, and glory gone, and subject to endless insults, to vexatious taxes, and above all to the horrid law of conscription. See REVOLUTION, VI, § 54.

(12.) UNITED PROVINCES, LATE CONSTITUTION OF THE. The late constitution was some-

what singular. Most of the towns in the several provinces were little republics, whose deputies, with the nobility, composed the states thereof: and the deputies of the provinces, in like manner, composed the States General. Every town or province might send as many deputies as they pleased to the assemblies of the provincial states, or States General; but those of each town or province had but one voice, and presided by turns. No resolution taken by the States General was of any force till confirmed by the several provinces. The legislative power in the towns was vested in the senates; and the executive in the burgomasters, syndics, &c. The states of the provinces were styled, Noble and Mighty Lords; but those of Holland, Noble and Most Mighty Lords; and the States General, High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands, or their High Mightinesses. Besides the States General, there was also a council of state, consisting of deputies from the several provinces, making twelve in all; of which Holland sent three; Guelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht, two a-piece; and Friesland, Groningen, and Overysse, one. In this council every deputy presided a week by turns, and the stadtholder had a decisive voice when the votes happened to be equal. The principal affairs that came under their deliberation, were those relating to the army and finances. The stadtholder was also president of the states in every province, but had no seat in the States General. One dissenting voice in the provincial states prevented their coming to any resolution. See STADTHOLDER. Such was the constitution of the Seven United Provinces. With respect to the administration of justice, every province had its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cases, appeals lie from the petty and country courts; and it is said, that justice is nowhere distributed with more impartiality.

(19.) UNITED PROVINCES, LATE TAXES AND REVENUE OF THE. The taxes in these provinces are so many, and so heavy, especially in Holland, that it is not without reason asserted, that the only thing that has escaped taxation there is the air they breathe. The province of Holland contributes above one half of the whole public expenses. For the encouragement of trade the duties on goods and merchandise are exceeding low.

(20.) UNITED PROVINCES, MANNERS, AND CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE OF THE. As to the character of the Dutch, the boors or husbandmen are industrious enough, but heavy, and slow of understanding. The seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-mannered sort of people. Their tradesmen are something sharper, and make use of all their skill to take advantage of those they deal with. Every class of men is extremely frugal. All appetites and passions run lower and cooler here than in other countries, avarice excepted. Quarrels are very rare; revenge is seldom heard of; and jealousy scarcely ever known. It is very uncommon for any of them to be really in love, or even to pretend to it; nor do the women seem to care whether they are or not. People converse pretty much upon a level here; nor is it easy to distinguish the man from the master,

after, or the maid from the mistress, such liberties do they allow their servants, or rather are obliged to allow them; for they may not be struck corrected, but the dispute must be left to the magistrate. The Dutch are tall and strong built; at both men and women have the grossest shapes that are to be met with anywhere. Their garb, except among the officers of the army and some of others, is exceeding plain, and the fashions change as seldom as in Spain. The men are addicted to drinking, which some think necessary in this foggy air, both for their health, and the improvement of their understandings. Among their diversions, that of skating in winter is one of the chief. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and their dexterity in skating; both men and women darting along with inconceivable velocity. The Dutch are remarkable for their cleanliness; nothing can exceed the neatness of their houses, towns, and villages. Many of them have distinguished themselves by their earning, and some even by their wit and ingenuity; witness ERASMUS, GROTIUS, &c. The Dutch excel also in painting and engraving; and some of them have been no contemptible satirists.

(21.) UNITED PROVINCES, POPULATION OF THE. This small state is very populous. The total population of the 8 departments is estimated at two millions.

(22.) UNITED PROVINCES, RIVERS AND HARBOURS OF THE. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Meuse, the Scheld, and the Vecht. The first is divided into several branches; one of which joins the Old Ifsel, and after that falls into the Zuyder Sea; another named the *Leck*, at the village of Krimpen, mingles with the Meuse; a third, called the *Crooked Rhine*, is branched out at Leyden into canals, of which one runs into the lake of Haarlem, and another loses itself in the sand hills between Catwyk on the Rhine, and Catwyk on the sea; and a fourth, called the *Wall*, falls into the Meuse over-against Workum. The Meuse, after dividing itself into two branches, and again uniting these, falls into the North Sea below Rotterdam. The Scheld below Antwerp divides itself into two branches, called the *Western* and *Eastern Scheldt*; the first separating Flanders from Zealand; and the other, running N. by Bergen-op-Zoom, and afterwards E. between the islands of Beveland and Schowen, falls into the sea a little below. The Vecht runs from E. to W. through the department of the Yssel, or late province of Overijssel, and falls into the Zuyder Sea. There are many smaller rivers that join these, and a vast number of canals; yet there are few good harbours in the provinces. The best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluis, and Flushing. As to the harbour of Amsterdam, it is indeed one of the largest and safest in Europe; but there is a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened or unloaded. There are no mountains in these provinces; and the only lake, properly so called, is that of Haarlem. The country is extremely well cultivated, especially the department of Amstel, or late province of Holland, which, in this respect, perhaps has not its equal in the universe.

The towns are very agreeable, being kept clean, and having canals in the middle of the streets, planted with trees.

(23.) UNITED PROVINCES, UNIVERSITIES OF THE. There are five universities in the republic, viz. those of Utrecht, Leyden, Franeker, Groningen, and Harderwic; but the three last are inconsiderable. The dissenters in England often send their children to these universities for education. Before the reformation there was an archbishop at Utrecht, who had for his suffragans the bishops of Deventer, Groningen, Middleburg, Haarlem, and Lewarden. The language here is a dialect of the German, but French is much spoken by the better sort.

(IV. 1.) UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. When the United States of N. America first published their declaration of INDEPENDENCY, 4th July, 1776. (See AMERICA, § 14.) there were only THIRTEEN STATES in the Union; but this great commonwealth now consists of *Seventeen* States, all united in a firm FOEDERAL UNION, under the same general system of laws and of liberty: viz. MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE ISLAND, CONNECTICUT, NEW HAMPSHIRE, VERMONT, NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE, MAINE, MARYLAND, VIRGINIA, KENTUCKY, NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA, TENNESSEE, and GEORGIA. For an account of the geography, extent, population, animals, productions, trade, manufactures, and history of these States; see these articles; and for a general account of the whole country and people, See AMERICA, and AMERICANS; and for the second American war, see WAR, § 238, towards the end.

(1.) UNITED STATES, TRADE OF THE. The following will give an idea of the Commercial progress, and of the relative situation of America with the principal European States. The exports from the United States, between the 1st of October, 1802, and the 30th Sept. 1803, of Domestic and Foreign Produce, were as follows:

	Dollars.
To Great Britain and Colonies	25,369,073
France, and her Colonies	8,445,013
Holland, E. and W. India Colonies	5,523,439
Spain, and her Colonies	4,533,539
Hamburg, Bremen, &c.	3,279,732
Portugal, and her Colonies	2,308,548
Denmark, Norway, and Islands	1,891,895
Sweden, and Swedish W. Indies	265,470
Italy	2,571,563
Prussia	319,625
Malta	14,109
Austrian Ports in the Adriatic	42,045
Morocco and Barbary States	36,757
Cape of Good Hope	34,522
China	172,495
E. Indies, generally not particularized	59,733
W. Indies, ditto	1,794,104
Europe, ditto	335,453
Africa, ditto	35,358
South Seas	826
North-West Coast of America	32,000

Total Dollars 35,890,032
Of this sum 13,594,073 were foreign produce;
2,744,523

2,714,523 of the exports to Holland; and 3,312,820 of those to France were of this description. The exports of domestic growth or manufacture, therefore, amount to 42,205,961 dollars; of which England alone imports 11,602,457; Scotland 2,474,518; Ireland 2,167,052; Guernsey, &c. 215,237; being considerably more than a third part of the entire. Spain and Portugal united take only 5,073,638; or not near an eighth part. The principal domestic articles of export were, 2,489,954 lb. of butter; 1,190,867 lb. of cheese; 1,680,346 lb. of ham and bacon; 2,052,302 lb. of lard; 2,079,608 bushels of Indian corn; 1,311,853 barrels of flour; 686,145 bushels of wheat; 81,838 tierces of rice; 37,712,079 lb. of cotton; 59,217 lb. of tallow; and 1,255,422 lb. of tallow candles; tobacco, manufactured, 142,515 lb. and unmanufactured, 86,991 hogheads; tar, 78,939 barrels, and 61,178 of turpentine; coaches and other carriages (carts to the West Indies) 9,893; and shoes and slippers, 26,058 pairs. The several States contribute to the above aggregate of exports in the following sums:

	Dollars.
New York	10,818,387
Massachusetts	8,768,566
South Carolina	7,811,108
Pennsylvania	7,525,710
Virginia	7,414,346
Maryland	5,209,418
Georgia	2,370,875
Rhode Island	1,275,596
Connecticut	1,248,571
North Carolina	952,641
New Hampshire	494,620
Delaware	428,153
Vermont	117,450
New Jersey	21,311

PORTS.

Port Adams	1,099,703
Michillimackiney	202,842
Detroit and Massé	40,764

* **UNITIVE**. *adj.* [from *unite*.] Having the power of uniting.—The *unitive* way of religion, which consists of the contemplation and love of God. *Norris*.

(1.) * **UNITY**. *n. f.* [*unitas*, Lat.] 1. The state of being one.—Those hereticks introduced a plurality of Gods; and so made the profession of the *unity* part of the symbolum, that should discriminate the orthodox from them. *Hamm*.—The production of one being the destruction of another, although they generate, they increase not; and must not be said to multiply, who do not transcend an *unity*. *Brown*.—

His image multiply'd:

In *unity* defective. *Milton*.—Whatever we can consider as one thing, suggests to the understanding the idea of *unity*. *Locke*. 2. Concord; conjunction.—You see, there is such *unity* in the proofs. *Shak*.—The *unity* of the spirit in the bond of peace. *Pearson*.—Take *unity* then out of the world. *Holyday*.—We ought to promote *unity*. *Spratt*. 3. Agreement; uniformity.—*Unity*, as well in ceremonies as in doctrine. *Hooker*. 4. Principal of dramatick writing, by which the tenour of the story, and propriety of representation is preserved.—The *unities* of time, place, and

action, are exactly observed. *Dryd*.—In poetry it is absolutely necessary that the *unities* should be understood. *Add*. 5. [In law.] *Unity* of possession is a joint possession of two rites by several titles. *Coswell*.

(2.) **UNITY**, in poetry. Aristotle laid it down as a rule, that there are 3 unities to be observed, viz. the unity of action, of time, and of place.

* **UNJUDGED**. *adj.* Not judicially determined.—Causes *unjudg'd* disgrace the loaded file. *Prior*.

(1.) * **UNIVERSAL**. *adj.* [*universalis*, Latin.] 1. General; extending to all.—The woe had been *universal*. *Shak*.—Appetite, an *universal* wolf. *Shak*.—Divine laws are *universal*, in respect of persons. *White*.—No subject can be of *universal* concern. *Reynolds*. 2. Total; whole.—The *universal* frame. *Dryd*. 3. Not particular; comprising all particulars.—

From thing particular

She doth abstract the *universal* kinds. *Davies*.—An *universal* was the object of imagination, and there was no such thing in reality. *Arbuth*.

(2.) * **UNIVERSAL**. *n. f.* The whole; the general system of the universe. Not in use.—To what end had the angel been set to keep the entrance into Paradise after Adam's expulsion, if the *universal* had been paradise. *Ral*.—Plato calleth God the cause and original, the nature and reason of the *universal*. *Ral*.

* **UNIVERSALITY**. *n. f.* [*universalitas*, school Latin.] Not particularity; generality; extension to the whole.—This catholicism consisteth in *universality*, as embracing all sorts of persons. *Pearse*.—An *universality* of sin. *South*.—The *universality* of the deluge I insist upon. *Woodw*.—A special conclusion cannot be inferred from a moral *universality*. *Watts*.—He mistook accident for *universality*. *Reyn*.

* **UNIVERSALLY**. *adv.* [from *universal*.] Throughout the whole; without exception.—Willeth *universally* to fly from evil. *Hook*.—There best beheld, where *universally* admir'd. *Milton*.—*Universally* valuable. *Dryd*.—This institution *universally* prevailed. *Addison*.

(1.) * **UNIVERSE**. *n. f.* [*univers*, Fr. *universum*, Latin.] The general system of things.—Fills the wide vessel of the *universe*. *Shak*.—God here sums up all into man; the whole into a part; the *universe* into an individual. *South*.—Whose word call'd out this *universe* to birth. *Prior*.

(2.) **UNIVERSE** is a collective name, signifying the whole world; or the assemblage of heaven and earth, with all things therein. See *ASTRONOMY* and *GEOGRAPHY*.

(1.) * **UNIVERSITY**. *n. f.* [*universitas*, Latin.] A school, where all the arts and faculties are taught and studied.—My son and servants spend all at the *university*. *Shak*.—Degrees of the *universities*. *Selden*.—The *universities* flourished. *Clarend*.

(2.) **UNIVERSITY** is the name of a corporation formed for the education of youth in the liberal arts and sciences, and authorized to admit such as have studied in it, to certain *degrees* in different faculties, which not only served as certificates of proficiency in science, but also confer on those who obtain them considerable privileges within the *university*, as well as some rank in the state without

without it. Universities generally comprehend within them one or more colleges; but this is not always the case; for the university of St Andrew's was in being before either of its colleges was founded, and it would continue in being with all its privileges though both its colleges were levelled with the dust. In every university with which we are acquainted, there are four faculties, viz. *Theology, Law, Physic, and the Arts and Sciences*, comprehending mathematics, natural and moral philosophy, &c.; and in Oxford, Cambridge, and some other universities, *Music* is considered as a fifth faculty. In each of these there are two degrees, those of *Bachelor* and *Doctor*; for though in the universities of Great Britain and Ireland we have no such degree as *Doctor in Arts and Sciences*, our *Master of Arts* answers to the degree of *Doctor in Philosophy*, which is conferred by many of the universities on the continent. Universities in their present form, and with their present privileges, are institutions comparatively modern. They sprang from the convents of regular clergy, or from the chapters of cathedrals in the church of Rome, where young men were educated for holy orders, in that dark period when the clergy possessed all the little erudition which was left in Europe. These convents were seminaries of learning probably from their first institution; and we know with certainty, that in Old Aberdeen there was a monastery in which youth were instructed in *theology, the canon law, and the school philosophy*, at least 200 years before the university and King's College were founded. The same was doubtless the case in Oxford and Cambridge, and probably in every town in Europe where there is now a university, which has any claim to be called ancient; for it was not till the more eminent of the laity began to see the importance of literature and science, that universities distinct from convents were founded, with the privilege of admitting to degrees, which conferred some rank in civil society. These universities have long been considered as lay corporations; but as a proof that they had the ecclesiastical origin which we have assigned to them, it will be sufficient to observe, that the Pope arrogated to himself the right of vesting them with all their privileges; and that, prior to the reformation, every university in Europe conferred its degrees in all the faculties by authority derived from a papal bull. The most ancient universities in Europe are those of OXFORD, CAMBRIDGE, PARIS, SALAMANCA, and BOLOGNA; and in the two English universities, the first founded colleges are those of *University, Balliol, and Merton*, in the former, and *St Peter's* in the latter. Oxford and Cambridge, however, were universities, or, as they were then called, *studies*, some hundreds of years before colleges or schools were built in them; for the former flourished as a seminary of learning in the reign of Alfred the Great, and the other, could we believe its partial partizans, at a period still earlier. The universities of Scotland are four, ST ANDREW'S, GLASGOW, ABERDEEN, and EDINBURGH. In Ireland there is but one university, viz. that of DUBLIN, founded by Queen Elizabeth, and very richly endowed.

VOL. XXII. PART II.

(3.) UNIVERSITY COURTS in England. The two universities enjoy the sole jurisdiction, in exclusion of the king's courts, over all civil actions and suits whatsoever, where a scholar or privileged person is one of the parties; excepting in such cases where the right of freehold is concerned. And then by the university charter they are at liberty to try and determine, either according to the common law of the land, or according to their own local customs, at their discretion; which has generally led them to carry on their process in a course much conformed to the civil law. This privilege, so far as it relates to civil causes, is exercised at Oxford in the chancellor's court: the judge of which is the vice-chancellor, his deputy, or assessor. From his sentence an appeal lies to delegates appointed by the congregation; from thence to other delegates of the house of convocation; and if they all three concur in the same sentence, it is final, at least by the statutes of the university, according to the rule of the civil law. But if there be any discordance or variation in any of the three sentences, an appeal lies in the last resort to judges delegates appointed by the crown, under the great seal in chancery. As to the jurisdiction of the university courts in criminal matters, the chancellor's court at Oxford, and probably also that of Cambridge, hath authority to try all offences or misdemeanors under the degree of treason, felony, or mayhem; and the trial of treason, felony, and mayhem, by a particular charter, is committed to the university jurisdiction in another court, namely, the court of the lord high steward of the university. The process of the trial is this: The high steward issues one precept to the sheriff of the county, who thereupon returns a panel of 18 freeholders; and another precept to the bedells of the university, who thereupon return a panel of 18 matriculated laymen, *laicos privilegio universitatis gaudentes*: and by a jury formed of *medietate*, half of freeholders and half matriculated persons, is the indictment to be tried; and that in the guildhall of the city of Oxford. And if execution be necessary to be awarded in consequence of finding the party guilty, the sheriff of the county must execute the university process; to which he is annually bound by an oath.

* **UNIVOCAL.** *adj.* [*univocus*, Lat.] 1. Having one meaning.—*Univocal* words are such as signify but one idea, or but one sort of thing. *Watts*. 2. Certain; regular; pursuing always one tenour.—This conceit makes putrefactive generations correspondent unto seminal productions; and conceives unequivocal effects, and *univocal* conformity unto the efficient. *Brown*.

* **UNIVOCALLY.** *adv.* [from *univocal*.] 1. In one term; in one sense.—How is sin *univocally* distinguished into venial and mortal, if the venial be not sin? *Hale*.—Being itself does not predicate *univocally* touching God. *Hale*. 2. In one tenour.—All creatures are generated *univocally* by parents of their own kind. *Ray*.

* **UNJOYOUS.** *adj.* Not gay; not cheerful.—Lifts her pale eye *unjoyous*. *Thomson*.

* **UNJUST.** *adj.* [*injuste*, Fr. *injustus*, Lat.] Iniquitous; contrary to equity; contrary to justice. It is used both of persons and things.—*Quarrel*

S o s s

unjust

unjust against the good and loyal. *Shak.*—Finding his usurpation most unjust. *Shak.*—He that is unjust in the least, is unjust also in much. *Luke xvi.* Unjust usurpations and extortions. *K. Charles.*—The unjust the just hath slain. *Milton.*—He was so unjust as to do his brother an injury. *Locke.*

* **UNJUSTIFIABLE.** *adj.* Not to be defended; not to be justified.—These reproaches are unjustifiable. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—An unjustifiable piece of rashness. *Addison.*—Not out of ambition, or any other unjustifiable motive. *Atterbury.*

* **UNJUSTIFIABLENESS.** *n. f.* The quality of not being justifiable.—The illegality of all these commissions, and the unjustifiableness of all the proceedings. *Clarendon.*—When it is unlawful upon the unjustifiableness of the ground, we sin in it till we put an end to it. *Kettlewell.*

* **UNJUSTIFIABLY.** *adv.* In a manner not to be defended.

* **UNJUSTLY.** *adv.* In a manner contrary to right.—Thy country fought of thee, it fought unjustly. *Milton.*—Accus'd unjustly, then unjustly slew. *Denham.*—Your choler does unjustly rise. *Dryden.*—Moderation the one side unjustly pretends to. *Swift.*

* **UNKEMPT.** *adj.* Not combed. Obsolete.—And how my rhimes been rugged and unkempt. *Spenser.*

* **UNKENNEL.** *v. a. 1.* To drive from his hole.—I warrant we'll unkenel the fox. *Shak.*—I warrant you, colonel, we'll unkenel him. *Dryden.* 2. To rouse from its secrecy or retreat.—

If his occult guilt

Do not itself unkenel in one speech,

It is a damned ghost that we have seen. *Shak.*

* **UNKENT.** *adj.* [un and ken, to know.] Unknown. Obsolete.—As child whose parent is unkent. *Spenser.*

* **UNKET.** *adj.* 1. Not kept; not retained. 2. Unobserved; unobeyed.—Many things are now unkett, and abolished, every where. *Hooker.*

* **UNKIND.** *adj.* Not favourable; not benevolent.—None can be call'd deform'd, but the unkind. *Shak.*—Rich gifts wax poor, when givers prove unkind. *Shak.*—To Nimrod our author seems a little unkind. *Locke.*—'Till thou prov'st perjur'd or unkind. *Prior.*—And, in their height of kindness, are unkind. *Young.*

(1.) * **UNKINDLY.** *adj.* [un and kind.] 1. Unnatural; contrary to nature.—And 'gan abhor her brood's unkindly crime. *Spenser.* 2. Malignant; unfavourable.—Forbidding every bleak, unkindly fog. *Milton.*

(2.) * **UNKINDLY.** *adv.* 1. Without kindness; without affection.—The herd, unkindly wife. *Denham.*—If we unkindly part. *Dryden.* 2. Contrarily to nature.—Abortive, monstrous, or unkindly mix'd. *Milton.*

* **UNKINDNESS.** *n. f.* [from unkind.] Malignity; ill-will; want of affection.—Take no unkindness of his hasty words. *Shak.*—His unjust unkindness. *Shak.*—Manifested unkindness towards him. *Clarendon.*—As one who loves, and some unkindness meets. *Milton.*—Christ was the only person to have repented this unkindness. *South.*—And with unkindness seem'd to tax the god. *Dryden.*

* **To UNKING.** *v. a.* To deprive of royalty.

—God save king Henry, unking'd Richard first. *Shak.*—If as they would unking my father now. *South.*

* **UNKISSED.** *adj.* Not kissed.—I will be part unkind. *Shak.*

* **UNKNIGHTLY.** *adj.* Unbecoming a knight.—Their unknighly errand. *Sidney.*

* **To UNKNIT.** *v. a. 1.* To unweave; to be parate.—

Would he had not unknit himself

The noble knot he made. *Shak.*

2. To open.—Unknit that threat'ning, unknit brow. *Shak.*

* **UNKLE.** *n. f.* [uncle, French.] The brother of a father or mother. See **UNCLE.**—His uncle Siward, and the good Macduff. *Shak.*—My wealthy unkle from this world remove. *Dryden.*

* **To UNKNOW.** *v. a.* To cease to know.—Oh! can you keep it from you yourselves, unknown it? *Smith.*

* **UNKNOWABLE.** *adj.* Not to be known.—Distinguish well between knowables and unknowables. *Watts.*

* **UNKNOWING.** *adj.* 1. Ignorant; not knowing; with *of*.—Let me speak to th' unknowing world. *Shak.*—Unknowing persons. *Devy of Piety.*—Unknowing I prepar'd thy bridal bed. *Dryden.*—Unknowing he requires it. *Dryden.*—His bounds, unknowing of his change, pursue. *Dryden.*—Surveys his charge, unknowing of deceit. *Pope.* 2. Not practised; not qualified.—The lion moved unknowing to give place. *Dryden.*—And curs'd with hearts unknowing how to yield. *Pope.*

* **UNKNOWINGLY.** *adv.* Ignorantly; without knowledge.—Unknowingly he strikes and kills by chance. *Dryden.*—The Syrians were unknowingly led out of their way. *Addison.*

* **UNKNOWN.** *adj.* 1. Not known.—'Tis not unknown to you. *Shak.*—Unknown to us. *Mit.*—Unknown, unseen, my easy minutes pass. *Pope.*—Palamedes, not unknown to fame. *Dryden.*—You are not guilty, since unknown 'twas done. *Dryden.*—Despise the known, nor tremble at the unknown. *Pope.* 2. Greater than is imagined.—The planting of hemp and flax would be an unknown advantage to the kingdom. *Bacon.* 3. Not having cohabitation.—I am yet unknown to woman. *Shak.* 4. Without communication.—Unknown to Sir Roger. *Addison.*

* **UNLABOURED.** *adj.* 1. Not produced by labour.—Unlaboured harvests shall the fields adorn. *Dryden.* 2. Not cultivated by labour.—As the bright natives of th' unlabour'd field. *Blackin.* 3. Spontaneous; voluntary.—And from the theme unlabour'd beauties rise. *Tickel.*

* **To UNLACE.** *v. a. 1.* To loose any thing fastened with strings.—But thought his arms to leave, and helmet to unlace. *Spenser.*—There lies a knight with helm unlac'd. *Spenser.*—The belmet from my brow unlac'd. *Pope.* 2. To loose a woman's dress.—She lay for dead, till I help'd with unlacing her. *Sidney.*—Unlace yourself. *Donne.* 3. To divest of ornaments.—You unlace your reputation. *Shak.*

* **To UNLADE.** *v. a. 1.* To remove from the vessel which carries.—Unlade his hopes into another bottom. *Denham.* 2. To exonerate from.

which carries.—Shall here *unlade* him, and depart no more. *Dryd.* 2. To put on. Ufed of a vessel.—At Tyre the ship was to *unlade* her burden. *Asi.* xxi. 3.

* *UNLAD.* *adj.* 1. Not placed; not fixed.—The first foundations of the world being as yet *unlaid*. *Hooker.* 2. Not pacified; not filled; not suppressed.—Stubborn *unlaid* ghost. *Milton.*

* *UNLAMENTED.* *adj.* Not deplored.—He died *unlamented* by any. *Clarendon.*—Thus *unlamented* pass the proud away. *Pope.*

* *To UNLATCH.* *v. a.* To open by lifting up the latch.—My worthy wife the door *unlatch'd*. *Dryden.*

* *UNLAWFUL.* *adj.* Contrary to law; not permitted by the law.—

Before I be convict by course of law,
To threaten me with death is most *unlawful*.

Shak.

—It is an *unlawful* thing for a Jew to come unto one of another nation. *Asi.*—Shew me when it is *unlawful* to take these courses. *South.*—Uncouth, perhaps *unlawful* to reveal. *Dryd.*

* *UNLAWFULLY.* *adv.* 1. In a manner contrary to law or right.—He next year will be tempted to gain something *unlawfully*. *Taylor.* 2. Illegitimately; not by marriage.—I had rather my brother die by the law, than my son should be *unlawfully* born. *Shak.*—*Unlawfully* born, may claim of the man's affection who begot me. *Addison.*

* *UNLAWFULNESS.* *n. f.* 1. Contrariety to law; state of not being permitted.—If those alledged testimonies of scripture did indeed concern the matter to such effect as was pretended, that which they should infer were *unlawfulness*. *Hooker.*—The *unlawfulness* of lying. *South.* 2. Illegitimacy.

* *To UNLEARN.* *v. a.* To forget, or disuse what has been learned.—Antisthenes, being asked of one, what learning was most necessary for man's life? answered, to *unlearn* that which is naught. *Bacon.*—Take new pains to *unlearn* those habits. *Holder.*—The government of the tongue, our greatest scholars have *unlearn'd*. *Decay of Piety.*

Some cyders have by art, or age, *unlearn'd*
Their genuine relish. *Philips.*

—What they thus learned from him in one way, they did not *unlearn* again in another. *Atterbury.*—A wicked man is obliged to *unlearn* his former life. *Rogers.*

* *UNLEARNED.* *adj.* 1. Ignorant; not informed; not instructed.—Wisdom that here th' *unlearn'd* shall understand. *Davenant.*—And by succession of *unlearn'd* times. *Ross.*

Some at the bar, with subtilty defend

The cause of an *unlearned* noble friend. *Dryd.*—*Unlearned* men. *Locke.* 2. Not gained by study; not known.—They learn such things chiefly as were better *unlearned*. *Milt.* 3. Not suitable to a learned man.—I will prove those verses to be very *unlearned*. *Shak.*

* *UNLEARNEDLY.* *adv.* Ignorantly; grossly.—They think *unlearnedly*, who are of another belief. *Brown.*

* *UNLEAVENED.* *adj.* Not fermented; not

mixed with fermenting matter.—They baked *unleavened* cakes of the dough. *Exod.* ii. 39.

* *UNLEISUREDNESS.* *n. f.* Business; want of time; want of leisure. Not in use.—The *unleisurefulness* of the wandering author. *Boyle.*

* *UNLESS.* *conjunct.* Except; it not; supposing that not.—*Unless* we observe both, we obey neither. *Hooker.*—*Unless* I look on Sylvia in the day. *Shak.*

What hidden strength,
Unless the strength of heav'n, if you mean that?
Milton.

For sure I am, *unless* I win in arms,
To stand excluded from Emilia's charms.

Dryden.

—It never comes *unless* extorted. *Dryden.*—*Unless* he were, like Phœbus, young. *Swift.*

* *UNLESSONED.* *adj.* Not taught.—An *unlesson'd* girl, unchool'd, unpractis'd. *Shak.*

* *UNLETTERED.* *adj.* Unlearned; untaught.—Unschool'd and *unlettered* men. *Hooker.*—*Unletter'd* him. *Milton.*—Th' *unletter'd* christian. *Dryden.*

* *UNELEVELLED.* *adj.* Not laid even.—All *unelevell'd* the gay garden lies. *Tickel.*

* *UNLIBIDINOUS.* *adj.* Not lustful; pure from carnality.—Love *unlibidinous* reign'd. *Milt.*

* *UNLICENSED.* *adj.* Having no regular permission.—

Ask what boldness brought him hither
Unlicensed. *Milton.*

—No more, *unlicens'd*, thus to brave the main.
Pope.

* *UNLICKED.* *adj.* Shapeless; not formed; from the opinion that the bear licks her young to shape.—Like to a chaos, or *unlick'd* bear-whelp. *Shak.*—Those *unlick'd* bear-whelps. *Donne.*

The bloody bear, and independent beast,
Unlick'd to form, in groans her hate exprest.

Dryden.

* *UNLIGHTED.* *adj.* Not kindled; not set on fire.—There lay a log *unlighted* on the earth. *Dryd.*—Untouch'd, *unlighted* glows. *Prior.*

* *UNLIGHTSOME.* *adj.* Dark; gloomy; wanting light.—A mighty sphere! he fram'd, *unlightsome* first. *Milton.*

* *UNLIKE.* *adj.* 1. Dissimilar; having no resemblance.—Where cases are so *unlike* as theirs and ours. *Hosker.*

So the twins humours, in our Terence, are
Unlike. *Denham.*

—*Unlike* the niceness of our modern dames. *Dryd.*—Our ideas, inceed one another, not much *unlike* the images in the inside of a lantern. *Locke.*

—*Unlike* successes equal merits found. *Pope.* 2. Improbable; unlikely; not likely.—Make not impossible that which but seems *unlike*. *Shak.*—It were not *unlike* to befall to Spain. *Bacon.*

* *UNLIKELIHOOD.* } *n. f.* [from *unlikely*.]
* *UNLIKELINESS.* } Improbability.—A

midst all the *unlikelihooods* and discouraging circumstances. *South.*—Improbability and *unlikeliness*. *Locke.*

(1.) * *UNLIKELY.* *adj.* 1. Improbable; not such as can be reasonably expect'd.—A very *unlikely* envy she hath stumbled upon. *Sidney.* 2. Not promising any particular event.—Effects are
S s s s s strange,

strange, when they grow by *unlikely* means. *Hook.*
—Success in things *unlikely*. *Denham.*—Not only
unlikely to reach the future, but unworthy of the
present age. *Swift.*

(1.) * *UNLIKELY*. *adv.* Improbably.—They
not *unlikely* may proceed from the discoveries
each shall communicate to another, of God and
nature. *Pope.*

* *UNLIKENESS*. *n. f.* Dissimilitude ; want
of resemblance.—Comparing its likeness, or *un-
likeness* with the original. *Dryden.*

* *UNLIMITABLE*. *adj.* Admitting no bounds.
—He tells us 'tis unlimited and *unlimited*. *Locke.*

* *UNLIMITED*. *adj.* 1. Having no bounds ;
having no limits.—So *unlimited* is our impotence.
Boyle.—*Unlimited* excellencies. *Tillotson.* 2. Un-
defined ; not bounded by proper exceptions.—
Unlimited generalities. *Hooker.* 3. Unconfined ;
not restrained.—An *unlimited* will. *Taylor.*—An
unlimited exercise of mercy. *Rogers.*—*Unlimited*
conjugal fidelity. *Arbuth.*

* *UNLIMITEDLY*. *adv.* Boundlessly ; with-
out bounds.—Many ascribe too *unlimitedly* to the
force of a good meaning. *Decay of Piety.*

* *UNLINEAL*. *adj.* Not coming in the or-
der of succession.—

They put a barren sceptre in my gripe,
Thence to be wrench'd by an *unlineal* hand,
No son of mine succeeding. *Shak.*

* *To UNLINK*. *v. a.* To untwist ; to open.
—The serpent seeing him *unlink'd* itself. *Shak.*

* *UNLIQUIFIED*. *adj.* Unmelted ; undis-
solved.—Rigid and *unliquified*. *Addison.*

* *To UNLOAD*. *v. a.* 1. To disburden ; to
exonerate ; to free from load.—And death un-
loadeth thee. *Shak.*—Vain man, forbear, of cares
unload thy mind. *Creech.*—Some to *unload* the
fertile branches run. *Pope.* 2. To put off any
thing burdensome.—To you duke Humphry must
unload his grief. *Shak.*—Nor can my tongue un-
load my heart's great burden. *Shak.*

* *To UNLOCK*. *v. a.* 1. To open what is
shut with a lock.—I have seen her *unlock* her clo-
set. *Shak.*—*Unlocks* the door. *Dryd.* 2. To open
in general.

My purse, my person, my extremest means,
Lie all *unlock'd* to your occasions. *Shak.*

—I yielded, and *unlock'd* her all my heart. *Milton.*

—*Unlocks* their binding qualities. *Mortimer.*—A
fluxion of quick-lime *unlocks* the salts. *Arbuth.*

—*Unlocks* your springs, and open all your shades.
Pope.

* *UNLOCKED*. *adj.* Not fastened with a
lock.

* *UNLOOKED*. } *adj.* Unexpected ; not
* *UNLOOKED* for. } foreseen.—If he had not
come *unlook'd for*. *Stacy.*—How much *unlook'd*

for in this expedition. *Shak.*—But by some *unlook'd*
accident cut off.—Whatsoever is new is *unlook'd*
for. *Bacon.*

From that high hope, to what relapse
Unlook'd for are we fall'n. *Milto.*

—Your affairs I have recommended to the king,
but with *unlook'd* success. *Denham.*—She comes
unlook'd for, if she comes at all. *Pope.*

(1.) * *To UNLOOSE*. *v. a.* To loose. A word
perhaps barbarous and ungrammatical, the parti-

cle prefixed implying negation ; so that to *unloose*
is properly to bind.—York, *unloose* your long im-
prison'd thoughts.—Shall from your neck *unloose*
his am'rous fold. *Shak.*—The gordian knot of
he will *unloose*. *Shak.*—T' *unloose* this tied-up ju-
stice. *Shak.*—The latchet of his shoes I am not wa-
thy to stoop down and *unloose*. *Mark.* 1. 7.—The
industry of those that should attempt to *unloose* the
knots. *Decay of Piety.*

(2.) * *To UNLOOSE*. *v. n.* To fall in pieces ;
to loose all union and connexion.—Without this
virtue, the publick union must *unloose*. *Collier.*

* *UNLOSABLE*. *adj.* [A word rarely used.]
Not to be lost.—The *unlosable* mobility of atoms.
Boyle.

* *UNLOVED*. *adj.* Not loved.—That they
feel that feel *unloved* love. *Sidney.*—But miserable
most to love *unlovd*. *Shak.*—He was generally
unloved. *Clarendon.*

* *UNLOVELINESS*. *n. f.* Unamiableness ;
inability to create love.—To countervail his own
unloveliness. *Sidney.*

* *UNLOVELY*. *adj.* That cannot excite love.
There seems by this word generally more interde-
ed than barely negation. See *UNLOVELINESS*.

* *UNLOVING*. *adj.* Unkind ; not fond.—
Which argu'd thee a most *unloving* father. *Shak.*

* *UNLUCKILY*. *adv.* Unfortunately ; by ill
luck.—Things have fallen out so *unluckily*. *Shak.*
—An ant dropt *unluckily* into the water. *L'Estr.*
—A fox *unluckily* crossing the road. *Addison.*

* *UNLUCKY*. *adj.* 1. Unfortunate ; produ-
cing unhappiness. This word is generally used
of accidents slightly vexatious.—*Unlucky* accidents.
Boyle. 2. Unhappy ; miserable ; subject to fre-
quent misfortunes.—This *unlucky* eye. *Spenser.* 3.
Slightly mischievous ; mischievously wasteful.—
His doings *unluckie*, and ever unjust. *Tupper.*—An
unlucky wag. *L'Estrange.*—There was a lad, th'
unluckiest of his crew. *King.* 4. Ill-omen'd ; in-
auspicious.—And haunt me not with that *unlucky*
tag. *Dryden.*

* *UNLUSTROUS*. *adj.* Wanting splendour ;
wanting lustre.—Bare and *unlustrous* as the smooth
light. *Shak.*

* *To UNLUTE*. *v. a.* To separate vessels clo-
sed with chymical cement.—Upon the uniting
the vessels. *Boyle.*

* *UNMADE*. *adj.* 1. Not yet formed ; not
created.—Thou saw'st the secrets of the world
unmade. *Spenser.*—An *unmade* grave. *Shak.* 2.
Deprived of form or qualities.—The first earth
was perfectly *unmade* again. *Woodward.* 3. O-
mitted to be made.—That other works by nature
are *unmade*. *Blackmore.*

* *UNMAIMED*. *adj.* Not deprived of any
essential part.—An interpreter should give his in-
ter or entire and *unmaimed*. *Pope.*

* *UNMAKABLE*. *adj.* Not possible to be
made.—*Unmakable* by any but a divine power.
Crow's Cosmology.

* *To UNMAKE*. *v. a.* To deprive of former
qualities before possessed. To deprive of form or
being.—

They've made themselves, and their fitness now
Does *unmake* you. *Shak.*

—God does not make or *unmake* things, to try
experiments.

experiments. *Burnet*.—When such as these make a king. *Dryden*.—God, when he makes a prophet, does not *unmake* the man. *Locke*.

* **UNMAN.** *v. a.* 1. To deprive of the constituent qualities of a human being, as reason.—What, quite *unmann'd* in folly. *Shak*.—Gross errors *unman*, and strip them of the very principles of reason. *South*. 2. To emasculate. 3. To break into irrefolution; to deject.—*Unman* their courage, and augment their fears. *Dryden*.—Again *unmann'd*, a shower of sorrows shed. *Pope*.

* **UNMANAGEABLE.** *adj.* 1. Not manageable; not easily governed.—*Unmanageable* by any authority. *Glanville*.—None can be concluded *unmanageable*. *Locke*. 2. Not easily wiled.

* **UNMANAGED.** *adj.* 1. Not broken by horsemanship.—Like colts, or *unmanaged* horses. *Taylor*. 2. Not tutored; not educated.—An unguided force, and *unmanaged* virtue. *Felton*.

* **UNMANLIKE.** } *adj.* 1. Unbecoming a human. }
* **UNMANLY.** } man being.—It is strange to see the *unmanlike* cruelty of mankind. *Sidon*.—The act is *unmanly*. *Collier*. 2. Unsuitable to a man; effeminate.—It was a very *unmanlike* voice. *Sidon*.—New customs, though *unmanly*, yet are follow'd. *Shak*.—A poor *unmanly* melancholy. *Shak*.—*Unmanly*, ignominious, infamous. *Milton*.—*Unmanly* dread invades the French astoni'd. *Philips*.—*Unmanly* warmth, and tenderness of love. *Addison*.

* **UNMANNERED.** *adj.* Rude; brutal; uncivil.—*Unmanner'd* lord. *B. Jonson*.—Th' *unmanner'd* malefactor is arraign'd. *Dryden*.

* **UNMANNERLINESS.** *n. f.* Breach of civility; ill behaviour.—A sort of *unmannerliness* is apt to grow up with young people. *Locke*.

(1.) * **UNMANNERLY.** *adj.* Ill-bred; not civil; not complaisant.—I were *unmannerly* to take you out. *Shak*.—He call'd them untought knaves, *unmannerly*. *Shak*.—*Unmannerly* sadness. *Shak*.—Bare-face'd ribaldry is *unmannerly*. *Dryden*.—Au *unmannerly* jest. *Swift*.

(2.) * **UNMANNERLY.** *adv.* Uncivily.—If I have us'd myself *unmannerly*. *Shak*.

* **UNMANURED.** *adj.* Not cultivated.—*Unpeopl'd, unmanur'd, unprov'd, unprais'd*. *Spens*.

* **UNMARKED.** *adj.* Not observed; not regarded.—I got a time, *unmark'd* by any, to steal away. *Sidney*.—This place *unmark'd*, though oft I walk'd the green. *Dryden*.—He mix'd *unmark'd* among the busy throng. *Dryden*.—*Unmark'd*, unhonour'd at a monarch's gate. *Pope*.

* **UNMARRIED.** *adj.* Having no husband, or no wife.—*Unmarried* men are not always best subjects, for they are light to run away. *Bacon*.—Husbands and wives, boys and *unmarry'd* maids. *Dryd*.

(1.) * **TO UNMASK.** *v. a.* 1. To strip of a mask. 2. To strip of any disguise.—With full cups they had *unmask'd* his soul. *Recommon*.—Though in Greek or Latin they amuse us, yet a translation *unmasks* them. *Glanville*.

(2.) * **TO UNMASK.** *v. n.* To put off the mask.—My husband bids me; now I will *unmask*. *Shak*.

* **UNMASKED.** *adj.* Naked; open to the view.—My kindness and my hate *unmask'd* I wear. *Dryden*.

* **UNMASTERABLE.** *adj.* Unconquerable; not to be subdued.—The factor is *unmasterable* by the natural heat of man. *Brown*.

* **UNMASTERED.** *adj.* 1. Not subdued. 2. Not conquerable.—To his *unmaster'd* opportunity. *Shak*.—He cannot his *unmaster'd* grief sustain. *Dryden*.

* **UNMATCHABLE.** *adj.* Unparalleled; unequalled.—In an *unmatchable* degree of perfection. *Hooker*.—Their matiffs are of *unmatchable* courage. *Shak*.

* **UNMATCHED.** *adj.* Matchless; having no match or equal.—Navies *unmatch'd*, might to the world give law. *Dryd*.

* **UNMEANING.** *adj.* Expressing no meaning; having no meaning.—With round, *unmeaning* face. *Pope*.

* **UNMEANT.** *adj.* Not intended.—But Rhætus happen'd on a death *unmeant*. *Dryd*.

* **UNMEASURABLE.** *adj.* Boundless; unbounded.—Common mother! thou whose womb *unmeasurable*. *Shak*.—The *unmeasurable* profusion of ancestors. *Swift*.

* **UNMEASURED.** *adj.* 1. Immense; infinite.—Loft to the world, in vast, *unmeasur'd* space. *Blackm*. 2. Not measured; plentiful beyond measure.—From him all perfect good, *unmeasur'd* out, descends. *Milt*.

* **UNMEDITATED.** *adj.* Not formed by previous thought.—

In fit strains pronounc'd, or sung

Unmeditated. *Milton*.

* **UNMEDDLED with.** *adj.* Not touch'd; not altered.—The flood-gate is opened and closed for six days, continuing other ten days *unmeddled with*. *Carew*.

* **UNMEET.** *adj.* Not fit; not proper; not worthy.—Madam was young, *unmeet* the rule of sway. *Spens*.—I am *unmeet*. *Shak*.—At hours *unmeet*. *Shak*.—Vow, alack! for youth *unmeet*. *Shak*.—Its fellowship *unmeet* for thee. *Milt*.—That mute *unmeet*, yet touch'd the trembling string. *Prior*.

* **UNMELLOWED.** *adj.* Not fully ripened.—His head *unmellow'd*, but his judgment ripe. *Shak*.

* **UNMELTED.** *adj.* Undissolved by heat.—Snow on *Ætna* does *unmelted* lie. *Waller*.

* **UNMENTIONED.** *adj.* Not told; not named.—They left not any error *unmentioned* or unpressed. *Clar*.—*Unmention'd* and unmourn'd! *Southern*.

* **UNMERCHANTABLE.** *adj.* Unsaleable; not vendible.—They feed on salt, *unmerchantable* pilchard. *Carew*.

* **UNMERCIFUL.** *adj.* 1. Cruel; severe; inclement.—*Unmerciful* pride in the cage. *L'Estr*.—How cruel and *unmerciful* it is. *Locke*.—Unjust and *unmerciful*. *Rogers*. 2. Unconscionable; exorbitant.—*Unmerciful* demands were made of applause. *Pope*.

* **UNMERCIFULLY.** *adv.* Without mercy; without tenderness.—A little warm fellow fell most *unmercifully* upon his Gallick majesty. *Add*.

* **UNMERCIFULNESS.** *n. f.* Inclemency; cruelty; want of tenderness.—Left justice turn into *unmercifulness*. *Taylor*.

* **UNMERITABLE.**

* **UNMERITABLE.** *adj.* Having no desert. Not in use.—My desert *unmeritable*, shuns your high request. *Shak.*

* **UNMERITED.** *adj.* Not deserved; not obtained otherwise than by favour.—Favour *unmerited* by me. *Milt.*—A tottering pinnacle *unmerited* greatness is. *Gov. Tongue.*

* **UNMERITEDNESS.** *n. f.* State of being deserved.—The freeness or *unmeritedness* of God's love. *Boyle.*

* **UNMILKED.** *adj.* Not milked.—*Unmilk'd*, lay bleating in distrestful cries. *Pope.*

* **UNMINDED.** *adj.* Not heeded; not regarded.—A poor, *unminded* outlaw, sneaking home. *Shak.*—He after Eve seduc'd, *unminded*, flunk. *Milt.*

* **UNMINDFUL.** *adj.* Not heedful; not regardful; negligent; inattentive.—*Unmindful* of this law. *Spens.*—I am not *unmindful* of the things you would have me remember. *Boyle.*—Of flattering gales *unmindful*. *Milt.*—*Unmindful* of the crown that virtue gives. *Milt.*—He, not *unmindful* of his usual art. *Dryd.*—*Unmindful* of their party. *Swift.*

* **To UNMINGLE.** *v. a.* To separate things mixed.—It will *unmingle* the wine from the water. *Bacon.*

* **UNMINGLEABLE.** *adj.* Not susceptible of mixture. Not used.—The property of oil being *unmingleable* with water. *Boyle.*—The *unmingleable* liquors retain their distinct surfaces. *Boyle.*

* **UNMINGLED.** *adj.* Pure; not vitiated by any thing mingled.—And take *unmingled* thence your drop again. *Shak.*—Springs on high hills, are pure and *unmingled*. *Bac.*—His cup is full of pure and *unmingled* sorrow. *Taylor.*—Vessels of *unmingled* wine. *Pope.*

* **UNMIRY.** *adj.* Not fouled with dirt.—Pais, with safe, *unmiry* feet. *Gay.*

* **UNMITIGATED.** *adj.* Not softened.—*Unmitigated* rancour. *Shak.*

* **UNMIXED.** } *adj.* Not mingled with any
* **UNMIXT.** } thing; pure; not corrupted
by additions.—*Unmix'd* with baser matter. *Shak.*
—The new, *unmixed* otherwise than with some little asperion of the old. *Bac.*—With *unmix'd* joy, uninterrupted rest. *Roscom.*—The people's praise, if always praise *unmixt*? *Milt.*—*Unmixt* with foreign filth, and undefil'd. *Dryd.*—And this or that *unmixt* no mortal ear shall hind. *Pope.*

* **UNMOANED.** *adj.* Not lamented.—Fatherless distress was left *unmoan'd*. *Shak.*

* **UNMOIST.** *adj.* Not wet.—Volatile Hermetes, fluid and *unmoist*. *Pbil.*

* **UNMOISTENED.** *adj.* Not made wet.—If the body had been *unmoistened*. *Boyle.*

* **UNMOLESTED.** *adj.* Free from disturbance; free from external troubles.—Stood *unmolested* on the shelf. *Prior.*—*Unmolested* by hopes or fears. *Rogers.*—Safe on my shore each *unmolested* swain. *Pope.*

* **To UNMOOR.** *v. a.* 1. To loose from land, by taking up the anchors.—We with the rising morn our ships *unmoor'd*. *Pope.* 2. *Prior* seems to have taken it for casting anchor.—Soen as the British ships *unmoor*. *Prior.*

* **UNMORALIZED.** *adj.* Untutored by morality.—A dissolute and *unmoralized* temper. *Norr.*

* **UNMORTGAGED.** *adj.* Not mortgaged.—The least, *unmortgag'd* hope. *Dryd.*—There is scarce a single gabel *unmortgaged*. *Addis.*

* **UNMORTIFIED.** *adj.* Not subdued by sorrow and severities.—*Unmortified* sin. *Rogers.*

* **UNMOVEABLE.** *adj.* Such as cannot be removed or altered.—Precise and *unmoveable* boundaries. *Locke.*

* **UNMOVED.** *adj.* 1. Not put out of one place into another.—*Unmov'd* Ralls. *May's Virgil.*—*Unmov'd* he grows. *Dryd.*—Chefs-men, standing on the same squares say are all *unmoved*. *Lect.* 2. Not changed in resolution.—Among innumerable false *unmov'd*. *Milt.* 3. Not affected; not touched with any passion.—*Unmov'd*, superior still in ev'ry state. *Pope.* 4. Unaltered by passion.—I meant to meet my fate with face *unmoved*. *Dryd.*

* **UNMOVING.** *adj.* 1. Having no motion.—Unactive, *unmoving* heaps of matter. *Cheyne.* 2. Having no power to raise the passions; unaffected.

* **To UNMOULD.** *v. a.* To change as to the form.—*Unmoulding* reason's mintage. *Milt.*

* **UNMOURNED.** *adj.* Not lamented; not deplored.—Unmention'd and *unmourn'd*. *South.*

* **UNMUSICAL.** *adj.* Not harmonious; not pleasing by sound.—Let argument bear no *unmusical* sound. *B. Jon.*—*Unmusical* harmony of murmurs. *Decay of Piety.*

* **To UNMUFFLE.** *v. a.* To put off a covering from the face.—*Unmuffle*, ye faint stars. *Milt.*

* **To UNMUZZLE.** *v. a.* To loose from a muzzle.—Now *unmuzzle* your wisdom. *Shak.*—*Unmuzzl'd* thoughts. *Shak.*

(1.) **UNNA**, a province of Russia in Kostromskoe, *Maearief* is the capital.

(2.) **UNNA**, a river of European Turkey, which runs through Croatia, passes by Whitsch and Dubitz, and falls into the Save.

* **UNNAMED.** *adj.* Not mentioned.—*Unnam'd* in heav'n. *Milton.*

* **UNNATURAL.** *adj.* 1. Contrary to the laws of nature; contrary to the common instincts.—Offence—Of such *unnatural* degree. *Shak.*—An *unnatural* divorce between beings wife and good. *Glanv.*—'Tis irreverent and *unnatural*. *L'Estr.* 2. Acting without the affections implanted by nature.—

An *unnatural* dam,
Should now eat up her own. *Sboi.*
—To a son so noble, so *unnatural*. *Denham.* 3. Forced; not agreeable to the real state of persons or things; not representing nature.—Slithering trifles in a serious poem are nauseous, because they are *unnatural*. *Dryden.*—Thoughts affected and *unnatural*. *Addison.*

* **UNNATURALLY.** *adv.* In opposition to nature.—All the world have most *unnaturally* conspired to cozen themselves. *Tilioson.*

* **UNNATURALNESS.** *n. f.* Contrariety to nature.—The God of nature, doth never teach *unnaturalness*. *Sidney.*

* **UNNAVIGABLE.** *adj.* Not to be passed by vessels; not to be navigated.—Pindar's *unnavigable* song. *Cowsl.*—In that *unnavigable* stream were drown'd. *Dryd.*—Down spreading fate's *unnavigable* tide. *Prior.*—The Indian seas were believ'd to be *unnavigable*. *Arbut.*

* **UNNE-**

* **UNNECESSARILY.** *adv.* Without necessity; without need; needlessly.—To alter *unnecessarily*. *Hooker*.—'Tis imprudent *unnecessarily* to provoke the meanest of men. *L'Estr.*—These words come in *unnecessarily*. *Broome*.

* **UNNECESSARINESS.** *n. f.* Needlessness.—The desperation or *unnecessariness* of an undertaking. *Decay of Piety*.

* **UNNECESSARY.** *adj.* Needless; not wanted; useless.—The doing of things *unnecessary*. *Hook.*—Thou whoreson zed; thou unnecessary letter. *Shak.*—Let brave spirits, not be laid by, as persons *unnecessary* for the time. *Bac.*—Lay that *unnecessary* fear aside. *Dryd.*—*Unnecessary* coinage. *Dryd.*—*Unnecessary* to bear their religion through such fiery trials. *Addis.*

(1.) * **UNNEIGHBOURLY.** *adj.* Not kind; not suitable to the duties of a neighbour.—*Unneighbourly* deportment. *Garth*.

(2.) * **UNNEIGHBOURLY.** *adv.* In a manner not suitable to a neighbour; with malevolence; with mutual mischief.—And not to spend it so *unneighbourly*. *Shak.*

* **UNNERVATE.** *adj.* Weak; feeble. A bad word.—Abje&t, *unnervate*, and unharmonious. *Broome*.

* **TO UNNERVE.** *v. a.* To weaken; to enfeeble.—They weaken and *unnerve* his verse. *Addison*.

* **UNNERVED.** *adj.* Weak; feeble.—Th' *unnerv'd* father falls. *Shak.*

* **UNNETH.** } *adv.* [This is from *un* and
* **UNETHES.** } *each*, Saxon, *easy*; and ought
therefore to be written *uneth*.] Scarcely; hardly; not without difficulty. Obsolete.—

Diggon, I am so stiff and stanke,
That *unneth* I may stand any more. *Spenser*.
So fainte they waxe, and feeble in the fold,
That now *unnethes* their feet could 'em uphold. *Spenser*.

* **UNNOBLE.** *adj.* Mean; ignominious; ignoble.—A most *un noble* swerving. *Shak.*

* **UNNOTED.** *adj.* 1. Not observed; not regarded; not heeded.—'Till their own scorn return to them *unnoted*. *Shak.*—Where the free guest *unnoted* might relate. *Pope*. 2. Not honoured.—Unwept, *unnoted*, and for ever dead. *Pope*.

* **UNNUMBERED.** *adj.* Innumerable.—The skies are painted with *unnumber'd* sparks. *Shak.*—*Unnumbered* cares and passions. *Ral.*—Of various forms, *unnumber'd* spectres. *Dryd.*—Stars *unnumber'd*. *Prior*.

* **UNOBEYED.** *adj.* Not obeyed.—Unworshipp'd, *unobey'd*, the throne supreme. *Milt.*

* **UNOBJECTED.** *adj.* Not charged as a fault, or contrary argument.—What will he leave *unobjected* to Luther. *Atterb.*

* **UNOBNOXIOUS.** *adj.* Not liable; not exposed to any hurt.—So *unobnoxious* now, she hath buried both. *Donne*.—Unwearied, *unobnoxious* to be pain'd. *Milt.*

* **UNOBSEQUIOUSNESS.** *n. f.* Incompliance; disobedience.—They misname all *unobsequiousness* to their incogitancy, presumption. *Brown*.

* **UNOBSERVABLE.** *adj.* Not to be observed; not discoverable.—*Unobservable* images. *Boyle*.

* **UNOBSERVANT.** *adj.* 1. Not observant.

2. Not attentive.—The *unobservant* multitude. *Glanville*.

* **UNOBSERVED.** *adj.* Not regarded; not attended to; not heeded; not minded.—Motion, *unobserved*. *Bacon*.—He, *unobserv'd*.—Home to his mother's house private return'd. *Milt.*—Any *unobserved* star, some divine prognostick. *Glanv.*—And *unobserv'd*, in wild meanders play'd. *Addis.*—It might have pass'd *unobserv'd*. *Atterb.*

* **UNOBSERVING.** *adj.* Inattentive; not heedful.—*Unobserving* critics. *Dryd.*

* **UNOBSERVED.** *adj.* Not hindered; not stopped.—*Unobstructed* matter flies away. *Blackm.*

* **UNOBSSTRUCTIVE.** *adj.* Not raising any obstacle.—Not forward run in *unobstructive* sky? *Blackmore*.

* **UNOBTAINED.** *adj.* Not gained; not acquired.—The end, as yet *unobtain'd*. *Hooker*.

* **UNOBVIOUS.** *adj.* Not readily occurring.—The *unobvious* colour of copper. *Boyle*.

* **UNOCCUPIED.** *adj.* Unpossessed.—All that tract is not vain, useless, or *unoccupied*. *Ray*.—*Unoccupied* by external impressions. *Grew*.

* **UNOFFENDING.** *adj.* 1. Harmless; innocent.—Thy *unoffending* life I could not save. *Dryd.* 2. Sinless; pure from fault. *Dryden*.—Moly, and *unoffending* spirits. *Rogers*.

* **UNOFFERED.** *adj.* Not proposed to acceptance.—Nothing left *unoffered* or undone. *Clarendon*.

* **TO UNOIL.** *v. a.* To free from oil.—Guesses his meaning, and *unails* the flask. *Dryden*.

* **UNONA.** in botany, a genus of plants, in the class of *Polyandria*, and order of *Polygynia*.

* **UNOPENING.** *adj.* Not opening.—Curse the fav'd candle, and *unopening* door. *Pope*.

* **UNOPERATIVE.** *adj.* Producing no effects.—*Unoperative* complacency. *South*.

* **UNOPPOSED.** *adj.* Not encountered by any hostility or obstruction.—

Thy hope was to have reach'd
The height of thy aspiring *unoppos'd*. *Milton*.
—As armies, *unoppos'd*, for prey divide. *Dryd.*—But *unoppos'd* they lose their force. *Dryd.*

* **UNORDERLY.** *adj.* Disordered; irregular.—Distraction, and *unorderly* confusion. *Sanderfon*.

* **UNORDINARY.** *adj.* Uncommon; unusual. Not used.—An *unordinary* shape. *Locke*.

* **UNORGANIZED.** *adj.* Having no parts instrumental to the nourishment of the rest.—An *unorganized* fluid. *Grew*.

* **UNORIGINAL.** } *adj.* Having no birth;
* **UNORIGINATED.** } ungenerated.—Of *unoriginal* night, and chaos wild. *Milton*.—God is undervied, *unoriginated*, and self-existent. *Steph*.

* **UNORTHODOX.** *adj.* Not holding pure doctrine.—He was sure to be *unorthodox*, that was worth the plundering. *Decay of Piety*.

* **UNOWED.** *adj.* Having no owner.—The *unowned* interest of proud, swelling state. *Shak*.

* **UNOWNED.** *adj.* 1. Having no owner. 2. Not acknowledged; not claimed.—Our *unowned* sister. *Milt.*—O happy, *unown'd* youths. *Gay*.

* **TO UNPACK.** *v. a.* 1. To disburden; to exonerate.—I like a whore, *unpack* my heart with words. *Shak*. 2. To open any thing bound together.—*Unpacked* the glasses. *Boyle*.

* **UNPACKED.**

* **UNPACKED.** *adj.* Not collected by unlawful artifices.—Justice, and an *unpack'd* jury. *Hud.*

* **UNPAID.** *adv.* 1. Not discharged.—Receive from us knee tribute not *unpaid*. *Milton*.—Nor hecatomb slain, nor vows *unpaid*. *Dryden*.—Thy fate unpay'd, and thy rites *unpaid*. *Pope*. 2. Not receiving dues or debts.—Tradesmen *unpaid*. *Coll.*—That fruit, an *unpaid* taylor snatch'd away. *Pope*. 3. **UNPAID** *for*. That for which the price is not yet given; taken on trust.—Prouder, than rustling in *unpaid* for silk. *Shak.*

* **UNPAINED.** *adj.* Suffering no pain.—Against *unpain'd*, impassive. *Milton*.

* **UNPAINFUL.** *adj.* Giving no pain.—An easy and *unpainful* touch. *Locke*.

* **UNPALATABLE.** *adj.* Nauseous; disgusting.—The prickles of *unpalatable* law. *Dryden*.—*Unpalatable* physick. *Collier*.

* **UNPARAGONED.** *adj.* Unequalled; unmatched.—Your *unparagon'd* mistress. *Shak.*

* **UNPARALLELED.** *adj.* Not matched; not to be matched; having no equal.—His fame, *unparalleled*. *Shak.*—A deity so *unparallel'd*. *Milt.*—*Unparalleled* fidelity. *Addison*.—O fact *unparallel'd*. *Philips*.

* **UNPARDONABLE.** *adj.* [*impardonable*, Fr.] Irremissible.—An *unpardonable* offence. *Hooker*.—Oh, tis a fault too *unpardonable*. *Shak.*—The kinder the master, the more *unpardonable* is the traitor. *L'Estrange*.—Consider how *unpardonable* the refusal of so much grace must render us. *Rogers*.

* **UNPARDONABLY.** *adv.* Beyond forgiveness.—*Unpardonably* wicked. *Atterbury*.

* **UNPARDONED.** *adj.* 1. Not forgiven.—*Unpardon'd* sins. *Rogers*. 2. Not discharged; cancelled by a legal pardon.—Returning into England *unpardoned*. *Raleigh*.

* **UNPARDONING.** *adj.* Not forgiving.—Curse on th' *unpard'ning* prince. *Dryden*.

* **UNPARLIAMENTARINESS.** *n. f.* Contrariety to the usage or constitution of parliament.—The *unparliamentariness* of their remonstrance. *Clarendon*.

* **UNPARLIAMENTARY.** *adj.* Contrary to the rules of parliament.—That *unparliamentary* abuse. *Swift*.

* **UNPARTED.** *adj.* Undivided; not separated.—Becomes mix'd blackness, or *unparted* light. *Prior*.

* **UNPARTIAL.** *adj.* Equal; honest. Not in use.—A serious and *unpartial* examination. *Sanderfon*.

UNPARTIALITY. See **IMPARTIALITY**.

* **UNPARTIALLY.** *adv.* Equally; indifferently.—Sift *unpartially* your own hearts. *Hooker*.

* **UNPASSABLE.** *adj.* 1. Admitting no passage.—*Unpassable* for men. *Ezber*, xvi. 24.—They are vast and *unpassable* mountains. *Temple*.—An *unpassable* barrier. *Watts*. 2. Not current; not suffered to pass.—Making a new standard for money, must make all money which is lighter than that standard, *unpassable*. *Locke*.

* **UNPASSIONATE.** } *adj.* Free from pas-

* **UNPASSIONATED.** } sion; calm; impartial.—*Unpassionate* men. *Wotton*.—*Unpassionated* reason. *Glantz*.—*Unpassionate* words. *Locke*.

* **UNPASSIONATELY.** *adv.* Without passion.—*Unpassionately* to see the light of red K. Charles.

* **UNPATHED.** *adj.* Untraced; unmade by passage.—*Unpath'd* waters. *Shak.*

* **UNPAWNED.** *adj.* Not given to pledge.—Where yet, *unpaw'n'd*, much learned lay. *Pope*.

* **TO UNPAY.** *v. a.* To undo. A low and crouous word.—*Unpay* the villany you have done her. *Shak.*

* **UNPEACEABLE.** *adj.* Quarrelsome; inclined to disturb the tranquillity of others.—*peaceable*, rebellious, cruel spirits. *Hammond*.—*peaceable* and troublesome to the world. *Talbot*.

* **TO UNPEG.** *v. a.* To open any thing closed with a peg.—*Unpeg* the basket on the top. *Shak.*

* **UNPENSIONED.** *adj.* Not kept in dependence by a pension.—Unplac'd, *unpension'd*, man's heir or slave! *Pope*.

* **TO UNPEOPLE.** *v. a.* To depopulate; deprive of inhabitants.—*Unpeopl'd*, *unpeopled*. *Spenser*.—Shall war *unpeople* this my realm? *Sh.*—Now *unpeopl'd* and untrod. *Milton*.—*Unpeopl'd* place. *Dryden*.—*Unpeople* the commonwealth. *Addison*.

* **UNPERCEIVED.** *adj.* Not observed; heeded; not sensibly discovered; not known.—The ashes, wind *unperceived* shakes off. *Bacon*.—Not *unperceiv'd* of Adam. *Milton*.—*Unperceived* decay. *Dryden*.—*Unperceiv'd* the heav'n's with us were hung. *Dryden*.—While summer suns roll *perceiv'd* away. *Pope*.

* **UNPERCEIVEDLY.** *adv.* So as not to be perceived.—*Unperceivedly*, associated themselves. *Boyle*.

* **UNPERFECT.** *adj.* [*imparfait*, Fr. *imperfectus*, Lat.] Incomplete.—Left *imperfect* in *Cam* Peacham.

UNPERFECTION. See **IMPERFECTION**.

* **UNPERFECTNESS.** *n. f.* Imperfection; completeness.—The *unperfectness* of Ennius and Plautus. *Ascham*.

* **UNPERFORMED.** *adj.* Undone; not done.—An *unperformed* promise. *Taylor*.

* **UNPERISHABLE.** *adj.* Lasting to perpetuity; exempt from decay.—Everlasting *unperishable* felicities. *Hammond*.

* **UNPERJURED.** *adj.* Free from perjury.—Thou can'st not die *unperjur'd*. *Dryd.*

* **UNPERPLEXED.** *adj.* Disentangled; not embarrassed.—Simple, *unperplexed* propolis. *Locke*.

* **UNPERSPIRABLE.** *adj.* Not to be emitted through the pores of the skin.—Bile is the *unperspirable* of animal fluids. *Arbut.*

* **UNPERSUADABLE.** *adj.* Inexorable; not to be persuaded.—*Unpersuadable* melancholy. *Sidney*.

* **UNPETRIFIED.** *adj.* Not turned to stone.—Some parts remain *unpetrify'd*. *Brown*.

* **UNPHILOSOPHICAL.** *adj.* Unfuitable the rules of philosophy, or right reason.—The conceptions are *unphilosophical*. *Collier*.—It is *unphilosophical* to seek for any other origin of the world. *Newton*.

* **UNP**

UNPHILOSOPHICALLY. *adv.* In a manner contrary to the rules of right reason.—They discourse most *unphilosophically*. *South.*

* **UNPHILOSOPHICALNESS.** *n. f.* Incongruity with philosophy.—The *unphilosophicalness* of their hypothesis. *Norris.*

* **TO UNPHILOSOPHIZE.** *v. a.* To degrade from the character of a philosopher. A word made by *Pope*.—Our passions, our interests flow in upon us, and *unphilosophize* us into mere mortals. *Pope.*

* **UNPIERCED.** *adj.* Not penetrated; not pierc'd.—Th' *unpierc'd* shade imbrown'd the noontide bow'rs. *Milton.*

True Witney broad cloth with its shag unshorn,

Unpierc'd, is in the lasting tempest worn. *Gay.*

* **UNPILLARED.** *adj.* Deprived of pillars.—See the cirque falls! the *unpillar'd* temple nods! *Pope.*

* **UNPILLOWED.** *adj.* Wanting a pillow.—Leans her *unpillow'd* head, fraught with sad fears. *Milton.*

* **TO UNPIN.** *v. a.* To open what is shut, or fastened with a pin.—Pr'ythee *unpin* me. *Shak.*—*Unpin* that spangled breakfast which you wear. *Donne*.—Whom force not fawning can *unpin*. *Herbert.*

* **UNPINKED.** *adj.* Not marked with eyelet holes.—Gabriel's pumps were all *unpink'd* i' th' heel. *Shak.*

* **UNPITIED.** *adj.* Not compassionate; not regarded with sympathetical sorrow.—His piteous and *unpitied* end. *Shak.*—May he live long scorn'd, and *unpitied* fall. *Bp. Corbet.*—Abfurd, *unpity'd* grows a public jest. *Rose.*—He shall most certainly fall *unpitied* in his adversity. *L'Estr.*—*Unpitied* be depos'd; and after live. *Dryden.*—Alike unheard, *unpity'd*, and forlorn. *Pope.*—Passion *unpity'd*, and successful love. *Addison.*

* **UNPITIFULLY.** *adv.* Unmercifully; without mercy.—He beat him most *unpitifully*. *Shak.*

* **UNPITYING.** *adj.* Having no compassion.—Lead on, *unpitying* guides, behold your slave. *Granville.*

* **UNPLACED.** *adj.* Having no place of dependence.—*Unplac'd*, unpension'd? *Pope.*

* **UNPLAGUED.** *adj.* Not tormented.—*Unplagu'd* with corns. *Shak.*

* **UNPLANTED.** *adj.* Not planted; spontaneous. Figs there *unplanted*, through the fields do grow. *Waller.*

* **UNPLAUSIBLE.** *adj.* Not plausible; not such as has a fair appearance.—Unpopular and *unplausible* reasons. *Clar.*—Baited with reasons not *unplausible*. *Milton.*

* **UNPLAUSIVE.** *adj.* Not approving.—*Unplausive* eyes. *Shak.*

* **UNPLEASANT.** *adj.* Not delighting; troublesome; uneasy.—*Unpleasant* discords. *Hook.*—Here are a few of the *unpleasant*'s words. *Shak.*—Wisdom is very *unpleasant* to the unlearned. *Ecclus. v.*—Barren and *unpleasant*. *Woodw.*

* **UNPLEASANTLY.** *adv.* Not delightfully; uneasily.—Yet we don't live *unpleasantly*. *Pope.*

* **UNPLEASANTNESS.** *n. f.* Want of qualities to give delight.—*Unpleasantness* of sound.—

Hooker.—The *unpleasantness* of the air of London. *Graunt.*—The *unpleasantness* of such company. *Gov. Tonque.*

* **UNPLEASED.** *adj.* Not pleased; not delighted.—My *unpleas'd* eye. *Shakesp.*—A savage prince, *unpleas'd*, though absolute. *Dryd.*

* **UNPLEASING.** *adj.* Offensive; disgusting; giving no delight.—How dares thy tongue sound this *unpleasing* news? *Shak.*—So *unpleasing* and so unsuccessful. *Milt.*—Things more regularly true, but withal very *unpleasing*. *Dryden.*—Howe'er *unpleasing* be the news you bring. *Dryd.*

* **UNPLAINT.** *adj.* Not easily bent; not conforming to the will.—The chief working up-
os to *unpliant* stuff. *Wotton.*

* **UNPLOWED.** *adj.* Not plowed.—Good sound land, that hath lain long *unplow'd*. *Mort.*

* **TO UNPLUME.** *adj.* To strip of plumes; to degrade.—We shall find enough to *unplume* dogmatizing. *Glanv.*

* **UNPOETICAL.** } *adj.* Not such as be-

* **UNPOETICK.** } comes a poet.—Bite off your *unpoetick* nails. *Bp. Corb.*

* **UNPOLISHED.** *adj.* 1. Not smoothed; not brightened by attrition.—Some part of the materials *unpolished*. *Watt.*—*Unpolish'd* stones. *Still.* 2. Not civilized; not refined.—*Unpolish'd* men their wild retreats forsake. *Wall.*—Those first *unpolish'd* matrons, big and bold. *Dryden.*

* **UNPOLITE.** *adj.* [*impoli*, Fr. *impolitus*, Lat.] Not elegant; not refined; not civil.—*Unpolite*, or unfashionable. *Watts.*

* **UNPOLLUTED.** *adj.* [*impollutus*, Lat.] Not corrupted; not defiled.—And from her fair and *unpolluted* flesh. *Shak.*—The *unpolluted* temple of the mind. *Milton.*—Though *unpolluted* yet with actual ill. *Dryden.*

* **UNPOPULAR.** *adj.* Not fitted to please the people.—Ridiculous and *unpopular*. *Addis.*

* **UNPORTABLE.** *adj.* [*un* and *portable*.] Not to be carried.—Had they had any great length, they had been *unportable*. *Raleigh.*

* **UNPOSSESSED.** *adj.* Not had; not held; not enjoyed.—Is the king dead? the empire *unpossest*'d? *Shak.*—Such vast room in nature *unpossest*'d. *Milton.*—The cruel something *unpossest*'d. *Prior.*

* **UNPOSSESSING.** *adj.* Having no possession.—Thou *unpossessing* bastard. *Shak.*

* **UNPRACTICABLE.** *adj.* Not feasible.—In that place and time *unpracticable*. *Boyle.*

* **UNPRACTISED.** *adj.* 1. Not skilful by use and experience; raw; being in the state of a novice.—An unlesion'd girl, unlesion'd, *unpractis'd*. *Shak.*—*Unpractis'd*, unprepar'd, and still to seek. *Milton.*—The fool of love, *unpractis'd* to persuade. *Dryden.* 2. Not known; or not familiar by use.—Wounded, and flying from *unpractis'd* day. *Prior.*

* **UNPRAISED.** *adj.* Not celebrated; not praised.—Unpeopled; unmanur'd, unprov'd, *unprais'd*. *Spenser.*—The deed becomes *unprais'd*. *Milton.*—Nor pats *unprais'd* the vest and veil divine. *Dryden.*

* **UNPRECARIOUS.** *adj.* Not dependant on another.—*Unprecarius* light. *Blackm.*

* **UNPRECEDENTED.** *adj.* Not justifiable

by any example.—This *unprecedented* proceeding. *Swift.*

* *UNPREDICT.* *v. a.* To retract prediction.—Thou say'st prediction else will *unpredict*. *Milton.*

* *UNPREFERRED.* *adj.* Not advanced.—While he is young, or *unpreferred*. *Collier.*

* *UNPREGNANT.* *adj.* Not prolific; not quick of wit.—

This deed unshapes me quite, makes me *unpregnant*,
And dull to all proceeding. *Shak.*

* *UNPREJUDICATE.* *adj.* Not prepossessed by any settled notions.—*Unprejudicate* understanding. *Taylor.*

* *UNPREJUDICED.* *adj.* Free from prejudice; free from prepossession; not pre-occupied by opinion; void of preconceived notions.—Any *unprejudiced* and reasonable man. *Tillot.*—*Unprejudiced* minds. *Addis.*

* *UNPRELATICAL.* *adj.* Unsuitable to a prelate.—By such *unprelatical*, ignominious arguments. *Clar.*

* *UNPREMEDITATED.* *adj.* Not prepared in the mind before hand.—I will answer *unpremeditated*. *Shak.*—My *unpremeditated* vertic. *Milt.*—*Unpremeditated* harangues. *Addis.*

* *UNPREPARED.* *adj.* 1. Not fitted by previous measures.—Unpractis'd, *unprepar'd*, and still to seek. *Milton.*—To come *unprepar'd* before him. *Duppa.*—For, unforeseen, they say, is *unprepar'd*. *Dryd.* 2. Not made fit for the dreadful moment of departure.—I would not kill thy *unprepared* spirit. *Shak.*—My *unprepar'd*, and unrepenting breath. *Rosce.*

* *UNPREPAREDNESS.* *n. s.* State of being unprepared.—My innocence and *unpreparedness*. *K. Charles.*

* *UNPREPOSSESSED.* *adj.* Not prepossessed; not pre-occupied by notions.—The *unpreposessed* on the one hand, and the well-disposed on the other. *South.*—It finds the mind naked, and *unpreposessed* with any former notions. *South.*

* *UNPRESSED.* *adj.* 1. Not pressed.—Have I my pillow left *unpress'd* in Rome? *Shak.*—In these soft shades, *unpress'd* by human feet. *Tickel.* 2. Not enforced.—They left not any error in government unmentioned, or *unpress'd*. *Clar.*

* *UNPRETENDING.* *adj.* Not claiming any distinctions.—The honest and *unpretending* part of mankind. *Pope.*

* *UNPREVAILING.* *adj.* Being of no force.—Throw to earth this *unprevailing* woe. *Shak.*

* *UNPREVENTED.* *adj.* 1. Not previously hindered.—

A pack of sorrows, which would press you down,

If *unprevented*, to your timeless grave. *Shak.* 2. Not preceded by any thing.—Thy grace comes *unprevented*. *Milt.*

* *UNPRINCELY.* *adj.* Unsuitable to a prince.—So *unprincely* an inconstancy. *K. Ch.*

* *UNPRINCIPLED.* *adj.* Not settled in tenets or opinions.—So *unprincipled* in virtue's book. *Milt.*—Souls *unprincipled* in virtue. *Milton.*

* *UNPRINTED.* *adj.* Not printed.—These that are yet *unprinted*. *Pope.*

* *UNPRISABLE.* *adj.* Not valued; not of

estimation.—For shallow draught and bulk *unprisable*. *Shak.*

* *UNPRISONED.* *adj.* Set free from confinement.—Themselves *unprison'd* were, and putty'd. *Downe.*

* *UNPRIZED.* *adj.* Not valued.—This *unpriz'd*, precious maid. *Shak.*

* *UNPROCLAIMED.* *adj.* Not notified by a public declaration.—War *unproclaim'd*. *Milt.*

* *UNPROFANED.* *adj.* Not violated.—Us spoil'd shall be her arms, and *unprofan'd*. *Dryd.*

* *UNPROFITABLE.* *adj.* Useless; serving no purpose.—The church eased of *unprofitable* labours. *Hook.*—Should he reason with *unprofitable* talk? *Job.*—My son Onesimus I have begotten in my bonds; which in time past was to thee *unprofitable*. *Philemon.*—The coarsest and *unprofitable* juice. *Bac.*—An *unprofitable* and unglorious life. *L'Estr.*—Sit brooding on *unprofitable* gold. *Dryd.*—For plotting an *unprofitable* crime. *Dryd.*—Ok and *unprofitable* to the plough. *Dryd.*—And then pour'd out th' *unprofitable* flood. *Dryd.*

* *UNPROFITABLENESS.* *n. s.* Uselessness.—The *unprofitableness* of your science. *Add.*

* *UNPROFITABLY.* *adv.* Uselessly; without advantage.—I should not now *unprofitably* spend Ben Jonson. In Roman blood *unprofitably* shed. *Addison.*

* *UNPROFITED.* *adj.* Having no gain.—Rather than make *unprofit* return. *Shak.*

* *UNPROLIFICK.* *adj.* Barren; not productive.—Great rains drown many insects, and render their eggs *unprolific*. *Hale.*

* *UNPROMISING.* *adj.* Giving no promise of excellence; having no appearance of value.—This *unpromising* disposition. *Locke.*—An attempt difficult and *unpromising* of success. *Bent.*

* *UNPRONOUNCED.* *adj.* Not uttered not spoken.—

Mad'st imperfect words, with childish tripe
Unpronounc'd, slide through my infant lips. *Milton.*

* *UNPROPER.* *adj.* 1. Not peculiar.—Millions nightly lie in those *unproper* beds. *Shak.* 2. Unfit; not right.

* *UNPROPERLY.* *adv.* Contrarily to propriety; improperly.—

I kneel before thee, and *unproperly*
Shew duty as mistaken all the while
Between the child and parent. *Shak.*

* *UNPROFITIOUS.* *adj.* Not favourable inauspicious.—'Twas then the dog-star's *unprofitous* ray. *Pope.*

* *UNPROPORTIONED.* *adj.* Not suited to something else.—Nor any *unproportion'd* thought his act. *Shak.*

* *UNPROPOSED.* *adj.* Not proposed.—This means are *unpropos'd*. *Dryd.*

* *UNPROPPED.* *adj.* Not supported; not upheld.—With languish'd head *unpropp'd*. *Milt.*—Thy bulk, *unpropp'd*, falls headlong on the plain. *Dryd.*

* *UNPROSPEROUS.* *adj.* [improsper, Latine.] Unfortunate; not prosperous.—*Unprosperous* and unsuccessful to the king. *Clar.*—Nought *unprosperous* shall thy ways attend. *Pope.*

* *UNPROSPEROUSLY.* *adv.* Unsuccessfully.—When a prince fights justly, and yet *unprosperously*. *Taylor.*

* *UNPROTECTED*

* **UNPROTECTED.** *adj.* Not protected; not supported; not defended.—*Unprotected* from above, endure. *Hooker.*

* **UNPROVED.** *adj.* 1. Not tried; not known by trial.—*Unproven*’d, unmanur’d, *unprov’d*, unrais’d. *Spenser.*—There I found a fresh *unproved* night. *Spenser.* 2. Not evinced by argument.—There is much left *unproved*. *Boyle.*

* **To UNPROVIDE.** *v. a.* To divest of resolution or qualifications; to unfurnish.—I’ll not expostulate with her, lest

Her beauty *unprovide* my mind again. *Shak.*
—With various arts to *unprovide* my mind. *South.*

* **UNPROVIDED.** *adj.* 1. Not secured or qualified by previous measures.—I am heinously *unprovided*. *Shak.*—My *unprovided* body. *Shak.*—But *unprovided* for a sudden blow. *Dryd.* 2. Not furnished; not previously supplied.—Those *unprovided* of tackling and victual, are forced to sea. *K. Charles.*—The seditious being in all things *unprovided*, were slain like beasts. *Hayward.*—Th’ *unprovided* town to take. *Dryden.*—Utterly *unprovided* of all other abilities. *Spratt.*—Courts are seldom *unprovided* of persons under this character. *Swift.*

* **UNPROVOKED.** *adj.* Not provoked.—The teaming earth, yet guiltless of the plough, And *unprovok’d*, did fruitless stores allow. *Dryd.*—A rebellion so destructive, and so *unprovoked*. *Addison.*

* **UNPROVOKING.** *adj.* Giving no offence.—I stabbed him a stranger, *unprovoking*, inoffensive. *Fleetw.*

* **UNPRUNED.** *adj.* Not cut; not lopped.—The whole land is full of weeds;

Her fruit trees all *unprun’d*. *Shak.*

* **UNPUBLISH.** *adj.* Private; not generally known, or seen.—Virgins must be retired and *unpublish*. *Taylor.*

* **UNPUBLISHED.** *adj.* 1. Secret; unknown.—All you *unpublish’d* virtues of the earth. *Shak.* 2. Not given to the publick.—Apply your care wholly to those which are *unpublish’d*. *Pope.*

* **UNPUNISHED.** *adj.* [impunis, Fr.] Not punished; suffered to continue in impunity.—In one sin thou shalt not be *unpunished*. *Ecclesi.*—Divine justice will not let oppression go *unpunish’d* hence. *L’Estr.*—The vent’rous victor, march’d *unpunish’d* hence. *Dryden.*

* **UNPURCHASED.** *adj.* Unbought.—*Unpurchased*’d plenty our full tables loads. *Denham.*

* **UNPURGED.** *adj.* Not purged; unpurified.—To tempt the rheumy and *unpurged* air. *Shak.*—In her village round those spots, *unpurg’d*. *Milton.*

* **UNPURIFIED.** *adj.* 1. Not freed from recrement. 2. Not cleansed from sin.—Our sinful nation *unpurified*. *Decay of Piety.*

* **UNPURPOSED.** *adj.* Not designed; not intentional.—Accidents *unpurpos’d*. *Shak.*

* **UNPURSUED.** *adj.* Not pursued.—All night the dreadful angel *unpursued*. *Milt.*

* **UNPUTRIED.** *adj.* Not corrupted by rottenness.—Meat and drink last longer *unputrid* in winter than in summer. *Bacon.*—No animal *unputrid*, being burnt, yields any alkaline salt. *Arbutnot.*

* **UNQUALIFIED.** *adj.* Not fit.—*Unqualified* for these agonies. *Decay of Piety.*—All the writers against Christianity have been wholly *unqualified* to propagate heresies. *Swift.*—Tories are as much *unqualified* for the smallest offices. *Swift.*

* **To UNQUALIFY.** *v. a.* To disqualify; to divest of qualification.—To *unqualify* a woman for an evening walk. *Addison.*—Our private misfortunes may *unqualify* us for charity. *Atterb.*—Deafness *unqualifies* me for all company. *Swift.*

* **UNQUARRELLABLE.** *adj.* Such as cannot be impugned.—Satisfactory and *unquarrellable* reasons. *Brown.*

* **To UNQUEEN.** *v. a.* To divest of the dignity of queen.—

Embalm me;
Then lay me forth; although *unqueen’d*, yet like
A queen, and daughter to a king, inter me. *Shak.*

* **UNQUENCHABLE.** *adj.* Unextinguishable.—We represent wildfires burning in water and *unquenchable*. *Bacon.*

The people on their holidays,
Impetuous, insolent, *unquenchable*. *Milt.*
—The criminal’s penitence may have numbered him among the saints, when our unretracted uncharitableness may send us to *unquenchable* flames. *Gov. of Tong.*—Our love of God, our *unquenchable* desires to promote our well-grounded hopes to enjoy his glory, should take the chief place in our zeal. *Spratt.*

* **UNQUENCHABLENESS.** *n. f.* Unextinguishableness.—I was amaz’d to see the *unquenchableness* of this fire. *Hakewill.*

* **UNQUENCHED.** *adj.* 1. Not extinguished.—We have heats of dungs, and of lime *unquenched*. *Bac.* 2. Not extinguishable.—*Unquenched* thirst. *Arbutnot.*

* **UNQUESTIONABLE.** *adj.* 1. Indubitable; not to be doubted.—The duke was of *unquestionable* courage in himself, and rather fearful of fame than danger. *Wotton.*—Interest hath no place in those *unquestionable* verities. *Glanv.*—There is an *unquestionable* magnificence in every part of Paradise Lost. *Addison.* 2. Such as cannot bear to be questioned without impatience: this seems to be the meaning here.—

What were his marks?—
—A lean cheek, which you have not; an *unquestionable* spirit, which you have not. *Shak.*

* **UNQUESTIONABLY.** *adv.* Indubitably; without doubt.—The fathers were *unquestionably* of the household of faith. *Spratt.*—St Austin was *unquestionably* a man of parts, but interposing in a controversy where his talent did not lie, threw his zeal against the antipodes to very ill purpose. *Burnet.*

* **UNQUESTIONED.** *adj.* 1. Not doubted; passed without doubt.—Other relations in good authors have not been *unquestioned* by some. *Brown.* 2. Indisputable; not to be opposed.—

And their *unquestion’d* pleasures must be serv’d,
B. Jonf.

3. Not interrogated; not examined.—
She mutt’ring pray’rs as holy rites she meant,
Through the divided crowd *unquestion’d* went.
Dryden.

Titts • **UNQUICK.**

- * **UNQUICK.** *adj.* Motionless; not alive.—
His senses droop, his steady eyes *unquick*.
Dan.
- * **UNQUICKENED.** *adj.* Not animated; not ripened to vitality.—

A num'rous, but *unquicken'd* progeny,
Clasp'd and enwrap'd within each other lie.

Blackmore.

- * **UNQUIET.** *adj.* [*inquiet*, Fr. *inquietus*, Lat.]
1. Moved with perpetual agitation; not calm; not still.—They are tossed and turmoiled in fathomless and *unquiet* depths of controversy. *Milt.*
2. Disturbed; full of perturbation; not at peace.—
Never shall you lie by Portia's side
With an *unquiet* soul. *Shak.*

What thoughts in my *unquiet* breast are ris'n!
Milton.

3. Reflex; unsatisfied.—

A vain, *unquiet*, glitt'ring, wretched thing.

Pope.

—Mirth from company is but a fluttering, *unquiet* motion. *Pope.*

- * **UNQUIETLY.** *adv.* Without rest.—

Who's there besides the weather?—

—One minded like the weather, most

Unquietly.

Shak.

- * **UNQUIETNESS.** *n. f.* 1. Want of tranquillity.—

Thou, like a violent noise, cam'st rushing in,
And mak'st them wake and start to new *unquietness*.
Denb.

2. Want of peace.—It is most enemy to war, and most hateth *unquietness*. *Spens.* 3. Reflexness; turbulence.—

What pleasure can there be in that estate,
Which your *unquietness* has made me hate.

Dryden.

4. Perturbation; uneasiness.—

He went in strange *unquietness*. *Shak.*

—From inordinate love and vain fear comes all *unquietness* of spirit. *Taylor.*

- * **UNRACKED.** *adj.* Not poured from the lees.—Pour the lees of the unrack'd vessel into the *unracked* vessel. *Bacon.*

- * **UNRAKED.** *adj.* Not thrown together and covered. Used only of fire.—

Where fires thou find'st *unraked* and hearths unwept,

There pinch the maids. *Shak.*

- * **UNRANSACKED.** *adj.* Not pillaged.—The soldiers left neither house nor corner of that rich city *unransacked*. *Knolles.*

- * **UNRANSOMED.** *adj.* Not set free by payment for liberty.—

Unransom'd here receive the spotless fair.

Pope.

- * **TO UNRAVEL.** *v. a.* 1. To disentangle; to extricate; to clear.—He has *unravell'd* the studied cheats of great artificers. *Fell.*—

There *unravel* all

This dark design, this mystery of fate. *Add.*

—Thou *unravell'st* intrigues of state. *Arbutnot.*

2. To disorder; to throw out of the present order.—How can any thing succeed well with people that are to be pleased with nothing unless the ball of the universe may be *unravell'd*, and the laws of Providence reversed. *L'Estr.*

O the traitor's name!

Ill know it; I will: art shall be conjur'd for it,
And nature all *unravell'd*. *Dryd.*

—*Unravelling* all the received principles of reason and religion. *Tillot.* 3. To clear up the intrigue of a play.—The solution, or *unravelling* of the intrigue commences, when the reader begins to see the doubts cleared up. *Pope.*—Thus is the plot supernaturally brought to perfection; nor is the *unravelling* of it less happily imagined. *Shak.*

- * **UNRAZORED.** *adj.* Unshaven.—

As smooth as Hebe's their *unrazor'd* lips.

Milton.

- * **UNREACHED.** *adj.* Not attained.—

That lofty hill, *unreach'd* by former time.

Dryd.

- * **UNREAD.** *adj.* 1. Not read; not publicly pronounced.—These books are safer and better to be left publicly *unread*. *Hooker.*

His muse had starv'd, had not a piece *unread*,
And by a player bought, supply'd her bread.

Dryden.

2. Untaught; not learned in books.—

Uncertain whose the narrower span,

The clown *unread*, or half-read gentleman.

Dryden.

- * **UNREADINESS.** *n. f.* 1. Want of readiness; want of promptness.—Im preparation and *unreadiness*. *Hook.* 2. Want of preparation.—Nothing is so great an enemy to tranquillity and a contented spirit, as the amazement and confusion of *unreadiness* and inconsideration. *Taylor.*

- * **UNREADY.** *adj.* 1. Not prepared; not fit.

The fairy knight

Departed thence, albe his wounds wide

Not thoroughly heal'd, *unready* were to ride.

Spenser.

How now, my lords? what all *unready* to?

Shak.

2. Not prompt; not quick.—*Unready* to put in execution the suggestions of reason. *Brown.* 3. Awkward; ungain.—An *unready* horse will neither stop nor turn. *Bacon.*

- * **UNREAL.** *adj.* Unsubstantial; having only appearance.—

Hence terrible shadow!

Unreal mock'ry, hence.

Shak.

I with pain

Voyag'd th' *unreal*, vast, unbounded deep

Of horrible confusion.

Milt.

- * **UNREASONABLE.** *adj.* 1. Exorbitant; claiming, or insisting on more than is fit.—It would be *unreasonable* to limit a translator to the narrow compass of his author's words. *Dryd.*—A very *unreasonable* request. *Swift.* 2. Not agreeable to reason.—No reason known to us; but that there is no reason thereof, I judge most *unreasonable* to imagine. *Hook.*—It is *unreasonable* for men to be judges in their own cases. *Locke.*—She entertained many *unreasonable* prejudices. *Add.* 3. Greater than is fit; immoderate.—Those that place their hope in another world have, in a great measure, conquered dread of death, and *unreasonable* love of life. *Atterb.*

- * **UNREASONABLENESS.** *n. f.* 1. Inconsistency with reason.—The *unreasonableness* and presumption of those that thus project have not

h as a thought, all their lives long, to ad-
as far as attrition. *Hammond.* 2. Exorbi-
excessive demand.—The *unreasonableness*
in propositions is evident. *K. Charles.*—A
university disputant was complaining of
reasonableness of a lady with whom he was
d in a point of controversy. *Addison.*

UNREASONABLY. *adv.* 1. In a manner
ry to reason. 2. More than enough.—You
yourself most *unreasonably.* *Shak.*

UNREAVE. *v. a.* [now *unravel*; from
unravel, or *ravel*; perhaps the same with
to tear, or break asunder.] To unwind; to
unple.—

Levi'd a web her woers to deceive;

Same at night she did *unreave.* *Spens.*

UNREBATED. *adj.* Not blunted.—A num-
bers try it out with *unrebated* swords.

Shak.

UNREPUKABLE. *adj.* Obnoxious to no
re.—Keep this commandment without spot,
shakle until the appearing of Christ. *1 Tim.*

UNRECEIVED. *adj.* Not received.—Where
gns and sacraments of his grace are not
gh contempt *unreceived*, or received with
mpt, they really give what they promise,
re what they signify. *Hock.*

UNRECLAIMED. *adj.* 1. Not tamed.—
agencies of *unreclaimed* blood. *Shak.* 2. Not
ned.—This is the most favourable treatment
er can hope for, who continues *unreclaimed*
e goodness of God. *Rogers.*

UNRECONCILABLE. *adj.* 1. Not to be
sed; implacable.—

Let me lament,
at our stars, *unreconcilable*, should have di-
vided

ir equalness to this. *Shak.*

ot to be made consistent with.—He had many
nities and sins, *unreconcilable* with perfect
couness. *Hammond.*

UNRECONCILED. *adj.* Not reconciled.—
If you bethink yourself of any crime
reconcil'd as yet to heav'n and grace,
licit for it straight. *Shak.*

UNRECORDED. *adj.* Not kept in remem-
ce by publick monuments.—

Unrecorded left through many an age
ortby t' have not remain'd to long unsung.

Milton.

The great Antiochus! a name
ot *unrecorded* in the rolls of fame. *Pope.*

UNRECOUNTED. *adj.* Not told; not re-

—

This is yet but young, and may be left
some years *unrecounted.* *Shak.*

UNREQUITABLE. *adj.* Incapable of re-
ng the deficiencies of an army.—Empty and
unrequisite colonels of twenty men in a company.

Shak.

UNRECURING. *adj.* Irremediable.—

I found her straying in the park,
eking to hide herself, as doth the deer
hat hath receiv'd some *unrecuring* wound.

Shak.

UNREDUCED. *adj.* Not reduced.—The
divided all the rest of the Irish counties *un-*
red into threes. *Davies.*

* **UNREFORMABLE.** *adj.* Not to be put
into a new form.—The rule of faith is alone im-
moveable and *unreformable*; to wit, of believing
in one only God omnipotent, creator of the world,
and in his son Jesus Christ, born of the virgin
Mary. *Hammond.*

* **UNREFORMED.** *adj.* 1. Not amended; not
corrected.—This general revolt, when overcome,
produced a general reformation of the Irishry,
which ever before had been *unreformed.* *Davies.*
—We retain the Julian constitution of the year,
unreformed, without consideration of the defective
minutes. *Halder.* 2. Not brought to newness of
life.—If he may believe that Christ died for him,
as now he is an *unreformed* Christian, then what
needs he reformation? *Hammond.*

Unhumbled, unrepentant, *unreformed.* *Milt.*

* **UNREFRACTED.** *adj.* Not refracted.—
The sun's circular image is made by an *unrefract-*
ed beam of light. *Newton.*

* **UNREFRESHED.** *adj.* Not cheered; not
relieved.—Its symptoms are a spontaneous lass-
itude, being *unrefreshed* by sleep. *Arbuth.*

* **UNREGARDED.** *adj.* Not heeded; not re-
spected; neglected.—

We, ever by his might,
Had thrown to ground the *unregarded* right.

Spenser.

Doft see, how *unregarded* now
That piece of beauty passes?

There was a time when I did vow

To that alone;

But mark the fate of faces. *Suckling.*

On the cold earth lies th' *unregarded* king's

A headless carcass, and a nameless thing. *Denb.*

Me you have often counsel'd to remove

My vain pursuit of *unregarded* love. *Dryd.*

—Laws against immorality have not been execu-
ted, and proclamations to enforce them are wholly
unregarded. *Swift.*

* **UNREGENERATE.** *adj.* Not brought to
a new life.—This is not to be understood prom-
iscuously of all men, *unregenerate* persons as well
as regenerate. *Stephens.*

* **UNREGISTERED.** *adj.* Not recorded.—
Hotter hours,

Unregister'd in vulgar fame, you have

Luxuriously pick'd out. *Shak.*

* **UNREINED.** *adj.* Not restrained by the
bridle.—

Left from thy flying speed *unrein'd*, as once
Bellerophon, though from a lower clime
Dismounted, on the Aleian field I fall. *Milt.*

* **UNRELENTING.** *adj.* Hard; cruel; feel-
ing no pity.—

By many hands your father was subdued;
But only slaughter'd by the ireful arm
Of *unrelenting* Clifford. *Shak.*

Place pitchy barrels on the fatal stake,
That so her torture may be shortened.
Will nothing turn your *unrelenting* hearts?

Shak.

These are the realms of *unrelenting* fate;
And awful Rhadamanthus rules the state.

Dryden.

False tears shall wet his *unrelenting* eyes,
And his glad heart with artful sighs shall heave.

Smith.

* **UNRELIEVABLE.**

* **UNRELIEVABLE.** *adj.* Admitting no succour.—As no degree of distress is *unrelievable* by his power, so no extremity of it is inconsistent with his compassion. *Boyle.*

* **UNRELIEVED.** *adj.* Not succoured.—
The goddess griev'd,
Her favour'd host should perish *unreliev'd.*

Dryden.
2. Not eased.—The uneasiness of *unrelieved* thirst is not lessened by continuance, but grows the more unsupportable. *Boyle.*

* **UNREMARKABLE.** *adj.* Not capable of being observed.—Our understanding, to make a complete notion, must add something else to this fleeting and *unremarkable* superficialities, that may bring it to our acquaintance. *Digby.* 2. Not worthy of notice.

* **UNREMEDIAL.** *adj.* Admitting no remedy.—He so handled it, that it rather seemed he had more come into a defence of an *unremediable* mischief already committed, than that they had done it at first by his consent. *Sidney.*

* **UNREMEMBERED.** *adj.* Not retained in the mind; not recollected.—I cannot pass *unremembered* their manner of disguising the shafts of chimneys in various fashions, whereof the noblest is the pyramidal. *Wotton.*

* **UNREMEMBERING.** *adj.* Having no memory.—

That, *unrememb'ring* of its former pain,
The soul may suffer mortal flesh again. *Dryd.*

* **UNREMEMBRANCE.** *n. f.* Forgetfulness; want of remembrance.—Some words are negative in their original language, but seem positive, because the negation is unknown; as amnesty, an *unremembrance*, or general pardon. *Watts.*

* **UNREMOVABLE.** *adj.* Not to be taken away.—Never was there any woman, that with more *unremovable* determination gave herself to love, after she had once set before her mind the worthiness of Amphialus. *Sidney.*

You know the fiery quality of the duke,
How *unremovable* and fixt he is
In his own course. *Shak.*

* **UNREMOVABLY.** *adv.* In a manner that admits no removal.—His discontents are *unremovably* coupled to his nature. *Shak.*

* **UNREMOVED.** *adj.* 1. Not taken away.—It is impossible, where this opinion is imbibed and *unremoved*, to found any convincing argument. *Hammond.*—We could have had no certain prospect of his happiness, while the last obstacle was *unremoved.* *Dryden.* 2. Not capable of being removed.—

Like Teneriff or Atlas *unremov'd.* *Milt.*

* **UNREPAID.** *adj.* Not recompensed; not compensated.—

Hadst thou full pow'r
To measure out his torments by thy will;
Yet what couldst thou, tormentor, hope to gain?
Thy loss continues, *unrepaid* by pain. *Dryd.*

* **UNREPEALED.** *adj.* Not revoked; not abrogated.—When you are pinched with any *unrepealed* act of parliament, you declare you will not be obliged by it. *Dryd.*

Nature's law, and *unrepeal'd* command,
That gives to lighter things the greatest height.
Blackmore.

* **UNREPENTANT.** See **UNREPENTING.**

* **UNREPENTED.** *adj.* Not expiated by penitential sorrow.—They are no fit supplicants to seek his mercy in the behalf of others, whose own *unrepented* sins provoked his just indignation. *Hooker.*

If I ventr'ing to displease
God for the fear of man, and man prefer,
Set God behind: which in his jealousy
Shall never, *unrepented*, find forgiveness. *Mil.*
As in *unrepented* sin she died,
Doom'd to the same bad place, is punish'd to
her pride. *Dryden.*

—With what confusion will he bear all his *unrepented* sins produced before men and angels. *Rogers.*

* **UNREPENTING.** *adj.* Not repenting; not penitent; not sorrowful for sin.—

Should I of these the liberty regard,
Who freed as to their ancient patrimony,
Unhumbled, *unrepenting*, unreform'd,
Headlong would follow. *Milton.*

My unprepar'd and *unrepenting* breath
Was snatch'd away by the swift hand of death. *Rafson.*

All his arts reveal,
From the first moment of his vital breath,
To his last hour of *unrepenting* death. *Dryden.*
Nor tyrants fierce, that *unrepenting* die,
E'er felt such rage as thou. *Pope.*

* **UNREPINING.** *adj.* Not peevishly complaining.—

Barefoot as she trod the flinty pavement,
Her footsteps all along were mark'd with blood;
Yet silent on the pass'd, and *unrepining.* *Ross.*

* **UNREPLENISHED.** *adj.* Not filled.—Some air retreated thither, kept the mercury out of the *unreplenish'd* space. *Boyle.*

* **UNREPRESENTED.** *adj.* Having no representative in parliament.

* **UNREPRIEABLE.** *adj.* Not to be repited from penal death.—

Within me is a hell; and there the poison
Is, as a fiend, confin'd, to tyrannize
In *unreprievable* condemned blood. *Shak.*

* **UNREPROACHED.** *adj.* Not upbraided; not censured.—Sir John Hotham, *unreproach'd*, uncurled by any imprecation of mine, pays his head. *K. Charles.*

* **UNREPROVEABLE.** *adj.* Not liable to blame.—You hath he reconciled, to present you holy, unblamable, and *unreproveable* in his sight. *Caloffians.*

* **UNREPROVED.** *adj.* 1. Not censured.—Christians have their churches, and *unreproved* exercise of religion. *Sandys.* 2. Not liable to censure.—*Unreproved* truth. *Spens.*—In *unreproved* pleasures free. *Milton.*

* **UNREPUGNANT.** *adj.* Not opposite.—*Unrepugnant* laws. *Hook.*

* **UNREPUTABLE.** *adj.* Not creditable.—Piety is no *unreputable* qualification. *Rogers.*

* **UNREQUESTED.** *adj.* Not asked.—With what security can our ambassadors go, *unrequested* of the Turkish emperor. *Knolles.*

* **UNREQUITABLE.** *adj.* Not to be retaliated.—An *unrequitable* evil may ensue. *Brown.*—So *unrequitable* is God's love. *Boyle.*

* **UNRESENTED.**

* **UNRESENTED.** *adj.* Not regarded with ger.—Their failings passed not *unresented* by od. *Rogers.*

* **UNRESERVED.** *adj.* 1. Not limited by y private convenience.—*Unreserved* obedience his commands. *Rogers.* 2. Open; frank; con- aling nothing.

* **UNRESERVEDLY.** *adv.* 1. Without limita- tions.—I am not to embrace absolutely and *unre- servedly* the opinion of Aristotle. *Boyle.* 2. With- out concealment; openly.—I open my mind *un- reservedly* to you. *Pope.*

* **UNRESERVEDNESS.** *n. f.* Unlimitedness; inkness; largeness; openness.—The tenderness d *unreservedness* of his love. *Boyle.*—I write with ore *unreservedness* than ever man wrote. *Pope.*

* **UNRESISTED.** *adj.* 1. Not opposed.—The anets roll through free and *unresisted.* *Bentley.* 2. sifflens; such as cannot be opposed.—*Unresisted* ight. *Dryd.*—The conqu'ring force of *unresisted* el. *Pope.*

* **UNRESISTING.** *adj.* Not opposing; not aking resistance.—But meek and *unresisting* inno- nce. *Dryden.*—The liquid and *unresisting* spaces the heavens. *Bentley.*

* **UNRESOLVABLE.** *adj.* Not to be solved; soluble.—A problem *unresolvable* upon any o- der ground. *South.*

* **UNRESOLVED.** *adj.* 1. Not determined; ving made no resolution: sometimes with of.— arm'd, and *unresolved* d to beat them back. *Shak.* -Turnus, *unresolved* d of flight. *Dryden.* 2. Not lved; not cleared.—Leave no doubt *unresolved.* *Shak.*

* **UNRESOLVING.** *adj.* Not resolving; not determined.—She her arms about her *unresolving* sband threw. *Dryd.*

* **UNRESPECTIVE.** *adj.* Inattentive; taking tle notice.—

I will converse with iron-witted fools, And *unrespective* boys. *Shak.*

* **UNREST.** *n. f.* Disquiet; want of tranqui- y; quietness. Not in use.—Before their rage ew to so great *unrest.* *Spenser.*

Repose, sweet gold, for their *unrest*, That have their alms out of the empress's chest. *Shak.*

Then runs amaz'd distress, with sad *unrest.* *Dan.* Yet, let me borrow from mine own *unrest.* *Wott.* Up they rose, as from *unrest.* *Milton.*

* **UNRESTORED.** *adj.* 1. Not restored. 2. ot cleared from an attainer.—The son of an *unrestored* traitor. *Collier.*

* **UNRESTRAINED.** *adj.* 1. Not confined; ot hindered.—My hours my own, my pleasures *unrestrained.* *Dryd.* 2. Licentious; loose.—With *unrestrained*, loose companions. *Shak.* 3. Not li- ted.—An *unrestrained* truth. *Brown.*

* **UNRETRACTED.** *adj.* Not revoked; not called.—Our *unretracted* uncharitableness. *Gov. the Tongue.*—Malevolence *unretracted.* *Collier.*

* **UNREVEALED.** *adj.* Not told; not disco- vered.—*Unrevealed* pleasures. *Spens.*—Dear, fatal me! rest ever *unreveal'd.* *Pope.*

* **UNREVENGED.** *adj.* Not revenged.—So ould we die, not *unrevenged* all. *Fairfax.*—Not *reveng'd* that impious act shall be. *Dryd.*—And ipio's ghost walks *unreveng'd* amongst us. *Add.*

* **UNREVEREND.** *adj.* Irreverent; disrespect- ful.—See not your bride in these *unreverent* robes. *Shak.*—Fie! *unreverend* tongue! *Shak.*

* **UNREVERENTLY.** *adv.* Disrespectfully.— I did *unreverently* blame the gods. *Ben. Jon.*

* **UNREVERSED.** *adj.* Not revoked; not repealed.—It *unreversed* stands in effectual force. *Shak.*

* **UNREVOKED.** *adj.* Not recalled.—Hear my decree, which *unrevok'd* shall stand. *Milton.*

* **UNREWARDED.** *adj.* Not rewarded; not recompensed.—Good offices may not pass *unre- warded.* *L'Estrange.*—Nor *unrewarded* let your prince complain. *Pope.*

* **To UNRIDDLE.** *v. a.* To solve an enigma; to explain a problem.—Some kind power *unriddle* where it lies. *Suckling.*—The Platonick principles will not *unriddle* the doubt. *Glanville.*—A reverse often clears up the passage of an old poet, as the poet often serves to *unriddle* the reverse. *Addison.*

* **UNRIDICULOUS.** *adj.* Not ridiculous.— An indifferent and *unridiculous* object. *Brown.*

* **To UNRIG.** *v. a.* To strip of the tackle.— Their ships *unrigg'd.* *Dryden.*

* **UNRIGHT.** *adj.* Wrong. In *Spenser*, this word should perhaps be *untight*.—What in most English writers used to be loose, and as it were *unright*, in this author is well grounded, timely framed, and strongly trusted up together. *Spenser.*—Shew that thy judgment is not *unright.* *Wisd.*

* **UNRIGHTEOUS.** *adj.* Unjust; wicked; sin- ful; bad.—His place usurped by *unrighteous* doom. *Spenser.*—The salt of most *unrighteous* tears. *Shak.*—Let the wicked man forsake his way, and the *unrighteous* man his thought. *Isa. lv.*

* **UNRIGHTEOUSLY.** *adv.* Unjustly; wick- edly; sinfully.—*Unrighteously* it was decreed. *Dryd.*—*Unrighteously* oppressed. *Collier.*

* **UNRIGHTEOUSNESS.** *n. f.* Wickedness; injustice.—All *unrighteousness* is sin. *Hall.*—Perfi- diousness, *unrighteousness*, and ingratitude. *Tillot.*

* **UNRIGHTFUL.** *adj.* Not rightful; not just —To plant *unrightful* kings. *Shak.*

* **To UNRING.** *v. a.* To deprive of a ring.— And pigs *unring'd* at vil. franc. pledge. *Hudibras.*

* **To UNRIP.** *v. a.* [This word is improper; there being no difference between *rip* and *unrip*; and the negative particle is therefore of no force; yet it is well authorized.] To cut open.—*Unrip'd* the bowels of thy sov'reign's son. *Shak.*—He could not now, with his honour, so *unrip*, and put a lye upon all that he had said and done be- fore. *Bacon.*—We are angry with searchers, when they break open trunks, and *unrip* packs. *Taylor.*—Friendship ought not to be *unripped*, but un- fitted. *Collier.*

* **UNRIPE.** *adj.* 1. Immature; not fully con- cocted.—Like fruits *unripe.* *Shak.*—Utter *unripe* and ill-constrained notes. *Waller.* 2. Not season- able; not yet proper.—He fix'd his *unripe* venge- ance to defer. *Dryd.* 3. Too early.—His *unripe* death doth yet draw tears from virtuous eyes. *Sidney.*

* **UNRIPENED.** *adj.* Not matured.—The pale, *unripen'd* beauties of the north. *Addis.*

* **UNRIPENESS.** *n. f.* Immaturity; want of ripeness.—The ripeness or *unripeness* of the oc- casion must ever be well weighed. *Bacon.*

* UN-

* **UNRIVALLED.** *adj.* 1. Having no competitor.—Honour! at whose unrival'd shrine. *Pope*.
2. Having no peer or equal.

* **To UNROLL.** *v. a.* To open what is rolled or convolved.—Time has unroll'd her glories to the last. *Dryden*.

* **UNROMANTICK.** *adj.* Contrary to romance.—It is a base, unromantick spirit not to wait on you. *Swift*.

* **To UNROOF.** *v. a.* To strip off the roof or covering of houses.—The rabble should have first unroof'd the city. *Shak*.

* **UNROOSTED.** *adj.* Driven from the roost.—Thou dotard? thou art woman tir'd, unroosted. *Shak*.

* **To UNROOT.** *v. a.* To tear from the roots; to extirpate; to eradicate.—Nothing can unroot you. *Shak*.—Unroot the forest oaks. *Dryd*.

* **UNROUGH.** *adj.* Smooth.—Many unrough youths. *Shak*.

* **UNROUNDED.** *adj.* Not shaped; not cut to a round.—Negligently left unrounded. *Donne*.

* **UNROYAL.** *adj.* Unprincely; not royal.—Unroyal reproaches. *Sidney*.

* **To UNRUFFLE.** *v. n.* To cease from commotion, or agitation.—

The waves unruffle, and the sea subsides. *Dryd*.

* **UNRUFFLED.** *adj.* Calm; tranquil; not tumultuous.—Calm and unruffled as a summer's sea. *Addison*.

* **UNRULED.** *adj.* Not directed by any superior power.—Like a ship in a storm, amidst raging surges, unrul'd and undirected of any. *Spens*.

* **UNRULINESS.** *n. s.* [from *unruly*.] Turbulence; tumultuousness; licentiousness.—By the negligence of some and the unruliness of others. *Knolles*.—The unruliness of anger, or the exorbitance of desire. *South*.

* **UNRULY.** *adj.* Turbulent; ungovernable; licentious; tumultuous.—A loose unruly swain. *Spens*.—Wanting the manage of unruly jades. *Shak*.

—Unruly waywardness. *Shak*.—The tongue is an unruly evil. *James iii*.—Doft each unruly appetite controul. *Rose*.—The welcome force of that unruly crowd. *Waller*.—Unruly appetites. *Glarv*.—Th' unruly sword will no distinction make. *Dryd*.

* **UNSAFE.** *adj.* Not secure; hazardous; dangerous.—Others should be taught how unsafe it was to continue his friends. *Hooker*.—And left large field, unsafe within the wind. *Milton*.—Uncertain ways unsafe. *Denb*.—Phlegyan robbers made unsafe the road. *Dryden*.

* **UNSAFELY.** *adv.* Not securely; dangerously.—Unsafely just. *Dryden*.—As no man can walk, so neither can he think, unsafely or unsafely. *Greav*.

* **UNSAID.** *adj.* Not uttered; not mentioned.—Chanticleer shall wish his words unsaid. *Dryd*.—That I may leave nothing material unsaid. *Felt*.

* **UNSATLED.** *adj.* Not pickled or seasoned with salt.—The muriatick scurvy, is cured by a diet of fresh unsalted things. *Arbutnot*.

* **UNSATLUTED.** *adj.* [un*salutatus*, Lat.] Not saluted.—

Gods! I prate;

And the most noble mother of the world

Leave unsaluted.

Shak.

* **UNSANCTIFIED.** *adj.* Unholy; not consecrated; not pious.—

She should in ground unsanctify'd have lodg'd
'Till the last trump. *Shak*.

* **UNSATIABLE.** *adj.* [insatiabilis, Lat.] Not to be satisfied; greedy without bounds.—Unsatiable in their longing to do all manner of good. *Hooker*.—Unsatiable greediness. *Raleigh*.

* **UNSATISFACTORINESS.** *n. s.* Failure of giving satisfaction.—That which most detem me from such trials, is their unsatisfactoriness, though they should succeed. *Boyle*.

* **UNSATISFACTORY.** *adj.* 1. Not giving satisfaction. 2. Not clearing the difficulty.—An unsatisfactory reply. *Brown*.—An unsatisfactory answer. *Stillingfleet*.

* **UNSATISFIED.** *adj.* 1. Not contented; not pleased.—Unsatisfied in the choice. *Bacon*.—They must be very much unsatisfied of me. *Digby*. 2. Not settled in opinion.—They leave peroxide unsatisfied. *Boyle*. 3. Not filled; not gratified to the full.—Though he were unsatisfied. *Shak*.—And leave unsatisfied my anger and revenge. *Denham*.—Our thoughts return to us weary and unsatisfied. *Rogers*.

* **UNSATISFIEDNESS.** *n. s.* [from *unsatisfied*.] The state of being not satisfied.—Unsatisfiedness in conscience. *K. Charles*.—Unsatisfiedness with transitory fruitions. *Boyle*.

* **UNSATISFYING.** *adj.* Unable to gratify to the full.—Fame is unsatisfying. *Addison*.

* **UNSAVOURINESS.** *n. s.* [from *unsavoury*.] 1. Bad taste. 2. Bad smell.—A national unsavouriness. *Brown*.

* **UNSAVOURY.** *adj.* 1. Tasteless.—Can that which is unsavoury be eaten without salt? *Job*. 2. Having a bad taste.—Unsavoury food. *Milton*. 3. Having an ill smell; fetid.—An unsavoury odour. *Brown*. 4. Unpleasing; disgusting.—Unsavoury news; but how made he escape? *Shak*.

* **To UNSAY.** *v. a.* To retract; to recant; to deny what has been said.—Call you me fair! that fair again unsay. *Shak*.—Say and unsay, feign, flatter, or abjure. *Milton*.—To say, and then unsay. *Milt*.—There is nothing said there, which you may have occasion to unsay hereafter. *Atterb*.

* **UNSCALLY.** *adj.* Having no scales.—The jointed lobster, and unscaley sole. *Gay*.

* **UNSCARRED.** *adj.* Not marked with wounds.—Unscar'd from bleeding slaughter. *Shak*.

* **UNSCHOLASTICK.** *adj.* Not bred to literature.—Unscholastick statesmen. *Locke*.

* **UNSCHOOLED.** *adj.* Uneducated; not learned.—The apostles were, St Paul excepted, unschooled and unlettered men. *Hooker*.

* **UNSCORCHED.** *adj.* Not touched by fire.—His hand remain'd unscorched. *Shak*.

* **UNSCOURED.** *adj.* Not cleaned by rubbing.—Unscour'd armour. *Shak*.

* **UNSCRATCHED.** *adj.* Not torn.—To save unscratch'd your city's threaten'd cheeks. *Shak*.

* **UNSCREENED.** *adj.* Not covered; not protected.—Exposed, unscreened, to the sun's beams. *Boyle*.

* **UNSCRIPTURAL.** *adj.* Not defensible by scripture.—The doctrine was neither new nor unscriptural. *Atterbury*.

* **To UNSEAL.** *v. a.* To open any thing sealed.—Unseal his sight. *Dryd*.

* UN.

* **UNSEALED.** *adj.* 1. Wanting a seal.—
our oaths are poor conditions but *unseal'd*.
ak. 2. Having the seal broken.

* **To UNSEAM.** *v. a.* To rip; to cut open.—
He ne'er shook hands, nor bid farewell to him,
'Till he *unseam'd* him from the nape to the chops.
Shak.

* **UNSEARCHABLE.** *adj.* Inscrutable; not
be explored.—

All is best, though we often doubt
What th' *unsearchable* dispose
Of highest wisdom brings about. *Milton.*
Things else by me *unsearchable.* *Milton.*—The
searchable perfections of God. *Tillotson.*—These
unfolds of God are to us *unsearchable.* *Rogers.*—
finities and *unsearchables.* *Watts.*

* **UNSEARCHABLENESS.** *n. f.* Impossibility
to be explored.—The *unsearchableness* of God's
ways. *Bramhall.*

* **UNSEASONABLE.** *adj.* 1. Not suitable
time or occasion; unfit; untimely; ill-timed.
Unseasonable offices which please him not. *Hooker.*
Their counsel must seem very *unseasonable.*
Hooker.—It is a very *unseasonable* time to plead
w. *Spenser.*—In *unseasonable* fashion. *Hayward.*
This I conceived not *unseasonable.* *Clarend.*—Of
mething not *unseasonable* to ask. *Milton.*—Ti-
othy went abroad often at *unseasonable* hours.
Arbutnot. 2. Not agreeable to the time of the
year.—Like an *unseasonable* stormy day. *Shak.* 3.
ate; as, *unseasonable* time of night.

* **UNSEASONABLENESS.** *n. f.* Disagree-
ment with time or place.—*Unseasonableness* of
oral actions. *Hale.*

* **UNSEASONABLY.** *adv.* Not seasonably;
it agreeable to time or occasion.—Some things
asketh *unseasonably.* *Hooker.*—*Unseasonably* wile.
ryd.—Medicines improperly and *unseasonably*
plied. *Arbutnot.*—Ulysses yielded *unseasonably.*
roome.

* **UNSEASONED.** *adj.* 1. Unseasonable; un-
mely; ill-timed. Out of use.—*Unseason'd* hours.
Shak.—This *unseasoned* intrusion. *Shak.* 2. Un-
armed; not qualified by use.—'Tis an *unseason'd*
urtier. *Shak.* 3. Irregular; inordinate.—In un-
asonable and *unseasoned* fashion. *Hayward.* 4.
ot kept till fit for use. 5. Not salted; as, un-
asoned meat.

* **UNSECONDED.** *adj.* 1. Not supported.
Second to none, *unseconded* by you. *Shak.* 2.
ot exemplified a second time.—Strange and un-
cended shapes of worms succeeded. *Brown.*

* **UNSECRET.** *adj.* Not close; not trusty.
We are so *unsecret* to ourselves. *Shak.*

* **To UNSECRET.** *v. a.* To disclose; to dis-
ilge.—The *unsecreting* of their affairs comes not
om themselves. *Bacon.*

* **UNSECURE.** *adj.* Not safe.—Love always
itself seems *unsecure.* *Denham.*

* **UNSEDUCED.** *adj.* Not drawn to ill.—If
e remain *uneduc'd.* *Shak.*—Unshaken, *uneduc'd*,
terrify'd. *Milt.*

* **UNSEEING.** *adj.* Wanting the power of
sion.—I should have scratch'd out your *unseeing*
s. *Shak.*

* **To UNSEEM.** *v. n.* Not to seem. Not in
e.—

You wrong the reputation of your name,
In so *unseemly* to confess receipt
Of that which hath so faithfully been paid.

* **UNSEEMLINESS.** *n. s.* Indecency; inde-
corum; uncomeliness.—To offend with any the
least *unseemliness.* *Hooker.*

* **UNSEEMLY.** *adj.* Indecent; uncomely;
unbecoming.—An exchange of *unseemly* and un-
just disgraces. *Hooker.*—Dishonest, and *unseemly*
speeches. *Perkins.*—To shame obnoxious, and un-
seemly seen. *Milt.*—*Unseemly* to bear rule. *Milt.*
—My sons, let your *unseemly* discord cease. *Dryd.*
Every *unseemly* idea, and wanton expression. *Watts.*

(2.) * **UNSEEMLY.** *adv.* Indecently; unbe-
comingly.—Charity doth not behave itself *unseem-
ly.* 1 *Cor.*—*Unseemly* yelling. *Phillips.*

* **UNSEEN.** *adj.* 1. Not seen; not discover-
ed.—A jest *unseen*, inscrutable, invisible. *Shak.*—
We'll so dispose ourselves, that seeing, *unseen.* *Shak.*
—Before the faults of your work were seen, but
now they are *unseen.* *Bacon.*—Unknown, *unseen*,
my easy minutes pass. *Roscom.*

Millions of spiritual creatures walk the earth
Unseen. *Milton.*

—*Unseen* before in heaven. *Milton.*—Led by her
heav'nly maker, though *unseen.* *Milton.*—*Unseen* of
all the rude Phœacian race. *Pope.* 2. Invisible;
undiscoverable.—For a while lie *unseen* and buried
in the earth. *Hooker.* 3. Unskilled; unexperien-
ced.—He was not *unseen* in the affections of the
court. *Clarend.*

* **UNSELFISH.** *adj.* Not addicted to private
interest.—The inclination is nevertheless *unselfish.*
Spektor.

* **UNSENT.** *adj.* 1. Not sent. 2. **UNSENT**
for. Not called by letter or messenger.—Go from
house to house *unsent for.* *Taylor.*—What brings
you here so often, and *unsent for.* *Dryd.*

* **UNSEPARABLE.** *adj.* Not to be parted;
not to be divided.—Who twine in love—*Unsepa-
rable.* *Shak.*

* **UNSEPARATED.** *adj.* Not parted.—Th'
unseparated soul. *Pope.*

* **UNSERVICEABLE.** *adj.* Useless; bring-
ing no advantage or convenience.—But his late
wounded wing *unserviceable* found. *Spenser.*—*Un-
serviceable* for vegetation and life. *Bentley.* It can
be no *unserviceable* design to religion. *Rogers.*

* **UNSERVICEABLY.** *adv.* Without use;
without advantage.—It does not lie idly and *un-
serviceably* there. *Woodward.*

* **UNSET.** *adj.* Not set; not placed.—They
urge that God left nothing in his word undescrib-
ed, nothing *unset* down. *Hooker.*

* **To UNSETTLE.** *v. a.* 1. To make uncer-
tain.—Such a doctrine *unsettles* the titles to king-
doms and estates. *Arbutnot.* 2. To move from a
place.—As big as he was, did there need any great
matter to *unsettle* him? *L'Estrange.* 3. To over-
throw.

* **UNSETTLED.** *adj.* 1. Not fixed in resolu-
tion; not determined; not steady.—An *unsettled*
fancy. *Shak.*—I am—So much *unsettled.* *Shak.*—
And all th' *unsettled* humours of the land. *Shak.*—
Uncertain and *unsettled* he remains. *Milton.*—An
unsettled mind. *L'Estrange.*—*Unsettled* virtue stormy

my may appear. *Dryden*.—Religion was *unsettled*. *South*. 2. Unequable; not regular; changeable.—The most *unsettled* and unequable seasons. *Bentl*. 3. Not established.—Doubts attending an *unsettled* state. *Dryden*. 4. Not fixed in a place or abode.—The ark of the Lord's covenant *unsettled*. *Hook*.

* **UNSETTLEDNESS**. *n. f.* 1. Irresolution; undetermined state of mind. 2. Uncertainty; fluctuation.—The *unsettledness* of my condition. *Dryd*. 3. Want of fixity.—For all the *unsettledness* of the waves the sun strikes them with a direct and certain beam. *South*.

* **UNSEVERED**. *adj.* Not parted; not divided.—*Unsever'd* friends. *Shak*.—Th' *unsever'd*. *Blackmore*.

* To **UNSEX**. *v. a.* To make otherwise than the sex commonly is.—*Unsex* me here. *Shak*.

UNSHA, a province of Russia, in Kostromskoe. The capital is *Macarief*.

* To **UNSHACKLE**. *v. a.* To loose from bonds. A laudable freedom of thought *unshackles* the mind. *Addison*.

* **UNSHADOWED**. *adj.* Not clouded; not darkened.—An *unshadowed*, comprehensive vision. *Glanville*.

* **UNSHAKEABLE**. *adj.* Not subject to concussion. Not in use.—With rocks *unshakeable*, and roaring waters. *Shak*.

* **UNSHAKED**. *adj.* Not shaken. Not in use.—*Unshak'd* of motion. *Shak*.

* **UNSHAKEN**. *adj.* 1. Not agitated; not moved.—Fruits fall *unshaken*, when they mellow be. *Shak*.—The wall *unshaken*. *Boyle*. 2. Not subject to concussion. 3. Not weakened in resolution; not moved.—O patient son of God!—*Unshaken*. *Milt*.—*Unshaken* duty. *Spratt*.—His notions were steady and *unshaken*. *Addison*.

* **UNSHAMED**. *adj.* Not shamed.—*Unsham'd*, though foil'd, he does the best he can. *Dryd*.

* **UNSHAPEN**. *adj.* Mishapen; deformed.—This *unshapen* earth we now inhabit. *Burnet*.—Gasp'ng for breath th' *unshapen* Phœbe die. *Addis*.

* **UNSHARED**. *adj.* Not partaken; not had in common.—Tedious *unshar'd* with thee, and odious soon. *Milton*.

* To **UNSHEATH**. *v. a.* To draw from the scabbard.—Executioner, *unsheath* thy sword. *Shak*.—There is not now a rebel's sword *unsheath'd*. *Shak*.—Assume thy courage, and *unsheath* thy sword. *Dryden*.—The sword *unsheath'd*. *Addison*.—And halt *unsheath'd* the shining blade. *Pope*.

* **UNSHED**. *adj.* Not spilt.—To blood *unshed* the rivers must be turn'd. *Milton*.

* **UNSHELTERED**. *adj.* Wanting a screen; wanting protection.—Leave him *unsheltered* to the scorching wrath of God. *Dec. Piety*.

* **UNSHIELDED**. *adj.* Not guarded by the shield.—He scornful offer'd his *unshielded* side. *Dryden*.

* To **UNSHIP**. *v. a.* To take out of a ship.—We *unshipped* our goods, and watered there. *Swift*.

* **UNSHOCKED**. *adj.* Not disgusted; not offended.—Thy spotless thoughts *unshock'd* the priest may bear. *Tickell*.

* **UNSHOD**. *adj.* [from *unshod*.] Having no shoes.—Their feet *unshod*, their bodies wrapt in rags. *Spens*.—Withold thy foot from being *unshod*. *J. i. ii.*—The king's army, naked and *unshod*. *Clar*.

* **UNSHOOK**. *part. adj.* Not shaken.—Thou stand'st *unshook* amidst a burting world. *Pope*.

* **UNSHORN**. *adj.* Not clipped.—These locks *unshorn*. *Milton*.—Of oaks *unshorn*, a venerable wood. *Dryd*.

* **UNSHOT**. *part. adj.* Not hit by shot.—Wound us *unshot*. *Waller*.

* To **UNSHOUT**. *v. a.* To annihilate, or retract a shout.—*Unshout* the noise that banish'd Marc'us. *Shak*.

* **UNSHOWERED**. *adj.* Not watered by showers.—Trampling th' *unshower'd* grafs with lowings loud. *Milton*.

* **UNSHRINKING**. *adj.* Not recoiling; not shunning danger or pain.—In the *unshrinking* station where he fought. *Shak*.

* **UNSHUNNABLE**. *adj.* Inevitable.—'Tis destiny *unshunnable* like death. *Shak*.

* **UNSIPTED**. *adj.* 1. Not parted by a sieve.—With *unsifted* ashes. *May's Virgil*. 2. Not tried; not known by experience.—*Unsifted* in such perilous circumstance. *Shak*.

* **UNSIGHT**. *adj.* Not seeing. A low word, used only with *unseen*, as in the example following. Probably formed by corruption of *unfighted*.—For to subscribe, *unfight*, unseen. *Hudibras*.

* **UNSIGHTED**. *adj.* Invisible; not seen.—Still present with us, though *unfighted*. *Suckling*.

* **UNSIGHTLINESS**. *n. s.* [from *unfightly*.] Deformity; disagreeableness to the eye.—The *unfightliness* in the legs, may be helped by wearing a laced stocking. *Wise man's Surgery*.

* **UNSIGHTLY**. *adj.* Disagreeable to the sight.—Good Sir, no more; these are *unfightly* tricks. *Shak*.—That lie beflow'n, *unfightly*, and unsmooth. *Milt*.—Amongst the rest, a small, *unfightly* root. *Milt*.—Such an *unfightly* hollow. *Spekt*.

* **UNSINCERE**. *adj.* [from *insincerus*, Lat.] 1. Not hearty; not faithful. 2. Not genuine; impure; adulterated.—I have often met with chymical preparations, which I have found *unsincere*. *Boyle*. 3. Not found; not solid.—The joy was *unsincere*. *Dryden*.

* **UNSINCERITY**. *adj.* Adulteration; cheat.—A spirit of sea-salt may, without *unsincerity*, be so prepared, as to dissolve crude gold. *Boyle*.

* To **UNSINCEW**. *v. a.* To deprive of strength.—Stretch'd and dissolv'd into *unsinew'd* length. *Drum*.—And dates and pepper have *unsinew'd* Rome. *Dryd*.—The affected purity of the French has *unsinew'd* their heroic verse. *Dryd*.

* **UNSINUED**. *adj.* Nervelless; weak.—Two special reasons May to you, perhaps, seem much *unsinew'd*. *Shak*.

* **UNSINGED**. *adj.* Not scorched; not touched by fire.—He came out *unsinged*. *Brown*.—Three men pass'd through a fiery furnace, untouch'd, *unsinged*. *Stephen*.

* **UNSINKING**. *adj.* Not sinking.—Lies cover'd with a smooth, *unsinking* sand. *Addis*.

* **UNSINNING**. *adj.* Impeccable.—A perfect *unsinning* obedience. *Rogers*.

* **UNSKANNED**. *adj.* Not measured; not computed.—*Unskann'd* twiftness. *Shak*.

* **UNSKILFUL**. *adj.* Wanting art; wanting knowledge.—It may make the *unskilful* laugh. *Shak*.—*Unskilful* with what words to pray. *Mih*.—*Unskilful*

iful in syllogism. *Locke*.—*Unskilful* in the language. *Locke*.

UNSKILFULLY. *adv.* Without knowledge; without art.—You speak *unskilfully*. *Shak*.

UNSKILFULNESS. *n. s.* Want of art; want of knowledge.—There was a praise in that *unskilfulness*. *Sidn*.—The necessity or *unskilfulness* is the contractor. *Tayl*.

UNSKILLED. *adj.* Wanting skill; wanting vantage; with in before a noun, and to before a verb.—*Unskilled* in Hellebore. *Dryd*.—*Unskilled* young. *Prior*.—Unvers'd in spinning, and in *unskill'd*. *Blackm*.—Poets, like painters, *unskill'd* to trace. *Pope*.

UNSLAIN. *adj.* Not killed.—Any sparks *unslain* duty. *Sidn*.—Nor hecatomb *unslain*, nor is unpaid. *Dryd*.

UNSLACKED. *adj.* Not quench'd.—Her desires new roas'd, and yet *unslack'd*. *Dryd*.

unslack'd lime. *Mortimer*.

UNSLEEPING. *adj.* Ever wakeful.—Th' *unsleeping* eyes of God. *Milton*.

UNSLIPPING. *adj.* Not liable to slip; fast.—*unslipping* knot. *Shak*.

UNSMIRCHED. *adj.* Unpolluted; not soiled.—The chaste and *unsmirched* brow. *Shak*.

UNSMOKED. *adj.* Not smoked.—His pipe *unsmok'd* lay by his side. *Swift*.

UNSMOOTH. *adj.* Rough; not even; not level.—Not used.—That lie betrow'd, unsmoothly. *Milton*.

UNSOCIAL. *adj.* [*infociabilis*, Lat.] Not sociable; not communicative of good; not suitable to society.—When time hath made us *unfociable* there. *Raleigh*.—An *unfociable* state. *Addison*.

UNSOCIABLY. *adv.* Not kindly; with ill nature.—*Unfociably* four. *L'Estr*.

UNSOCIAL. *adj.* Not social.

UNSOILED. *adj.* Not polluted; not tainted.—My *unsoil'd* name. *Shak*.—To the light, *unsoil'd* and unsofisticated. *Ray*.—Arethusa's stream remains *unsoil'd*. *Dryden*.

UNSOLD. *adj.* Not exchanged for money.—'Tis other fees, yet by his wife *unsold*. *Dryden*.—*unsold*; thus glorious mount in fire.

UNSOLDIERLIKE. *adj.* Unbecoming a soldier.—This would be *unsoldierlike* in our age. *me*.

UNOLID. *adj.* Fluid; not coherent.—The inuity of *unolid*, inseparable and unmoveable. *Locke*.

UNSOOT. for *unsweet*. *Spenser*.

UNSOPHISTICATED. *adj.* Not adulterated; not counterfeit.—Light and colours, *unsofisticated*. *More*.—Blue vitriol, *venereal* and *unsofisticated*. *Boyle*.—Plain *unsofisticated* arguments. *Locke*.

UNSOLVED. *adj.* Not explicated.—Those *unsofited*, which have hitherto been *unsofited*. *me*.—Virgil propounds a riddle which he leaves *unsofited*. *Dryden*.

UNSORTED. *adj.* Not distributed by separation.—Their ideas lie in the brain *unsorted*. *Watts*.

UNSOUGHT. *adj.* 1. Had without seeking.

—She comes *unsofited*. *Spenser*.—That would be woo'd, and not *unsofited* be won. *Milton*.—To find whom at the first they found *unsofited*. *Milt*.—Th' *unsofited* diamonds. *Milton*.—When call'd before to come, now came *unsofited*. *Milton*.—Foreign and *unsofited* ideas. *Locke*.—Whence comes this *unsofited* honour unto me. *Fenton*. 2. Not searched; not explored.—Hopeless to find, yet loth to leave *unsofited*. *Shak*.

* **UNSOOUND.** *adj.* 1. Sickly; wanting health.—Ends in an age imperfect, and *unsofited*. *Denham*.—An animal whose juices are *unsofited*, can never be duly nourished. *Arbutnot*. 2. Not free from cracks. 3. Rotten; corrupted. 4. Not orthodox.—These arguments being found and good, it cannot be *unsofited* or evil to hold still the same assertion. *Hooker*. 5. Not honest; not upright.—Left it should make me so *unsofited* a man. *Shak*. 6. Not true; not certain; not solid.—With fruitless follies and *unsofited* delights. *Spenser*. 7. Not fast; not calm.—Lifts not to eat; still mules; sleeps *unsofited*. *Daniel*. 8. Not close; not compact.—Some lands make *unsofited* cheese. *Mortimer*. 9. Not sincere; not faithful.—A certain token that his love's *unsofited*. *Gay*. 10. Not solid; not material.—Of such subtle substance and *unsofited*. *Spenser*. 11. Erroneous; wrong.—What fury, what conceit *unsofited*. *Fairfax*.—*Unsofited* and false. *Milton*. 12. Not fast under foot.

* **UNSOUNDED.** *adj.* Not tried by the plummet.—*Unsofited* yet; and full of deep deceit. *Shak*.—Forlake *unsofited* deeps to dance on sands. *Shak*.

* **UNSOOUNDNESS.** *n. s.* 1. Erroneousness of belief; want of orthodoxy.—Wherein doth the point of *unsofitedness* lie? *Hooker*. 2. Corruptness of any kind.—Neither is it apparent, with what kind of *unsofitedness* every part is possessed. *Hooker*. 3. Want of strength; want of solidity.—The *unsofitedness* of this principle has been often exposed. *Addison*.

* **UNSOURED.** *adj.* 1. Not made four.—Meat and drink last longer *unsofited* in winter than in summer. *Bacon*. 2. Not made morose.—Joy's youth *unsofited* with sorrow bears. *Dryden*.

* **UNSOOWN.** *adj.* Not propagated by scattering seed.—Mushrooms are *unsofited*. *Bacon*.—If the ground lie fallow and *unsofited*, corn flowers will not come. *Bacon*.—The flow'rs *unsofited* in fields and meadows reign'd. *Dryden*.

* **UNSPARED.** *adj.* Not spared.—The scythe of time mows down, devour *unsofited*. *Milton*.

* **UNSPARING.** *adj.* 1. Not parsimonious.—The board heaps with *unsofited* hand. *Milton*. 2. Not merciful.

* **TO UNSPEAK.** *v. a.* To retract; to recant.—*Unsofited* mine own detraction. *Shak*.

UNSPEAKABLE. *adj.* Not to be expressed; ineffable; unutterable.—That solid comfort, which is *unsofited*. *Hooker*.—To speak my grief *unsofited*. *Shak*.

Both address for fight—*Unsofited*. *Milton*.—Mighty, and *unsofited*, and not to be under stood. *South*.—*Unsofited* rage. *Addison*.

* **UNSPEAKABLY.** *adv.* Inexpressibly; ineffably.—There is something *unsofited* cheerful in a spot of ground covered with trees. *Speator*.

U u u u * **UNSPECIFIED.**

* **UNSPECIFIED.** *adj.* Not particularly mentioned.—Were it not requisite that should be concealed, it had not passed *unspecified*. *Brown.*

* **UNSPECULATIVE.** *adj.* Not theoretical.—*Unspeculative* men. *Gov. of Tongue.*

* **UNSPED.** *adj.* Not dispatched; not performed.—

Venus withdraws,

Unsped the service of the common cause. *Garth.*

* **UNSPENT.** *adj.* Not wasted; not diminished; not weakened; not exhausted.—The found cometh forth at the holes *unspent* and more strong. *Bac.*—*Unspent* too in its flight. *Dryd.*

* **To UNSPHERE.** *v. a.* To remove from its orb.—Though you would seek t' *unsphere* the stars with oaths. *Shak.*—O' *unsphere* the spirit of Plato. *Milton.*

* **UNSPIED.** *adj.* 1. Not searched; not explored.—No corner leave *unspied*. *Milt.* 2. Not seen; not discovered.—Resolv'd to find some fault, before *unspied*. *Tickell.*

* **UNSPILT.** *adj.* 1. Not shed.—That blood had been *unspilt*. *Deub.* 2. Not spoiled; not marred.—Then have of thine own, without lending, *unspilt*. *Tusser.*

* **To UNSPIRIT.** *v. a.* To dispirit; to depress; to deject.—Weak and *unspirited*. *Temple.*—To discompose and *unspirit* my soul. *Norris.*

* **UNSPOILED.** *adj.* 1. Not plundered; not pillaged.—They utterly waited whatsoever they had before left *unspoiled*. *Spens.*—The English left few ships *unspoiled* or untaken. *Hayou.*—*Unspoiled* shall be her arms. *Dryd.* 2. Not marred; not hurt; not made useless; not corrupted.—Bathurst, yet *unspoiled* by wealth. *Pope.*

* **UNSPOTTED.** *adj.* 1. Not marked with any stain.—Without *unspotted*, innocent within. *Dryd.*—And for Diana seven *unspotted* ewes. *Dryd.* 2. Immaculate; not tainted with guilt.—Pure, *unspotted* maid. *Spenser.*—A heart *unspotted* is not easily daunted. *Shak.*—There is no king can try it out with all *unspotted* foldiers. *Shak.*—To keep himself *unspotted* from the world. *James.*—An *unspotted* life is old age. *Apocrypha.*—Her fair *unspotted* tide. *Milt.*—My *unspotted* soul. *Milt.*—A pure and *unspotted* obedience. *Rogers.*

* **UNSQUARED.** *adj.* Not formed; irregular.—'Tis like a chime a-mending, with terms *unsquared*. *d. Shak.*

UNST, the most northern of the **SHETLAND** Isles, constituting a parish. It is of an irregular oblong figure, 12 miles long, and 4 broad. The surface is hilly. The chief hill is **VALLAFIELD**, which extends the whole length of the island along its W. coast. **Crossfield** crosses it in the middle. The soil is fertile though the culture is bad. The population, in 1792, was 1998, the increase 620, since 1755. The number of horses was 1000, sheep 6600, and black cattle 2000. Fine rock crystals are found in it, also jaspers and topazes. Large caves are in it 300 feet under ground.

* **UNSTABLE.** *adj.* [*instabilis*, Latin.] 1. Not fixed; not fast.—Uncertain, *unstable*, and subject to the most easy changes. *Temple.*—Thus air was void of light, and earth *unstable*. *Dryden.*—And wander roads *unstable*. *Gay.* 2. Inconstant; irolute.—*Unstable* slightness. *Shak.*—A double-minded man is *unstable*. *James.*

* **UNSTAID.** *adj.* Not cool; not prudent; not settled into discretion; not steady; mutable.—His *unslayed* youth had long wandered in the common labyrinth of love. *Spens.*—To the gardens his *unslaid* desire. *Spens.*—In whole counsel to his *unslaid* youth. *Shak.*—For undertaking to *unslaid* a journey. *Shak.*—A child's *unslaid* command. *Sandys.*

* **UNSTAIDNESS.** *n. s.* 1. Indiscretion; volatile mind. 2. Uncertain motion.—A kind of shaking *unsteadiness* over all his body. *Sidney.*

* **UNSTAINED.** *adj.* Not stained; not dyed; not discoloured; not dishonoured; not polluted.—Pure and *unstained* religion. *Hooker.*

Ne let her waves with any filth be dy'd,
But ever, like herself, *unstained* hath been try'd.

—Th' *unstained* sword that you have us'd to bear. *Shak.*—To live an *unstain'd* wife to my sweet love. *Shak.*—An *unstain'd* shepherd. *Shak.*—*Unstain'd* with hostile blood. *Milt.*—*Unstain'd* with gold and fee. *Milt.*—Her people guiltless, and her fields *unstain'd*. *Rosc.*—These, of the garter call'd of faith *unstained*. *Dryden.*

* **To UNSTATE.** *v. a.* To put out of dignity.—High-battled Cæsar will *unstate* his happiness. *Shak.*—I would *unstate* myself to be in a due resolution. *Shak.*

* **UNSTATUTABLE.** *adj.* Contrary to statute.—Although the case were notoriously *unstatutable*. *Swift.*

* **UNSTAUNCHED.** *adj.* Not stopped; not stayed.—*Unstaunch'd* thirst. *Shak.*

* **UNSTEADFAST.** *adj.* Not fixed; not fast; not resolute.—On the *unsteadfast* footing of a spear. *Shak.*

* **UNSTEADILY.** *adv.* 1. Without any certainty. 2. Inconstantly; not consistently.—He uses his words loosely and *unsteadily*. *Locke.*

* **UNSTEADINESS.** *n. s.* Want of consistency; irresolution; mutability.—To fix the *unsteadiness* of our politicks. *Addis.*—The same business, and obduracy, and *unsteadiness*. *Swift.*

* **UNSTEADY.** *adj.* 1. Inconstant; irresolute.—Her *unsteady* hand. *Denham.*—An *unsteady* mind. *L'Estr.*—He will be still *unsteady*. *Rome.* 2. Mutable; variable; changeable.—*Unsteady* winds. *Locke.* 3. Not fixed; not settled.

* **UNSTEEPED.** *adj.* Not soaked.—Other wheat was sown *unsteeped*. *Bacon.*

* **To UNSTING.** *v. a.* To disarm of a sting.—He has disarmed his afflictions, *unsting* his miseries. *South.*

* **UNSTINTED.** *adj.* Not limited.—*Unstinted* goodness. *Shelton.*

* **UNSTIRRED.** *adj.* Not stirred; not agitated.—Such seeming milks suffered to stand *unstirred*. *Boyle.*

* **To UNSTITCH.** *v. a.* To open by picking the stitches.—Cato observes friendship ought not to be unripped, but *unstitched*. *Cællier.*

* **UNSTOOPING.** *adj.* Not bending; not yielding.—The *unstooping* firmness of my upright soul. *Shak.*

* **To UNSTOP.** *v. a.* To free from stop or obstruction; to open.—Such white fumes have been afforded, by *unstoping* a liquor diaphanous and red. *Boyle.*—The ears of the deaf shall be *unstoped*.

topped. Isa.—One would wonder to find such a multitude of nitches *unstopped*. *Addison.*

* **UNSTOPPED.** *adj.* Meeting no resistance. The flame *unstopp'd* at first more fury gains. *Dryd.*

* **UNSTRAINED.** *adj.* Easy; not forced.—An easy and *unstrain'd* derivation. *Hakew.*

* **UNSTRAITENED.** *adj.* Not contracted.—An *unstraitened* goodness. *Glanville.*

* **UNSTRENGTHENED.** *adj.* Not supported; not assisted.—*Unstrengthened* with authority. *Hooker.*

* **TO UNSTRING.** *v. a.* 1. To relax any thing strung; to deprive of strings.—Or an *unstringed* viol or harp. *Shak.*—'Till nature's musicies *unstring*. *Prior.*—His arrows scattered, and his bow *unstrung*. *Smith.* 2. To loose; to untie.—His garland they *unstring*, and bind his hands. *Dryden.*

* **UNSTRUCK.** *adj.* Not moved; not affected.—*Unstruck* with horror at the sight. *Philips.*

* **UNSTUDIED.** *adj.* Not premeditated; not laboured.—Ready and *unstudied* words. *Dryden.*

* **UNSTUFFED.** *adj.* Unfilled; not crowded.—Unbruis'd youth, with *unstuff'd* brain. *Shak.*

* **UNSUBSTANTIAL.** *adj.* 1. Not solid; not palpable.—Welcome, thou *unsubstantial* air that I embrace. *Shak.*

Darkness now rose,
As daylight funk, and brought in low'ring night,
Her shadowy offspring *unsubstantial* both. *Milt.*
2. Not real.—Empty, *unsubstantial* beings. *Addis.*

* **UNSUCCESSDED.** *adj.* Not succeeded.—One over all, with *unsucceded* power. *Milt.*

* **UNSUCCESSFUL.** *adj.* Not having the wished event; not fortunate.—O the sad fate of *unsuccessful* fin! *Cleavel.*

Ye pow'rs return'd
From *unsuccessful* charge! *Milton.*

—So unpleasing and *unsuccessful*. *Milt.*—My counsels may be *unsuccessful*. *Denb.*—The corruption of man's will is the cause that rendered all his arguments *unsuccessful*. *South.*—The *unsuccessful* lover. *Addis.*—Successful *unsuccessful* authors. *Addis.*—*Unsuccessful* in their pursuit after fame. *Addis.*—*Unsuccessful* satire. *Pope.*

* **UNSUCCESSFULLY.** *adv.* Unfortunately; without success.—The ambitious man attempts to please others *unsuccessfully*. *South.*

* **UNSUCCESSFULNESS.** *n. s.* Want of success; event contrary to wish.—Upon the *unsuccessfulness* of milder medicaments, apply the censures of the church. *Hammond.*

* **UNSUCCESSIVE.** *adj.* Not proceeding by flux of parts.—The *unsuccessive* and stable direction of God. *Brown.*—The *unsuccessive* duration of God. *Hale.*

* **UNSUCKED.** *adj.* Not having the breasts drawn.—*Unuck'd* of lamb or kid. *Milton.*

* **UNSUFFERABLE.** *adj.* Not supportable; intolerable; not to be endured.—In most *unsufferable* manner. *Hooker.*—That glorious form, that light *unsufferable*. *Milton.*—They are more *unsufferable* by her natural sluttishness. *Swift.*

* **UNSUCCESSFULNESS.** *n. s.* [insufficiency, Fr.] Inability to answer the end proposed.—The error and *unsufficiency* of the arguments. *Hooker.*

UNSUCCESSFUL. *adj.* [insufficient, Fr.] Un-

able; inadequate.—Malebranche shewed the difficulties of the other ways, and how *unsufficient* they are. *Locke.*

* **UNSUGARED.** *adj.* Not sweetened with sugar.—Try it with water *unsugar'd*. *Bacon.*

* **UNSUITABLE.** *adj.* Not congruous; not equal; not proportionate.—Richly suited, but *unsuitable*. *Shak.*—*Unsuitable* to her disposition. *Shak.*—Hard recompence, *unsuitable* return. *Milt.*—All that heaven and happiness signifies is *unsuitable* to a wicked man. *Tillots.*—Expences *unsuitable* to our circumstances. *Atterb.*—*Unsuitable* with the civil and religious liberties we so zealously assert. *Swift.*

* **UNSUITABLENESS.** *n. s.* Incongruity; unsuitness.—The *unsuitableness* of one man's aspect to another man's fancy. *South.*

* **UNSUETING.** *adj.* Not fitting; not becoming.—A passion most *unsueting* such a man. *Shak.*—Leave thy joys, *unsueting* such an age. *Dryden.*

* **UNSULLIED.** *adj.* Not fouled; not disgraced; pure.—Pure as the *unsullied* lily. *Shak.*—*Unsullied* honour of your church. *Spratt.*—Rays which on Hough's *unsullied* mitre shine. *Pope.*—An *unbetcomb* of pure, *unsully'd* lays. *Shak.*

* **UNSUNG.** *adj.* Not celebrated in verse; not recited in verse.—Nor pass'd *uncelebrated*, nor *unsung*. *Milton.*—Half yet remains *unsung*. *Milton.*—Not a mountain rears its head *unsung*. *Addison.*

* **UNSUNNED.** *adj.* Not exposed to the sun.—I thought her as chaste as *unsunn'd* snow. *Shak.*—You may as well spread out the *unsunn'd* heaps. *Milton.*

* **UNSUPERFLUOUS.** *adj.* Not more than enough.—In *unsuperfluous*, even proportion. *Milt.*

* **UNSUPPLANTED.** *adj.* 1. Not forced, or thrown from under that which supports it.—Each to his home with *unsupplanted* feet. *Philips.* 2. Not defeated by stratagem.

* **UNSUPPLIED.** *adj.* Not supplied; not accommodated with something necessary.—Her fire left *unsupplied* her only want. *Dryden.*—Unmindful of the *unsupplied* distress of other men. *Speator.*

* **UNSUPPORTABLE.** *adj.* [insupportable, Fr.] Intolerable; such as cannot be endured.—The uneasiness of unrelieved thirst, by continuance grows the more *unsupportable*. *Boyle.*—The ardent heat, would be otherwise *unsupportable*. *Woodw.*

* **UNSUPPORTABLY.** *adv.* Intolerably.—*Unsupportably* miserable. *South.*

* **UNSUPPORTED.** *adj.* 1. Not sustained; not held up.—Herself, though fairest *unsupported* flow'r. *Milton.* 2. Not assisted.—Our single and *unsupported* endeavours. *Brown.*

* **UNSURE.** *adj.* Not fixed; not certain.—What's to come is still *unsure*. *Shak.*—To hard assays unfit, *unsure* at need. *Fairfax.*—The king, supposed his estate to be most safe, when most *unsure*. *Hayw.*—*Unsure* the tenure. *Pope.*

* **UNSURMOUNTABLE.** *adj.* [insurmountable, Fr.] Insuperable; not to be overcome.—What safety is it, for avoiding *unsurmountable* rubs in one opinion, to take refuge in the contrary? *Locke.*

* **UNSUSCEPTIBLE.** *adj.* Incapable; not liable to admit.—*Unsusceptible* of stain. *Swift.*

* **UNSUSPECT.**

- * **UNSUSPECT.** } *adj.* Not considered as
 * **UNSUSPECTED.** } likely to do or mean ill.
 —The dangerous and *unsuspected* Hastings. *Shak.*
 —Author *unsuspect*. *Milton.*—Found *unsuspected*
 way. *Milton.*—An *unsuspected* glutton live. *Dryd.*
 —*Unsuspect* of avarice or corruption. *Swift.*
 * **UNSUSPECTING.** *adj.* Not imagining
 that any ill is designed.—Sudden, before some *un-*
suspecting town. *Pope.*
 * **UNSUSPICIOUS.** *adj.* Having no suspicion.
 —He *unsuspicious* led him. *Milton.*—With eager
 hope and *unsuspicious* faith. *Smith.*
 * **UNSUSTAINED.** *adj.* Not supported; not
 held up.—Hung drooping, *unsustain'd*. *Milton.*—
 All *unsustain'd* between the wave and sky. *Pope.*
 * **UNSWATHE.** *v. a.* To free from folds
 or convolutions of bandage.—In the morning an
 old woman came to *unswathe* me. *Addison.*
 * **UNSWAYABLE.** *adj.* Not to be governed
 or influenced by another.—But to be rough, *un-*
swayable, and free. *Shak.*
 * **UNSWAYED.** *adj.* Not wielded; not held
 in the hand.—Is the chair empty? is the sword *un-*
sway'd. *Shak.*
 * **TO UNSWEAR.** *v. n.* Not to swear; to re-
 cant any thing sworn.—And oft *unswear*. *Spenser.*
 * **TO UNSWEAT.** *v. a.* To ease after fatigue;
 to cool after exercise.—*Unswearing* themselves regu-
 larly. *Milton.*
 * **UNSWEATING.** *adj.* Not sweating.—They
 rub th' *unsweating* brow, and swear they sweat.
Dryden.
 * **UNSWEET.** *adj.* Not sweet; disagreeable.
 —And make the life *unsweet*. *Spenser.*
 * **UNSWEPT.** *adj.* Not brushed away; not
 cleaned by sweeping.—The dust of antique time
 would lie *unswept*. *Shak.*
 * **UNSWORN.** *adj.* Not bound by an oath.
 You are yet *unsworn*. *Shak.*
 * **UNTAINTED.** *adj.* 1. Not sullied; not
 polluted.—Th' *untainted* virtue of your years.
Shak.—What stronger breast-plate than a heart
untainted? *Shak.*—Ireland's *untainted* loyalty re-
 main'd. *Roscommon.*—Fresh and *untainted*. *South.*
 —This *untainted* year is all your own. *Dryden.*
 —The most *untainted* credit of a witness. *Locke.*
 —Keep the air of the room *untainted*. *Arbutnot.*
 2. Not charged with any crime.—*Untainted*, un-
 examin'd, free, at liberty. *Shak.* 3. Not corrup-
 ted by mixture.—Th' *untainted* winds refuse th'
 infecting load. *Smith.*
 * **UNTAKEN.** *adj.* 1. Not taken.—Until this
 day remaineth the vail *untaken* away. 2 *Cor. iii.*
 —They left few ships *untaken* or *untaken*. *Hayes.*
 Dispose already of th' *untaken* spoil. *Waller.*
 —Jerusalem remain'd *untaken*. *Dryden.*—Elate in
 thought, he sacks *untaken* Troy. *Pope.* 2. **UN-**
TAKEN UP. Not filled.—The narrow limits of this
 discourse, will leave no more room *untaken* up by
 heaven. *Boyle.*
 * **UNTALKED OF.** *adj.* Not mentioned in
 the world.—Leap to these arms, *untalked* of and
 unseen. *Shak.*—Th' unknown, *untalk'd* of man is
 only blest. *Dryden.*
 * **UNTAMEABLE.** *adj.* Not to be tamed;
 not to be subdued.—Gold is *untameable* by the
 fire. *Wilkins.*—He is swifter than any other bull,
 and *untameable*. *Grew.*
 * **UNTAMED.** *adj.* Not subdued; not dis-
 pressed; not softened by culture or discipline.—
 people very stubborn and *untamed*. *Spenser.*—
 so *untam'd*, so turbulent a mind. *Dryden.*—The
 wild and most *untamed* part of the creation. *Locke.*
 * **TO UNTANGLE.** *v. a.* To loose from in-
 tricacy or convulsion.—O time, thou mak'st us
tangle this, not I. *Shak.*—Which, once *untangl'd*,
 much misfortune bodes. *Shak.*—*Untangle* but the
 cruel chain. *Prior.*
 * **UNTASTED.** *adj.* Not tasted; not tried by
 the palate.—Leaves the *untasted* spring behind.
Waller.—A new repast, or an *untasted* spring. *Addi-*
 * **UNTASTING.** *adj.* 1. Not perceiving any
 taste.—Glides o'er the *untasting* tongue. *Smith.*
 2. Not trying by the palate.
 * **UNTAUGHT.** *adj.* 1. Uninstructed; un-
 educated; ignorant; unlettered.—A lie is contin-
 ually in the mouth of the *untaught*. *Eccles. xx.*—
 Taught, or *untaught*, the dunce is still the same.
Dryden.
 In every stream a sweet instruction flows;
 But some *untaught* o'erhear the whispering will.
 In spite of sacred leisure, blockheads still. *Yamoy.*
 2. Debar'd from instruction.—He, that from a
 child *untaught*, or a wild inhabitant of the woods
 will expect principles of sciences, will find him-
 self mistaken. *Locke.* 3. Unkilled; new; not
 having use or practice.—Us'd to command, *un-*
taught to plead for favour. *Shak.*
 * **TO UNTEACH.** *v. a.* To make to quit, or
 forget what has been inculcated.—That elder
 berries are poison, experience will *unteach* the
 Boy. *Shak.*—But we, by art, *unteach* what nature
 taught. *Dryden.*
 * **UNTEACHABLE.** *adj.* That cannot be
 taught.
 * **UNTEMPERED.** *adj.* Not tempered.—
 One built up a wall, and others daubed it with
untempered mortar. *Ezek. xiii. 10.*
 * **UNTEMPTED.** *adj.* 1. Not embarrassed by
 temptation.—With the help of a prudent *un-*
tempted guide. *Taylor.* 2. Not invited by any thing
 alluring.—*Untempted*, or by wager or by price.
Cotton.
 * **UNTENABLE.** *adj.* 1. Not to be held in
 possession. 2. Not capable of defence.—The town
 being *untenable*. *Clarendon.*—Casaubon abandons
 a post that was *untenable*. *Dryden.*
 * **UNTENANTED.** *adj.* Having no tenant.
 —No ground being *untenanted*. *Temple.*
 * **UNTENDED.** *adj.* Not having any attend-
 ance.—They fall, unblest, *untended*, and unmournd.
Thomson.
 * **UNTENDER.** *adj.* Wanting softness; want-
 ing affection.—So young, and so *untender*. *Shak.*
 * **UNTENDERED.** *adj.* Not offered.—A tri-
 bute, by thee lately left *untender'd*. *Shak.*
 * **TO UNTENT.** *v. a.* To bring out of a tent.
 —*Untent* his person, and share the air with us. *Shak.*
 * **UNTERED.** *adj.* [from *tent*.] Having no
 medicaments applied.—Th' *untered* woundings
 of a father's curse. *Shak.*
 * **UNTERGLICHEN,** a territory of Germany,
 allotted, in the division of indemonities, to the king
 of Prussia.
 * **UNTRIFIED.** *adj.* Not affrighted; not
 struck with fear.—Unhaken, uneduc'd, *un-*
trified. *Shak.*

Milton.—Unbrib'd by love, *unterrify'd* by
s. *A. Philip*.

UNTERWALDEN. See **UNDERWALDEN**.
UNTHANKED. *adj.* 1. Not repaid with
acknowledgment of kindness.—*Tb'* All-giver
1 be *unthank'd*, would be unprais'd. *Milt*.
Their batter'd admiral too soon withdrew
thank'd by ours for his unfinish'd fight. *Dryd*.
It received with thankfulness.—Unwelcome
om, and *unthank'd* reprove. *Dryden*.

UNTHANKFUL. *adj.* Ungrateful; return-
no acknowledgment for good received.—An
unkful abuse of the fruits. *Hooker*.—He is kind
e *unthankful*. *Luke*, vi.—They were *unthankful*
him which prepared life for them. 2 *Ejdr*. viii.
ou are *unthankful* for the blessing. *Taylor*.—It
es us *unthankful* for all that's left. *L'Estrange*.
UNTHANKFULLY. *adv.* Without thanks;
out gratitude.—I judged it requisite to say
ething, to prevent my being thought to have
thankfully taken one of the chief passages of my
ourse from a book to which I was utterly a
nger. *Boyle*.

UNTHANKFULNESS. *n. f.* Neglect or
ission of acknowledgments for good received;
not of sense of benefits; ingratitude.—*Thou*
st in thine *unthankfulness*. *Shak*.—Immoderate
ours breed *unthankfulness*. *Hayward*.—The
thankful stand reckoned among the most enor-
ous sinners, which evinces the virtue opposite
unthankfulness to bear the same place in the
rk of duties. *South*.

* **UNTHAWED**. *adj.* Not dissolved after frost.
The river yet *unthaw'd*. *Pope*.

* **TO UNTHINK**. *v. a.* To recal, or dismiss
thought.—*Unthink* your speaking and say no
ore. *Shak*.

* **UNTHINKING**. *adj.* Thoughtless; not
even to reflection.—*Unthinking* plainness fo o'er-
broad thy mind. *Creech*.—*Unthinking* men to be-
come thinking. *Locke*.—The *unthinking* part con-
tract an unreasonable aversion to that ecclesiastical
constitution. *Addison*.—With earnest eyes, and
ound *unthinking* face. *Pope*.

* **UNTHORNY**. *adj.* Not obstructed by
rickles.—A paradise, or *unthorny* place of know-
edge. *Brown*.

* **UNTHOUGHT** *of*. *adj.* Not regarded;
not heeded.—Your *unthought* of Harry. *Shak*.

* **TO UNTHREAD**. *v. a.* To loose.—He with
his bare wand can *unthread* thy joints. *Milt*.

* **UNTHREATENED**. *adj.* Not menaced.
—Sir John Hotham was unrepurchased, and *un-*
threatened. *K. Charles*.

(1.) * **UNTHRIFT**. *n. s.* An extravagant; a
prodigal.—Upstart *unthrifts*. *Shak*.—The curious
unthrift makes his cloaths too wide. *Herbert*.—
Thy father will receive his *unthrift* home. *Dryd*.

(2.) * **UNTHRIFT**. *adj.* Profuse; wasteful;
prodigal; extravagant.—She with an *unthrift* love,
did run from Venice. *Shak*.

* **UNTHRIFTILY**. *adv.* Without frugality.
—We manage a narrow fortune very *unthriftily*.
Collier.

* **UNTHRIFTINESS**. *n. f.* Waste; prodiga-
lity; profusion.—The third sort are the poor by
idleness or *unthriftiness*. *Hayward*.—They should
endeavour to expiate that *unthriftiness*. *Gov. Tong*.

* **UNTHRIFTY**. *adj.* 1. Prodigal; profuse;
lavish; wasteful.—His *unthrift* son. *Sidney*.—Can
no man tell me of my *unthrift* son. *Shak*. 2.
Not in a state of improvement.—Our abstinence
makes us *unthrift* to our knowledge. *Shak*. 3.
Not easily made to thrive or fatten. A low word.
—Grains given to a hide-bound or *unthrift* horse,
recover him. *Mortimer*.

* **UNTHRIVING**. *adj.* Not thriving; not
prospering; not growing rich.—*Unthriving* trade.
Gov. of Tongue.

* **TO UNTHRONE**. *v. a.* To pull down from a
throne.—Him to *unthrone*, we then may hope. *Milt*.

* **TO UNTIE**. *v. a.* 1. To unbind; to free
from bonds.—Though you *untie* the winds. *Shak*.
2. To loosen; to make not fast; to unfasten.—
Untie his iron chain. *Waller*.—The chain I'll in re-
turn *untie*. *Prior*. 3. To loosen from convulsion
or knot.—Her snakes *untied*, sulphureous waters
drink. *Pope*. 4. To set free from any obstruction.
—All the evils of an *untied* tongue. *Taylor*. 5. To
resolve; to clear.—They quicken sloth, perplexities
untie. *Denham*.—A little more study will *untie*
the knot, and make your doubts vanish. *Watts*.

* **UNTIED**. *adj.* 1. Not bound; not gather-
ed in a knot.—Her hair *untied*. *Prior*. 2. Not
fastened by any binding or knot.—Your shoe
untied. *Shak*. 3. Not fast. 4. Not held by any tie
or band.

(1.) * **UNTIL**. *adv.* 1. To the time that.—The
sceptre shall not depart from Judah, *until* Shiloh
come. *Gen*.—Treasons never are believ'd, *until*
they come to act. *Denb*. 2. To the place that.—
In open prospect nothing bounds our eye,
Until the earth seems join'd unto the sky. *Dryd*.

3. To the degree that.—Thou shalt push Syria
until they be consumed. *Chron*.

(2.) * **UNTIL**. *prep.* 1. To. Used of time.—
His sons were priests *until* the day of captivity.
Judges. 2. To. Used of objects. Obsolete.—
So soon as he from far descri'd

Those glitt'ring arms, that heaven with light did
fill,
He rous'd himself full blithe, and hasten'd them
until. *Spenser*.

* **UNTILLED**. *adj.* Not cultivated.—The
glebe *untill'd*, might plenteous crops have borne.
Blackmore.—Lands lain long *untill'd*. *Mortimer*.—
The soil *untill'd*, a ready harvest yields;
With wheat and barley wave the golden fields.

Pope.
* **UNTIMBERED**. *adj.* Not furnished with
timber; weak.—Weak *untimber'd* sides. *Shak*.

(1.) * **UNTIMELY**. *adj.* Happening before the
natural time.—*Tb'* *untimely* emptying of the hap-
py throne. *Shak*.—With tears lament the knight's
untimely fate. *Dryd*.—'Till death *untimely* stopp'd
his tuneful tongue. *Pope*.

(2.) * **UNTIMELY**. *adv.* Before the natural time.
—All other fair, like flowers, *untimely* fade. *Spens*.
If ever he have child, abortive be it;
Prodigious and *untimely* brought to light. *Shak*.
—How sweet a plant have you *untimely* crop't?
Shak.—Why came I so *untimely* forth? *Waller*.

* **UNTINGED**. *adj.* 1. Not stained; not dis-
coloured.—It appears what beams are *untinged*.
Boyle. 2. Not infected.—Pope has the same defect,
neither is Bolingbroke *untinged* with it. *Swift*.

* **UNTIRABLE**.

* **UNTIRABLE.** *adj.* Indefatigable; unwearyed.—To an *untirable* and continue goodnefs, *Shak.*

* **UNTIRE.** *adj.* Not made weary.—Hath he fo long held out with me *untir'd*. *Shak.*—See great Marcellus! how *untir'd* in toils. *Dryd.*

* **UNTITLED.** *adj.* [un and title.] Having no title.—With an *untitled* tyrant, bloody fcepter'd. *Shak.*

* **UNTO.** *prep.* [It was the old word to; now obfolete.] To. See To.—O continue thy loving kindnefs *unto* them! *Ps.*—It was their hurt untruly to attribute fuch great power *unto* falfe gods. *Hooker.*—Unawares me wrought *unto* her wicked will. *Spens.*—The ufe of the navel is to continue the infant *unto* the mother. *Brown.*—Children permitted the freedom of both hands, often confine *unto* the left. *Brown.*—Whate'er of life remains *unto* myfelf. *Temple.*

* **UNTOLD.** *adj.* 1. Not related.—Their grief *untold*, would pine and die. *Waller.* 2. Not revealed.—Such a tale fhall be left *untold* by me. *Dryd.* 3. Not numbered.

* **UNTOUCHED.** *adj.* 1. Not touched; not reached.—Achilles, though dipt in Styx, yet having his heel *untouched* by that water, was flain in that part. *Brown.*—Three men paffed through a fiery furnace *untouched*, unfinged. *Stephens.* 2. Not moved; not affected.—Wholly *untouched* with his agonies. *Sidney.* 3. Not meddled with.—Th' abode of nymphs, *untouched* by former hands. *Dryden.*—Thefe tracts muft have lain *untouched* for fome ages. *Addif.*

* **UNTOWARD.** *adj.* 1. Froward; perverfe; vexatious; not eafily guided, or taught.—Then haft thou taught Hortenfio to be *untoward*. *Shak.*

The ladies prove averfe,

And more *untoward* to be won. *Hudibras.*
—They were a crofs, odd, *untoward* people. *South.*—Some men have made a very *untoward* ufe of it. *Woodw.* 2. Awkward; ungraceful.—*Untoward* words, fcarce loofen'd from the things. *Creech.*—Some clergymen hold down their heads within an inch of the cushion; which, befides the *untoward* manner, hinder them from making the beft advantage of their voice. *Swift.* 3. Inconvenient; troublefome; unmanageable.—

When any Jew did make a vow,

Which afterwards he found *untoward*,
Or stubborn to be kept, or too hard. *Hudib.*
(1.) * **UNTOWARDLY.** *adj.* Awkward; perverfe; froward.—They learn *untowardly* tricks and vices. *Locke.*

(2.) * **UNTOWARDLY.** *adv.* Awkwardly; ungainly; perverfely.—He acts as *untowardly* and as crofsly as can be. *Tillotf.*—He explained them very *untowardly*. *Tillotf.*

* **UNTRACEABLE.** *adj.* Not to be traced.—The workings of Providence are fecret and *untraceable*. *Smith.*

* **UNTRACED.** *adj.* Not marked by any footfteps.—Through *untrac'd* ways, and airy paths I fly. *Denham.*

* **UNTRACTABLE.** *adj.* [intractable, French; *intractabilis*, Lat.] 1. Not yielding to common

meafures and management; not governable; stubborn.—The French began to be stiff, and almoft *untractable*. *Hayw.*—A fon thus perverfe and *untractable*. *Locke.*—Ulcers *untractable* in the legs. *Arbutnot.* 2. Rough; difficult.—I forc'd to ride th' *untractable* abyfs. *Milton.*

* **UNTRACTABLENESS.** *n. f.* Unwillingnefs, or unfitnefs to be regulated or managed; stubbornnefs.—The dulcnefs or *untractablenefs* of thofe faculties. *Locke.*

* **UNTRADING.** *adj.* Not engaged in commerce.—In *untrading* and unskilful hands. *Locke.*

* **UNTRAINED.** *adj.* 1. Not educated; not inftructed; not difciplined.—My wit *untrain'd* in any kind of art. *Shak.*—An *untrained*. *Hayw.*—*Untrain'd* in arms, where rafinefs leads not on. *Milt.*—No expert general will bring a company of raw, *untrained* men into the field. *Dec. of Piet.* 2. Irregular; ungovernable.—

Gad not abroad at ev'ry queft and call

Of an *untrained* hope or paffion. *Herbert.*

* **UNTRANSFERRABLE.** *adj.* Incapable of being given from one to another.—In parliament there is a rare co-ordination of power, though the fovereignty remain ftill entire and *untransferrable* in the prince. *Howel.*

* **UNTRANSPARENT.** *adj.* Not diaphanous; opaque.—They exhibited an *untransparent* blue. *Boyle.*

* **UNTRAVELLED.** *adj.* 1. Never trodden by paffengers.—To wander in America, and *untravelld* parts. *Brown.* 2. Having never feen foreign countries.—An *untravelled* Englifhman. *Addifon.*

* **To UNTREAD.** *v. a.* To tread back; to go back in the fame fteps.—We will *untread* the fteps of damned flight. *Shak.*

* **UNTREASURED.** *adj.* Not laid up; not re-pofited.—They found the bed *untreasur'd* of their miftrefs. *Shak.*

* **UNTREATABLE.** *adj.* Not treatable; not practicable.—Men of *untreatable* temper. *Decay of Piet.*

* **UNTRIED.** *adj.* 1. Not yet attempted.—Ways of danger, by himfelf *untry'd*. *Milt.*—That fhe no ways nor means may leave *untry'd*. *Denh.* 2. Not yet experienced.—To try what rafh *untry'd* I fought. *Milt.*—Some *untry'd* pleasure. *Atterbury.*—The *untry'd* condition of a feparation. *Collier.*

Through what variety of *untry'd* being,

Through what new fcenes and changes muft we pafs? *Addif.*

3. Not having paffed trial.—Ventures his filial virtue, though *untry'd*. *Milt.*

* **UNTRIUMPHABLE.** *adj.* Which allows no triumph.—*Untriumphable* fray. *Hudibras.*

* **UNTROD.** } *adj.* Not paffed; not

* **UNTRODDED.** } marked by the foot.—By human fteps *untrod*. *Milt.*—By the fun's team *untrod*. *Milt.*—In fuch *untrod*den ways. *Waller.*—Th' *untrod*den path. *Addif.*

* **UNROLLED.** *adj.* Not bowled; not rolled along.—Hard fate! *unroll'd* is now the charming dye. *Dryd.*

END OF VOLUME TWENTY-SECOND.

EDINBURGH:

Printed by JOHN BROWN.

STEREOMETER.

Plate CCCXIX.

Fig. 7.

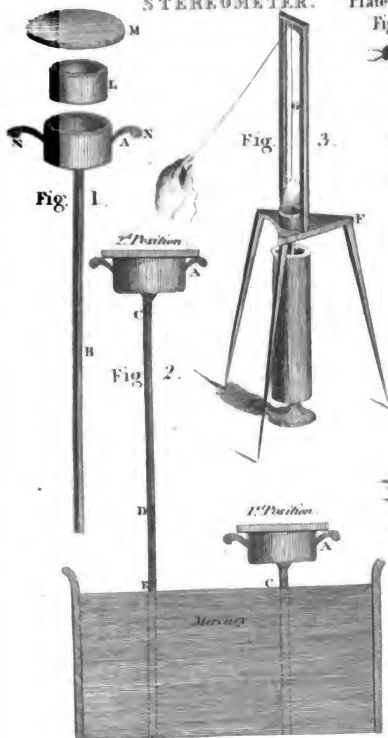


Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 3.

TERMES.

Fig. 5.

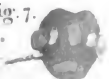


Fig. 6.

Fig. 2.

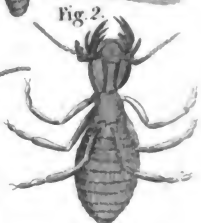


Fig. 9.



Fig. 8.

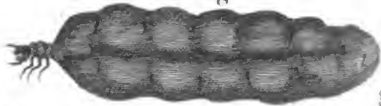


Fig. 1.



Fig. 10.



Fig. 1.

Terebratula.

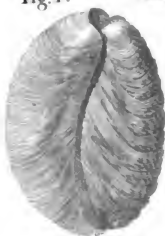


Fig. 2.



Vampyre.



Engraved by Google

Fig. 1.



TELEGRAPH.

Plate CCCXXI.

Fig. 1.

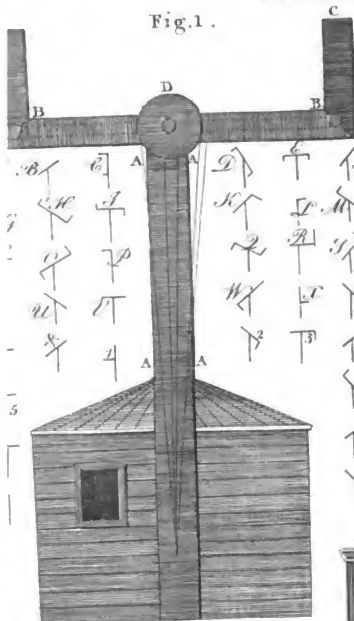


Fig. 3.



Fig. 1.

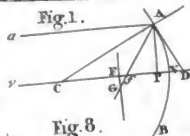
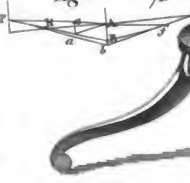


Fig. 8.



TELESCOPE.

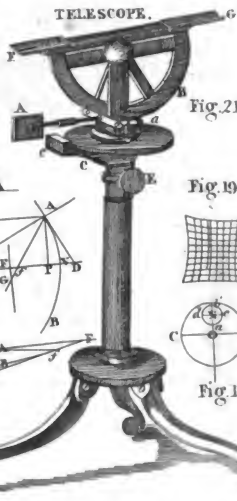


Fig. 21.

Fig. 19.



Fig. 11.



Fig. 2.

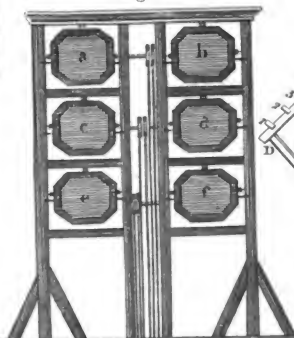
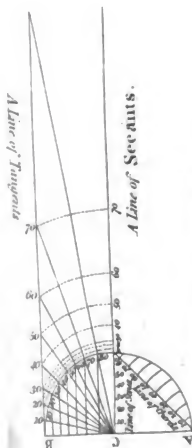
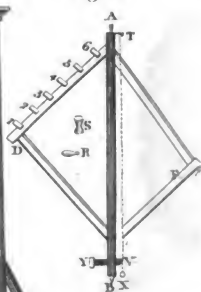


Fig. 19.



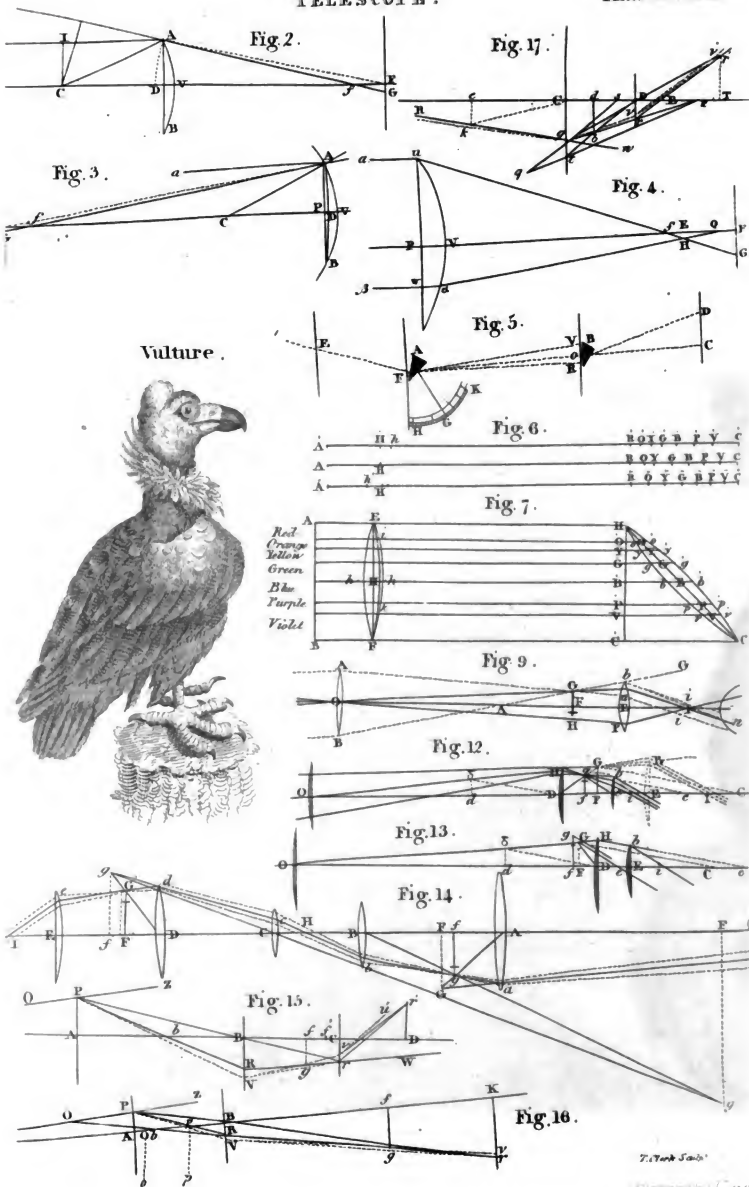


Fig. 18.



Hearing Trumpet.

THERMOMETER.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

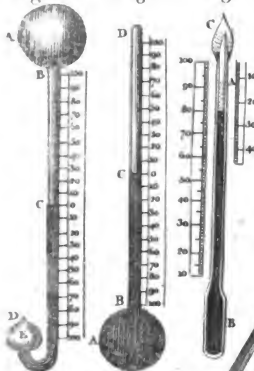


Fig. 2.



Fig. 1.



Fig. 4.



Fig. 5.



Herschel's Grand Telescope.

Fig. 22.

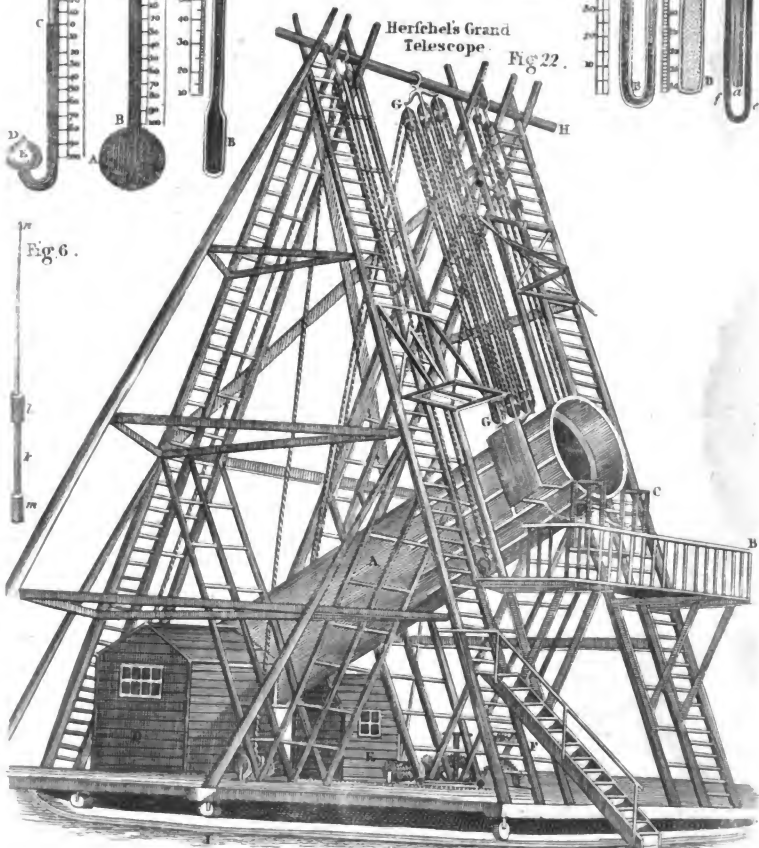


Fig. 6.



TELESCOPE
Fig 20.

Marine Trumpet.

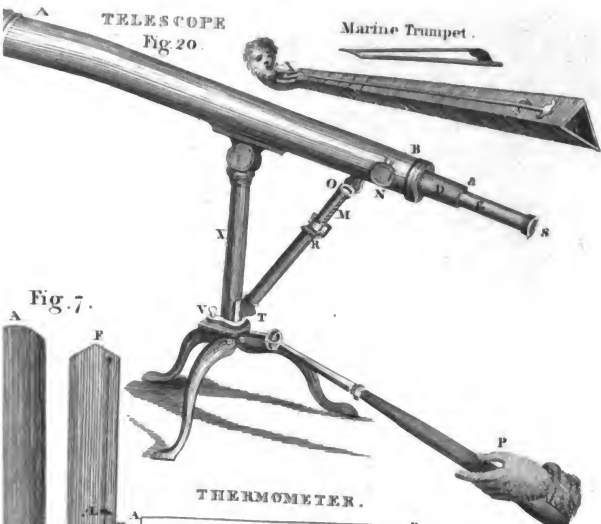


Fig. 8.

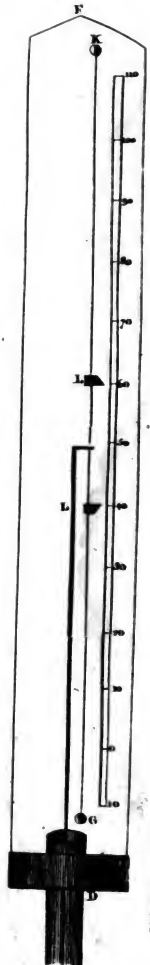


Fig. 7.



THERMOMETER.

TURNING.

Fig. 9.

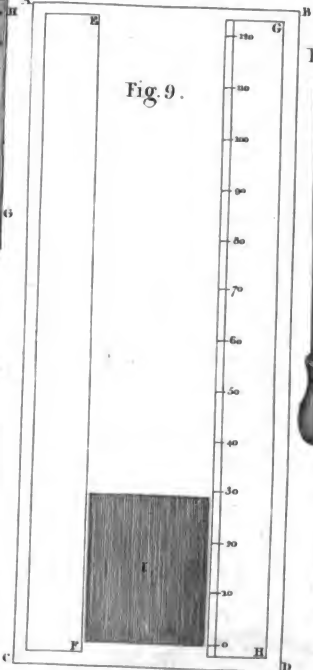


Fig. 2.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.



Fig. 3.

Thermometer	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	XIII	XIV	XV	XVI	XVII	XVIII
Fahrenheit	112	108	104	100	96	92	88	84	80	76	72	68	64	60	56	52	48	44
Fahrenheit	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Fahrenheit	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
Fahrenheit	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76
Fahrenheit	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64
Fahrenheit	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Fahrenheit	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Fahrenheit	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Fahrenheit	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Fahrenheit	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Fahrenheit	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Reaumur	112	108	104	100	96	92	88	84	80	76	72	68	64	60	56	52	48	44
Reaumur	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Reaumur	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
Reaumur	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76
Reaumur	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64
Reaumur	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Reaumur	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Reaumur	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Reaumur	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Reaumur	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Reaumur	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Celsius	112	108	104	100	96	92	88	84	80	76	72	68	64	60	56	52	48	44
Celsius	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Celsius	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
Celsius	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76
Celsius	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64
Celsius	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Celsius	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Celsius	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Celsius	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Celsius	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Celsius	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

White Bear



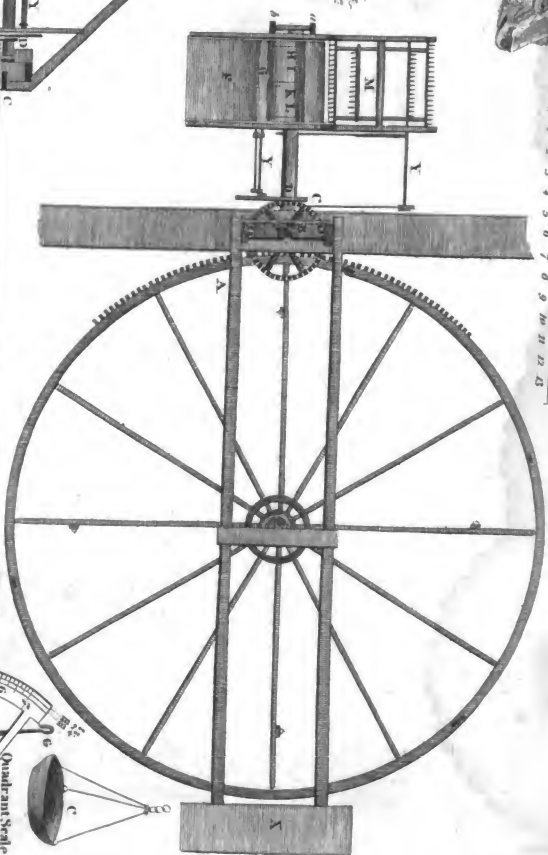
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
Scale of Feet

THRASHING MACHINE.

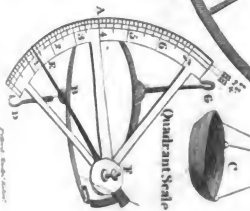
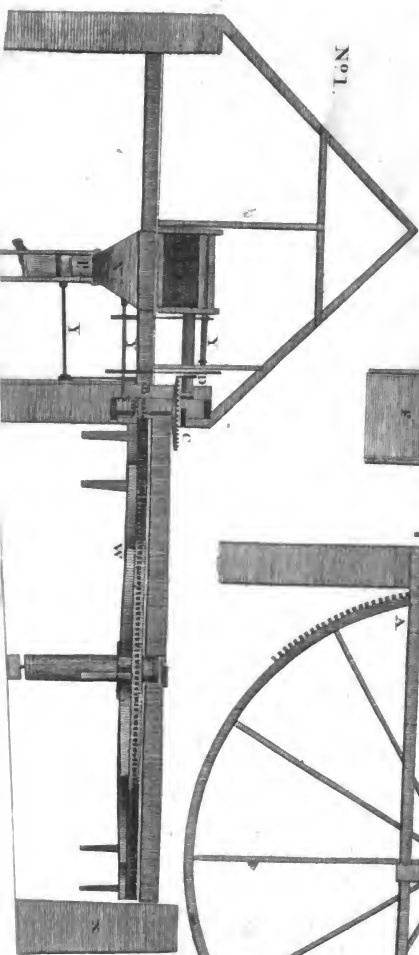
Scale of Feet.

1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

No 2.



No 1.



Quadrant Scale

Fig. 1.

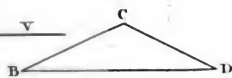


Fig. 3.

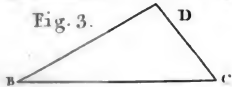


Fig. 5.

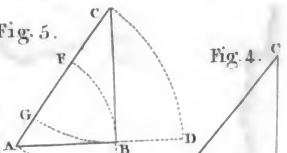


Fig. 4.

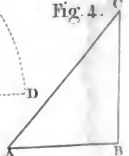


Fig. 2.

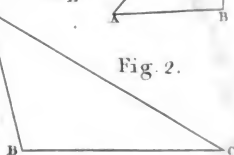


Fig. 6.

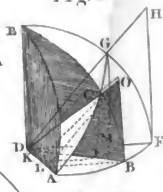


Fig. 12.



Fig. 10.



Fig. 11.

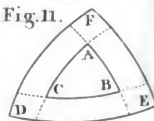


Fig. 2.

Fig. 8.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 7.

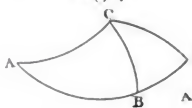
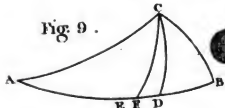


Fig. 9.

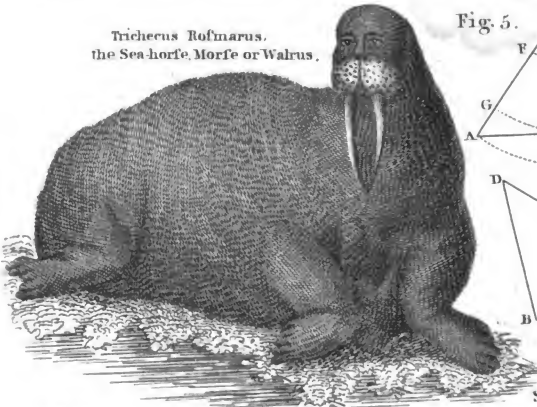


TRUMPET MARINE

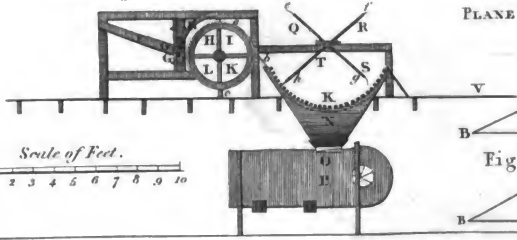
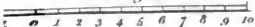


French Sample Plate

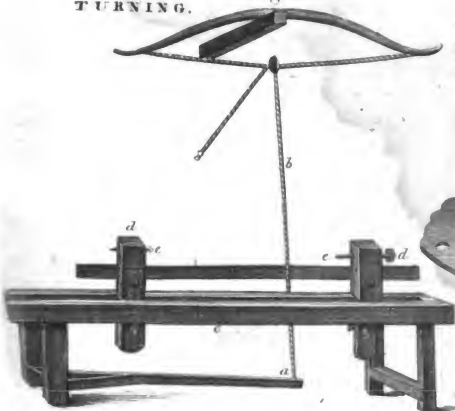
Tricheus Rosmarus.
the Sea-horse, Morfe or Walrus.



Scale of Feet.



TURNING. Fig. 1.



WATCH. Plate CCXVIII

Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.



Fig. 4.



Fig. 3.

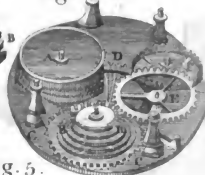


Fig. 5.

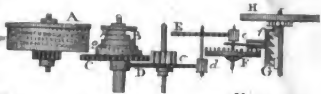


Fig. 6.

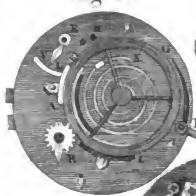


Fig. 9.



Fig. 7.



Fig. 10.

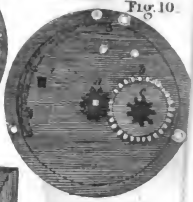


Fig. 8.

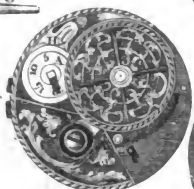


Fig. 3.

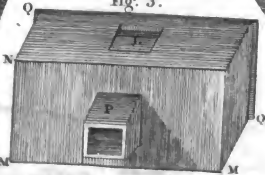


Fig. 1. VENTILATOR.

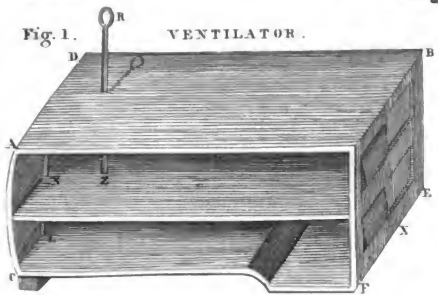


Fig. 2.

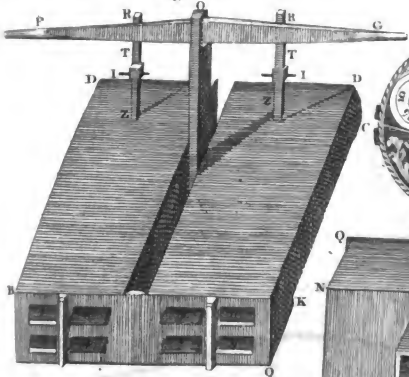
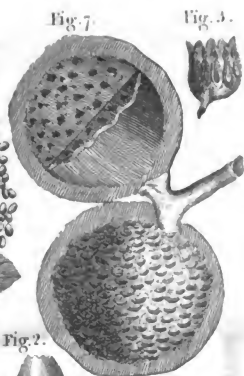
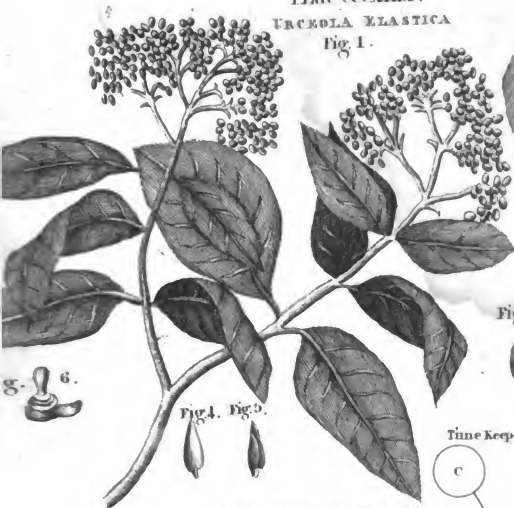


Plate CCCXIX.
URCEOLA ELASTICA
 Fig. 1.



Variation of the Compass.

Transplanter.

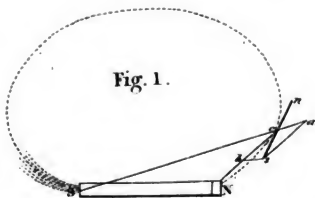
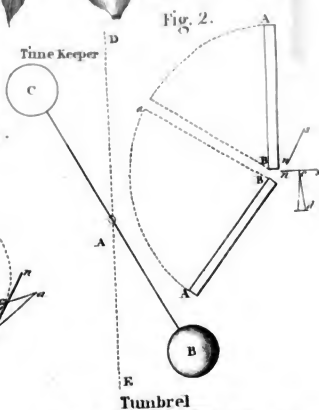
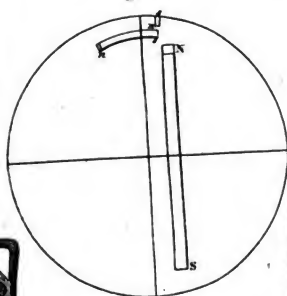


Fig. 3.



"The Science of the Tumbrel"

111

032
En17

FEB 29 1968

wils v.22
032 En17

Encyclopaedia perthensis, or, Universal



3 1951 002 025 963 0